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THE INTERNATIONAL STANDARD BIBLE ENCYCLOPAEDIA

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VOLUME V SOCKET—ZUZIM INDEXES

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SOCKET, sok'et (178, 'edhen): The tabernacle in the wilderness being constructed as a portable building without permanent foundation, its stability was attained by the use of "sockets" into which the pillars and boards forming its walls were sunk. The word therefore is used solely in relation to the tabernacle, except in one poetic passage (Cant 5 15), where the legs of the beloved are compared to "pillars of marble set upon sockets of fine gold." In all, the tabernacle with its court rested upon 165 bases or sockets, apportioned thus: (1) silver sockets, each a talent (c 95 lbs.) in weight (Ex 38 27), viz. 96 to support the 48 boards of the tabernacle (Ex 26 19 ff); 4 for the pillars supporting the veil (ver 32)=100; (2) bronze sockets, weight not given, viz. 50 to support the 50 standards on which were hung the curtains of the tabernacle on N., S. and W. (27 10 ff), 10 to support 10 pillars on the E. (vs 13 ff), and 5 to support the 5 pillars upholding the screen at the tabernacle entrance (26 27) = 65. The site for the tabernacle being chosen and leveled, these sockets would be "laid" upon it (Ex 40 18), and the tenons of the boards, or projecting base of the pillar, inserted into holes made for the purpose. W. SHAW CALDECOTT

SOCOH, sō'kō (תוֹכֹה, שׁוֹכֹה, sōkhōh, "branches"), SOCO (שׁרֹכּר), sõkhō [in Ch only]; Σωχώ, Sōchō, most usual, but many forms in LXX and in AV: Socoh, Shochoh, Shoco, Shocho):

(1) A city in the Shephelah of Judah mentioned along with Jarmuth, Adullam, Azekah, etc (Josh 15 35); the Philis "gathered together at Socoh, which belongeth to Judah, and encamped between Socoh and Azekah" (1 S 17 1); it is mentioned as one of the districts from which Solomon drew his supplies (1 K 4 10, AV "Sochoh"); the association of Socoh in this verse with Hepher is worth noticing in connection with 1 Ch 4 18 ("Heber"). Soco (AV "Shoco") was one of the cities fortified by Rehoboam for the defence of Judah (2 Ch 11 7); it was captured by the Philis in the time of Ahaz (28 18). The site is, without doubt, Kh. esh Shuweikeh (Shuweikeh is a diminutive of Shawkeh, "a thorn"), a rounded, elongated hilltop, showing clear traces of ancient city wells. The showing clear traces of ancient city walls. The situation is one of considerable natural strength on the south side of the Vale of Elah just where the Wady es Sar makes a sweep to the W. and becomes the Wady es Sunt. Like so many such ancient sites, the hill has very steep slopes on 3 sides (S., W., and N.), and is isolated from the ridge of higher ground to the E. by a narrow neck of lower ground. In the valley to the S.W. is a plentiful spring. The site was known to Jerome in the 4th spring. The site was known to Jerome in the 4th cent. He described it as 8 or 9 Rom miles from Eleutheropolis (Beit Jibrîn) (PEF, III, 53, 125, Sh XVII, BR, II, 21). The Sucathites (1 Ch 2 55) were probably inhabitants of Soco.

(2) A city of Judah in the S., associated (Josh 15 48) with Shamir and Jattir. This is doubtless Kh. Shuweikeh, a large ruin occupying a low hill, 10 miles S.W. of Hebron; there are many caves and rock-cut cisterns as well as drafted stones. Cheyne doubtfully locates the Socoh of 1 K 4 10 here. See *PEF*, 404, 410, Sh XXV; *BR*, I, 494. E. W. G. MASTERMAN

SOD, SODDEN, sod"n. See SEETHE.

SODA, sō'da. See NITRE.

SODERING, sod'ēr-ing (구구기, debhek): AV in Isa 41 7, RV "soldering," of smith work.

SODI, sō'dī (סוֹדִיר , s̄ōdhī): One of the spies, representing the tribe of Zebulun (Nu 13 10).

SODOM, sod'um (Σίτο, şedhōm; Σόδομα, Sódoma): One of the 5 CITIES OF THE PLAIN (q.v.), destroyed by fire from heaven in the time of Abraham and Lot (Gen 19 24). The wickedness of the city became proverbial. The sin of sodomy was an offence against nature frequently connected with idolatrous practices (see Rawlinson, History of Phoenicia). See Sodomite. The fate of Sodom and Gomorrah is used as a warning to those who reject the gospel (Mt 10 15; 11 24; 2 Pet 2 6; Jude ver 7). The word is used in a typical sense in Rev 11 8. Sodom was probably located in a plain S. of the Dead Sea, now covered with water. The name is still preserved in Jebel Usdum (Mt. Sodom). See ARABAH; CITIES OF THE PLAIN; DEAD SEA.

LITERATURE.—Dillmann. Genesis, 111 f; Robinson, BR, II, 187 ff; G. A. Smith, HGHL, 505 ff; Blanckenhorn, ZDPV, XIX, 1896, 53 ff; Baedeker-Socin, Pal, 143; Buhl, GAP, 117, 271, 274.

GEORGE FREDERICK WRIGHT SODOM, VINE OF (בֶּלֶּדְ־סְדֹם, gephen sedhōm):

"For their vine is of the vine of Sodom, And of the fields of Gomorrah: Their grapes are grapes of gall, Their clusters are bitter" (Dt 32 32).

This must be distinguished from the "Apples of Sodom" (q.v.), described by Jos (BJ, IV, viii, 4), which appear to have been an actual species of fruit, probably either the colocynth or the fruit of the Usher tree, Calotropis procera. It would appear, however, from the above, the only passage referring to the Vine of Sodom, that this expression is metaphorical and does not refer to any particular plant. E. W. G. MASTERMAN

SODOMITE, sod'om-īt (D), kādhēsh, fem. קרשה, kedhēshāh): Ķādhēsh denotes properly a male temple prostitute, one of the class attached to certain sanctuaries of heathen deities, and "consecrated" to the impure rites of their worship. gross and degrading practices in Jeh's land could only be construed as a flagrant outrage; and any association of these with His pure worship was abhorrent (Dt 23 17f). The presence of Sodomites is noted as a mark of degeneracy in Rehoboam's time (1 K 14 24). As a endeavored to get rid of them (15 12), and Jehoshaphat routed them out (22 46). Subsequent corruptions opened the way for their return, and Josiah had to break down way for their return, and Josiah had to break down their houses which were actually "in the house of the Lord" (2 K 23 7). The fem. k"dhēshāh is trd "prostitute" in Gen 38 21.22; Hos 4 14; in Dt 23 17 "prostitute" (AVm "sodomitess," RVm transliterates). The Eng. word is, of course, derived from Sodom, the inhabitants of which were in evil repute for unnatural vice. W. Ewing

SODOMITISH, sod'om-īt-ish, SEA. See DEAD SEA.

SODOMY, sod'o-mi. See Sodom; Sodomite; CRIMES; PUNISHMENTS.

SOJOURNER, soj'ēr-nēr, sō'jûr-nēr, suj'ēr-nēr. See STRANGER AND SOJOURNER.

SOLDERING, sod'er-ing. See Sodering.

SOLDIER, söl'jer. See Army.

SOLEMN, sol'em, SOLEMNITY, sö-lem'ni-ti: The word "solemn" had (1) at first the meaning "once in the year," through its derivation from Lat sollus, "whole," annus, "year." As, however, a regular annual occurrence is usually one of particular importance, the word took on (2) the mean-

ing "ceremonious." From this is derived (3) the usual modern force of "grave" in opposition to "joyous." This last meaning is not in Bib. Eng., and the meanings of "solemn" in EV are either (1) or (2). Nor is there any certain case of (1), for the world is always in EV and always in EV. the word is always a gloss in EV and, although frequently introduced in references to annual events (Lev 23 36, etc), it is even more often used where (Lev 23 36, etc), it is even more often used where "annual" is foreign to the passage (2 K 10 20; Ps 92 3, etc). The use of the word in AV is unsystematic. It is always (except in Jer 9 2) found in conjunction with "assembly" when (10 t) the latter word represents 'āçārāh ('ăçereth) (Lev 23 36, etc) (retained by RV with m "closing festival," Lev 23 36; 2 Ch 7 9; Neh 8 18). AV uses "solemnity" or "solemn day," "feast," etc, 17 t for the very common word mō'ēh ("appointed" time, etc;

RV's treatment of these passages defies analysis. "Solemnity" is kept in Isa 33 20; Ezk 46 11, and "solemn" in Lam (4 t); Hos (3 t); Zeph 3 18. In Ezk 36 38; 45 17; 46 9 it is replaced by "appointed," elsewhere (and for mō'ādhōth, 2 Ch 8 13) by "set." The margins further complicate the renderings. AV The margins further complicate the renderings. AV also uses "solemn" with hāgh, "feast," 4 t, and with hāghagh, "keep a feast," in Dt 16 15. The word is dropped by RV, except ERV in Ps 81 3. Finally, AV and RV have "solemn sound" for higgāyōn, in Ps 92 3. The context, however, demands "resounding melody." And 11 t RV has introduced "solemn" to represent the intensive in the form shabbath shabbāthōn (Ex 16 23, etc), where AV has simply "sabbath" or "sabbath of rest. RV here has imitated the adverbial "solemnly" in the similar intensified expressions in Gen 43 3; 1 S 8.

RV Apoc translates en hēmérais kairoû, "in the days of the season" (Bar 1 14), by "on the days of the solemn assembly" (AV "solemn days"), and both AV and RV have "solemn feast days" for dies festos (2 Esd 1 31). Otherwise AV's use of "solemn" is dropped by RV. Burton Scott Easton

SOLEMN ASSEMBLY (MEETING) See Con-GREGATION; FASTS AND FEASTS; SOLEMN, SOLEM-

SOLOMON, sol'ö-mun (הֹשֶׁלֹמִיהׁ, shelōmōh; NT Σολομών, Solomön):

I. EARLY LIFE
1. Name and Meaning
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1. Name and Meaning
2. Sources
3. Birth and Upbringing
4. His Accession
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RATURE

see FEAST).

TIT.

I. Early Life. - Solomon was the son of David and Bath-sheba, and became the 3d king of Israel. He was so named by his mother (2 S 12

24, Kerē; see Text), but by the prophet 1. Name Nathan, or by his father (Vulg), he was called Jedidiah—"loved of Jeh."
The name "Solomon" is derived from and Mean-

the root meaning "to be quiet" or "peaceful," and S. was certainly the least warlike of all the kings of Israel or Judah, and in that respect a remarkable contrast to his father (so 1 Ch 22 9). His name

in Heb compares with Irenaeus in Gr, Friedrich in Ger., and Selim in Arab.; but it has been suggested that the name should be pronounced shillūmāh, from the word denoting "compensation," Bath-sheba's second son being given in compensation for the loss of the first (but see 3, below).

The oldest sources for the biography of S. are doubtless the "Annals of Solomon" referred to in 1 K 11 41, the "history of Nathan the prophet," the "prophecy of Ahijah the Shilonite" and the "visions of 2. Sources Iddo the seer," mentioned in 2 Ch 9 29, all which may be merely the relative sections of the great book of the "Annals of the Kings" from which our Books of K and Ch are both derived. These ancient works are, of course, lost to us save in so far as they have been embodied in the OT narrative. There the life of S. is contained in 2 S 12 24 f; 1 K 1-11; 1 Ch 22-2 Ch 9. Of these sources 2 S 12 24 f and 1 K 1, 2 are much the oldest and in fact form and 1 K 1, 2 are much the onests and 1 part of one document, 2 S 9-20; 1 K 1, 2 dealing with the domestic affairs of David, which may well with the events it describes. The be contemporary with the events it describes. date of the composition of the Books of Ch is about 300 BC-700 years after the time of S.-and the date of the Books of K, as a completed work, must, of course, be later than the exile. Nothing of importance is gained from citations from early historians in Jos and later writers. Far and away the best source for, at least, the inner life of S. would

be sure that these were genuine (see below).

The children of David by Bath-sheba are given in 1 Ch 3 5 as Shimea, Shobab, Nathan and Solomon. Cf also 2 S 5 14; 1 Ch 14 4, where

be the writings ascribed to him in the OT, could we

the same persons evidently are named. 3. Birth It would thus appear that S. was the 4th son of Bath-sheba, supposing and Upbringing

Shimea to be the child that died. Otherwise S. would be the 5th son. There are therefore some events omitted in 2 S 12 24 f, or else the names Shobab and Nathan are remains of some clause which has been lost, and not proper names. Like the heir apparent of a Turkish sultan, S. seems to have spent his best years in the seclusion of the harem. There he was doubtless more influenced by his mother than by his father, and in close intimacy with his mother was the prophet Nathan, who had given him his by-name of fortunate import (2 S 12 25).

It was not until David lay on his deathbed that S. left the women's quarters and made his appear-

ance in public. That he had been selected by David, as the son of the 4. His Acfavorite wife, to succeed him, is pre-supposed in the instructions which cession he received from his father regarding the building of the Temple. But as soon as it appeared that the life of David was nearing its end, it became evident that S. was not to have a "walk over." He found a rival in Adonijah the son of Haggith, who was apparently the eldest surviving son of his father, and who had the support of Joab, by far the strongest man of all, of Abiathar, the leading, if not the favorite, priest (cf 2 S 15 24 ff), and of the princes of the royal house. S., on the other hand, had the support of his mother Bath-sheba, David's favority ruffs of Nether hand, the support of his mother Bath-sheba, David's favorite wife, of Nathan the court prophet, of Zadok who had eclipsed Abiathar, of Benaiah, the son of a priest, but one of the three bravest of David's soldiers, and captain of the bodyguard of Cherethites and Pelethites, and of the principal soldiers. It is esp. noted that Shimei and Hushai (so Jos) took no active part at any rate with Adonijah (1 K 1 8).

The conspiracy came to nothing, for, before it developed, S. was anointed at Gibeon (not Gihon,

1 K 1 33.38.45), and entered Jerus as king.

The age of S. at his accession is unknown. The expression in 1 K 3 7 is not, of course, to be taken literally (otherwise Ant, VIII, vii, 8). 5. Closing His reign opened, like that of many an oriental monarch, with a settlement in Days of David blood of the accounts of the previous reign. Joab, David's nephew, who had brought the house within the bounds of blood revenge, was executed. Adonijah, as soon as his father had breathed his last, was on a nominal charge put to death. Abiathar was relegated to his home at Anathoth (1 K 2 26). Conditions were imposed on Shimei which he failed to keep and so forfeited his life (2 36 ff). These steps having been taken, S. began his reign, as it were, with a clean slate.

II. Reign of Solomon.—It was apparently at the

very beginning of his reign that S. made his famous choice of a "hearing heart," i.e. an 1. His obedient heart, in preference to riches Vision or long life. The vision took place at Gibeon (2 Ch 1 7, but in 1 K 3 4 ft the ancient versions read "upon the altar that was in Gibeon. And the Lord appeared," etc). The life of S. was a curious commentary on his early resolution. One of the first acts of his reign was apparently, in the style of the true oriental monarch, to build himself a new palace, that of his father being inadequate for his requirements. In regard to politics, however, the events of Solomon's reign may be regarded as an endorsement of his choice. Under him alone was the kingdom of Israel a great world-power, fit almost to rank beside Assyria and Egypt. Never again were the bounds of Israel so wide; never again were north and south united in one great nation. There is no doubt that the credit of this result is due to the wisdom of S.

S. was by nature an unwarlike person, and his whole policy was in the direction of peace. He disbanded the above-mentioned foreign

2. His legion, the Cherethites and Pelethites, who had done such good service as bodyguard to his father. All his Policy officers seem to have been mediocre persons who would not be likely to force his hand, as Joab had done that of David (2 S 3 39). Even the fortification of Jerus and of the frontier towns was undertaken with a view to repel attack, not for the purposes of offence. S. did, no doubt, strengthen the army, esp. the cavalry arm (1 K 4 26; 10 26), but he never made any use of this, and perhaps it existed largely on paper. At any rate S. seems to have been rather a breeder of and dealer in horseflesh than a soldier. He appears also to have had a fine collection of armor (10 25), but much of it was made of gold (10 16 f) and was intended for show, not for use. Both in his reputation for wisdom and in his aversion to war S. bears a striking resemblance to King James VI of Scotland and I of England, as depicted by the hand of Sir Walter It was fortunate for him that both the neighboring great powers were for the time in a decadent state, otherwise the history of the kingdom of Israel would have ended almost before it had begun. On the other hand, it has been remarked that if S. had had anything like the military genius of David and his enthusiasm for the religion of Jeh, he might have extended the arms of Israel from the Nile to the Tigris and anticipated the advent of Islam. But his whole idea was to secure himself in peace, to amass wealth and indulge his love of grandeur with more than oriental splendor.

S., in fact, was living on the achievements and reputation of his father, who laid the basis of security and peace on which the commercial genius of S. could raise the magnificent structure which he did. But he took the clay from the foundations in order to build the walls. The Hebrews were a military people and in that consisted their life. S.

3. Its Results

withdrew their energies from their natural bent and turned them to commerce, for which they were not yet ripe. Their soul rebelled under the irksome

drudgery of an industry of which they did not reap the fruits. S. had in fact reduced a free people to slavery, and concentrated the wealth of the whole country in the capital. As soon as he was out of the way, his country subjects threw off the yoke and laid claim to their ancient freedom. His son found himself left with the city and a territory as small as an English county

Solomon's chief ally was Hiram, the king of Tyre, probably the friend and ally of David, who is to be

distinguished from Hiram the artificer 4. Alliance of 1 K 7 13 ff. Hiram the king enwith Tyre tered into a treaty with S. which was to the advantage of both parties. Hiram supplied S. with cedar and pine wood from Lebanon, as well as with skilled artisans for his building. Tyrian sailors were also drafted into the ships of S., the Hebrews not being used to the sea (1 K 9 26 f), besides which Phoen ships sailed Tyrian sailors were also drafted into the along with those of S. The advantages which Hiram received in return were that the Red Sea was open to his merchantmen, and he also received large supplies of corn and oil from the land of Israel (1 K 5 11 corrected by LXX and 2 Ch 2 10). At the conclusion of the building of the palace and Temple, which occupied 20 years, S. presented Hiram with 20 villages (1 K 9 11; the converse, 2 Ch 8 2), and Hiram made S. a return present of gold (1 K 9 14; omitted in 2 Ch).

Second to Hiram was the Pharaoh of Egypt, whose daughter S. married, receiving as her dower

5. Alliance with Egypt

the town of Gezer (1 K 9 16). This Pharaoh is not named in the OT. This alliance with Egypt led to the introduction of horses into Israel (10

28 f), though David had already made a beginning on a small scale (2 S 8 4). Both these alliances lasted throughout the reign. There is no mention of an alliance with the eastern power, which was then in a decadent state.

It was probably nearer the beginning than the end of Solomon's reign that political trouble broke out within the realm. When David had

6. Domestic annexed the territory of the Edomites at the cost of the butchery of the male Troubles population (cf 2 S 8 14; Ps 60, title) one of the young princes of the reigning house effected his escape, and sought and found an asylum in Egypt, where he rose to occupy a high station. No sooner had he heard of the death of David and Joab than he returned to his native country and there stirred up disaffections against S. (1 K 11 14 ff; see Hanad), without, however, restoring independence to Edom (1 K 9 26). A second occasion of disaffection arose through a prophet having foretold that the successor of S. would have one of the Israelite tribes only and that the other ten clans would be under Solomon's master of works whom he had set over them. This officer also took refuge in Egypt and was protected by Shishak. He remained there until the death of S. (1 K 11 26 ff). A third adversary was Rezon who had fled from his master the king of Zobah (1 K 11 23), and who established himself at Damascus and founded a dynasty which was long a thorn in the side of Israel. These domestic troubles are regarded as a consequence of the falling away of S. from the path of rectitude, but this seems to be but a kind of anticipative consequence, that is, if it was not till the end of his reign that S. fell into idolatry and polytheism (1 K 11 4).

III. His Buildings .- The great undertaking of the reign of S. was, of course, The Temple (q.v.),

which was at first probably considered as the Chapel Royal and an adjunct of the palace. The Temple was begun 1. The Temple in the 4th year of the reign and finished in the 11th, the work of the building occupying $7\frac{1}{2}$ years (1 K 6; 7 13 ff). The delay in beginning is remarkable, if the material were all ready to hand (1 Ch 22). Worship there was inaugurated with fitting ceremony and prayers (1 K 8).

To S., however, his own palace was perhaps a more

interesting undertaking. It at any rate occupied more time, in fact 13 years (1 K 7 1–12; 9 10; 2 Ch 8 1), the time of building both palace and Temple being 20 years. Pacifilly the building being 20 years. Possibly the building of the palace occupied the first four years of the reign and was then intermitted and resumed after the completion of the Temple; but of this there is no indication in the text. It was called the House of the Forest of Lebanon, from the fact that it was lined with cedar wood (1 K 7 2). A description of it is given in 1 K 7 1-12.

S. also rebuilt the wall of the city and the citadel (see Jerusalem; Millo). He likewise erected

3. Other Gastles at the vulnerable points of the frontiers—Hazor, Megiddo and Gezer Buildings (1 K 9 15), lower Beth-horon and BAALATH (q.v.). According to the Kerë of 1 K 9 18 and the ancient VSS as well as 2 Ch 8 4, he was the founder of Tadmor (Palmyra); but the Kethibh of 1 K 9 18 reads Tamar (cf Ezk 47 19). Some of the remains of buildings recently discovered at Megiddo and Gezer may go back to the time of S.

S. could not have built on the scale he did with the resources ordinarily at the command of a free ruler. Accordingly we find that one of the

institutions fostered by him was the corvée, or forced labor. No doubt some-4. The Corvée thing of the kind always had existed (Josh 9 21) and still exists in all despotic governments. Thus the people of a village will be called on to repair the neighboring roads, esp. when the Pasha is making a progress in the neighborhood. But S. made the thing permanent and national (1 K 5 13-15; 9 15). The immediate purpose of the levy was to supply laborers for work in the Lebanon in connection with his building operations. Thus 30,000 men were raised and drafted, 10,000 at a time, to the Lebanon, where they remained for a month, thus having two months out of every three at home. But even when the immediate cause had ceased, the practice once introduced was kept up and it became one of the chief grievances which led to the dismemberment of the kingdom (1 K 12 18, Adoram = Adoniram; cf 2 S 20 24), for hitherto the corvée had been confined to foreign slaves taken in war (1 K 9 21). It is said the higher posts were reserved for Israelites, the laborers being foreigners (9 22), that is, the Israelites acted as foremen. Some of the foreign slaves seem to have formed a guild in connection with the Temple which lasted down to the time of the exile (Ezr 2 55-57; Neh 7 57-59; see Nethinim).

IV. His Character.—In S. we have the type of a

Heb kings, whether of Israel. The Heb kings, whether of Israel or 1. Personal Judah, were, in theory at least, elect-qualities ive monarchs like the bings of P. If one happened to be a strong ruler, he managed to establish his family, it might be, for three or even four generations. In the case of the Judaean dynasty the personality of the first king made such a deep impression upon the heart of

the people that the question of a change of dynasty

there never became pressing. But S. would probably have usurped the crown if he had not inherited it, and once on the throne he became a thoroughgoing despot. All political power was taken out of the hands of the sheiks, although outward respect was still paid to them (I K 8 1), and placed in the hands of officers who were simply creatures of S. The resources of the nation were expended, not on works of public utility, but on the personal aggrandizement of the monarch (1 K 10 18 ff). In the means he took to gratify his passions he showed himself to be little better than a savage, and if he did not commit such great crimes as David, it was perhaps because he had no occasion, or because he employed greater cunning in working out his ends.

The wisdom for which S. is so celebrated was not of a very high order; it was nothing more than practical shrewdness, or knowledge of

2. Wisdom the world and of human nature. common example of it is that given in 1 K 3 16 ff, to which there are innumerable parallels in Indian, Gr and other literatures. The same worldly wisdom lies at the back of the Book of Prov, and there is no reason why a collection of these should not have been made by S., just as it is more likely that he was a composer of verses than that he was not (1 K 4 32). The statement that he had breadth of heart (4 29) indicates that there was nothing known which did not come within his

The word "wisdom," however, is used also in another connection, namely, in the sense of theoretical knowledge or book learning, 3. Learning esp. in the department of natural history. It is not to be supposed that S. had any scientific knowledge of botany or zoology, but he may have collected the facts of observation, a task in which the Oriental, who cannot generalize, excels. The wisdom and understanding (1 K 4 29) for which S. was famous would consist largely in stories about beasts and trees like the well-known Fables of Pilpai. They included also the "wisdom" for which Egypt was famous (4 30), that is, occult science. It results from this last statement that S.

appears in post-Bib. and Arabian lit. as a magician.
S. was very literally a merchant prince. He not only encouraged and protected commerce, but engaged in it himself. He was in fact 4. Trade the predominant, if not sole, partner in

and Com-

a great trading concern, which was nothing less than the Israelite nation. merce One of his enterprises was the horse trade with Egypt. His agents bought up horses which were again sold to the kings of the Hittites and the Aramaeans. The prices paid are mentioned (1 K 10 29). The best of these S. no doubt retained for his own cavalry (1 K 10 26). Another commodity imported from that country was linen yarn (1 K 10 28 AV). The navy which S. built at the head of the Gulf of Akaba was not at all for military, but purely commercial ends. They were ships of Tarshish, that is, merchant ships, not ships sailing to Tarshish, as 2 Ch 9 21. They traded to OPHIR (q.v.), from which they brought gold, silver, ivory, apes and peacocks, the round voyage lasting 3 years (1 K 9 26 ff; 10 22). Special mention is made of "almug" (10 11) or "algum" (2 Ch 9 10 f) trees (q.v.). The visit of the Queen of Sheba would point to the overland caravan routes from the Yemen being then open (1 K 10 15). What with direct imports and the result of sales, silver and cedar wood became very plentiful in the capital (10 27).

The list of Solomon's officers of state is given in 1 K 4 2 ff. These included a priest, two secretaries, a recorder, a commander-in-chief, a chief commissariat officer, a chief shepherd (if we may read

and diviners.

 $r\bar{o}$ 'eh for $r\bar{e}$ 'eh), a master of the household, and the head of the corvée. The list should be compared with those of David's officers (2 S 8 16 ff; 20 23 ff). There is much re-Officers semblance, but we can see that the machine of state was becoming more. The bodyguard of foreign merceof State complicated. naries was abolished and the captain Benaiah promoted to be commander-in-chief. Two scribes were required instead of one. Twelve commissariat officers were appointed whose duty it was to officers were appointed whose duty it was to forward from their districts the supplies for the royal household and stables. The list of these officials, a very curious one, is given in 1 K 4 7 ff. It is to be noted that the 12 districts into which the country was divided did not coincide with the territories of the 12 tribes. It may be remarked that S. seems as far as possible to have retained the old servants of his father. It will be noticed also that in all the lists there is mention of more than one priest. These "priests" retained some of their original functions, since they acted as prognosticators

Solomon's principal wife was naturally the daughter of Pharaoh; it was for her that his palace was built (1 K 3 1; 7 8; 9 16.24).

But in addition to her he established 6. Wives marriage relations with the neighboring peoples. In some cases the object was no doubt to cement an alliance, as with the Zidonians and Hittites and the other nationalities (11 1), some of which were forbidden to Israelites (Dt 7 3). It may be that the daughter of Pharaoh was childless or died a considerable time before S., but his favorite wife was latterly a granddaughter of Nahash, the Ammonite king (1 K 14 21 LXX), and it was her son who succeeded to the throne. Many of S.'s wives were no doubt daughters of wealthy or powerful citizens who wished by an alliance with the king to strengthen their own positions. Yet we do not read of his marrying an Israelite wife. According to the Arabian story Bilkis, the Queen of Sheba who visited S. (1 K 10 1 ff), was also married to him. He appears to have had only one son; we are not told of any other than Rehoboam. His daughters were married to his own officers (1 K 4 I1.15).

S. is said to have started his reign with a capital sum of 100,000 talents of gold and a million talents

of silver, a sum greater than the nation-7. Revenues al debt of Great Britain. Even so, this huge sum was ear-marked for the building of the Temple (1 Ch 22 14). His income was, for one year, at any rate, 666 talents of gold (1 K 10 14), or about twenty million dollars. This seems an immense sum, but it probably was not so much as it looks. The great mass of the people were too poor to have any commodities which they could exchange for gold. Its principal use was for the decoration of buildings. Its purchasing power was probably small, because so few could afford to buy it. It was in the same category as the precious stones which are of great rarity, but which are of no value unless there is a demand for them. In the time of S. there was no useful purpose to which gold could be put in preference to any other metal.

It is not easy to believe that the age of S., so glorious in other respects, had not a literature to correspond. Yet the reign of the sultan Ismail in Morocco, whom S. 8. Literary much resembles, might be cited in Works favor of such a supposition. S. himself is stated to have composed 3,000 animal stories and 1,005 songs (1 K 4 32). In the OT the following are ascribed to him: three collections of Proverbs, 1 1 ff; 10 1 ff; 25 1 ff; The Song of

Songs; Pss 72 and 127; Eccl (although S. is not named). In Prov 25 1 the men of Hezekiah are said to have copied out the following proverbs.

LITERATURE.—The relative portions of the histories by Ewald, Stanley (who follows Ewald), Renan, Wellhausen and Kittel; also H. Winckler, Alttestamentliche Untersuchungen; and the comms. on the Books of K and Ch.

THOMAS HUNTER WEIR

SOLOMON, ODES OF. See APOCALYPTIC LITERATURE, B, III, 2.

SOLOMON, POOLS OF. See Pools of Solo-MON.

SOLOMON, PSALMS (PSALTER) OF. See Apocalyptic Literature, B, III, 1.

SOLOMON, SONG OF. See Song of Songs.

SOLOMON, WISDOM OF. See Wisdom of SOLOMON.

SOLOMON'S PORCH. See Porch. MON's.

SOLOMON'S SERVANTS (עַבַדֵּר שׁלמֹה, 'ābh°dhē sh°lōmōh; δοῦλοι Σαλωμών, doüloi Salōmōn):
"The children of Solomon's servants" constituted a company or guild of the Jewish exiles who returned with Zerubbabel from Babylonia to Jerus in 537 BC, pursuant to the decree of Cyrus; they are mentioned 5 t (Ezr 2 55.58 Neh 7 57.60; Neh 11 3). As the prime purpose of the returning exiles was the rebuilding of the Temple and the restoration of Jeh's worship (Ezr 1 2.3), it was important that those who held the privileges of sanctuary service as a family heritage should go back to their duties. This included, besides priests and Levites, the NETHINIM (q.v.) and Solomon's Servants. In every reference to them, Solomon's Servants. ants are connected with the Nethinim, who had been "given" or dedicated (nethīnīm or nethūnīm is pass. participle of nāthan, "to give," "to appoint") by David "for the service of the Levites" (Ezr 8 20); so Solomon's Servants traced their official beginning back to Solomon's appointment, as their name indicates. In the joint references they always fall into the natural chronological order, i.e. following the Nethinim. It is possible, therefore, that they are referred to in Ezr 7 24 also, under the title "servants of this house of God," which immediately follows "Nethinim" in the list of those exempt from taxation and tolls.

taxation and tolls.

What their duties in the house of God may have been is not stated in the records. These must have been more or less menial, the more formal and honorable duties being reserved for "the priests and Levites, the singers, and] porters" (Ezr 7 24). When the ark was brought to Jerus by David and the ceremonial of the sacrificial system was more strictly observed, the services of priests and Levites were greatly increased, and to meet the needs of the new order David appointed the Nethinim (Ezr 8 20; cf 1 Ch 9 2). Likewise the much greater increase in such duties on the completion of Solomon's Temple was the occasion for the dedication of an additional number of these assistants to the Levites.

The number of those who returned with Zerubbabel was not great, together with the Nethinim being only 392. This does not appear to have been sufficient for the needs of the sanctuary, since Ezra, in preparation for his expedition in 458 BC, made special appeal for Nethinim to go with him, of whom 220 responded (Ezr 8 15-20). No doubt at the first their service was considered to be lowly; but by the time of the exile, certainly after it, their position had developed into one of considerable honor and constituted them a privileged class in the nation. While many of the people were required by Nehemiah to live in Jerus, they were allowed to dwell in their possessions "in the cities of Judah" (Neh 11 3).

A question of some interest and of difference of opinion is whether Solomon's Servants were Levites or non-Israelites. The latter view is the more generally held, for the following reasons:

(1) After the completion of the Temple and his other great buildings a large body of workmen, whom Solomon had drafted from the non-Israelite population, were without occupation, and might well have been assigned to the menial duties of the Temple (1 K 9), their name in LXX (douloi) properly indicating such a class; (2) Ezekiel excludes non-Israelites from the service of his ideal temple, as though they had been allowed in the preëxilic Temple (44 9); (3) they are always clearly distinguished from the Levites in the lists of religious bodies.

But, on the other hand, equally strong arguments favor their Levitical descent: (1) Levites also are called douloi in 1 Esd; (2) it is more probable that Ezekiel refers to the abuses of Athaliah, Ahaz and Manasseh than to the institutions of David and Solomon; (3) Ezra specifically classifies the Nethinim as Levites (8 15-20); (4) there is not the slightest intimation in the text of 1 K 9 15-22 that the gentile bondservants were assigned to templeservice after completion of the great building operations; such an interpretation is wholly inferential, while, on the contrary, it is more probable that such an innovation would have been mentioned in the narrative; and (5) it is not probable that Ezra and Nehemiah, or Zerubbabel, with their strict views of Israelitish privilege (cf Ezr 2 62), would have admitted non-Israelites to sacred functions, the less so in view of Ezekiel's prohibition. There is more ground, then, for holding that Solomon's Servants, like the porters and singers, were an order of Levites. EDWARD MACK

SOMEIS, sō'mē-is (Σομεείς, Someeis; AV Samis): One of the Israelites who put away their foreign wives (1 Esd 9 34)="Shimei" in Ezr 10 38.

SOMETIME, sum'tim: In modern Eng. means "occasionally," and is so used in Sir 37 14 for evlore, cocasionally," and is so used in Sir 37 14 for $\ell\nu$ lore, entote. Otherwise the word means "at some past time," and is the tr of $\pi\sigma\tau\ell$, polé. RV changes to "aforetime" in Wisd 5 3; 1 Pet 3 20; to "once" in Eph 2 13; 5 8; to "in time past" in Col 1 21; while in Col 3 7 ERV has "aforetime," ARV "once." AV does not distinguish between "sometime" and "corrections" "sometimes."

SON, sun, SONS, sunz: (1) In Bib. language the word "son" is used first of all in its strictly literal sense of male issue or offspring of a man or woman. In a few cases in the OT, as in Gen 3 16; Josh 17 2; Jer 20 15, the Heb word $b\bar{e}n$, is trd correctly in the Eng. by the word "child" or "children," as it includes both sexes, as in Gen 3 16, or is limited to males by the use of the modifying term "male." Closely connected with this meaning of direct male issue or of children is its use to denote descendants, posterity in the more general sense. This usage which, as in the case of the sons (children) of Israel, may be regarded perhaps as originating in the conception of direct descent from the common ancestor Israel, came in the course of time to be a mere ethnographic designation, so that the term "the children of Israel" and "the children of Ammon" meant no more than Israelites or Ammonites, that is, inhabitants of the lands of Israel or Ammon respectively. An extension of this usage is to be found in the designation of a people as the sons or children of a land or city; so in Am 9 7 "children of the Ethiopians," or Ezk 16 28, where the literal rendering would be "sons of Asshur," instead of the Assyrians, and "the children of Jerus" in Joel 3 6. See BAR (prefix); BEN-.

(2) More characteristic of Bib. usage is the employment of the word "son" to indicate membership in a class or guild, as in the common phrase

"sons of the prophets," which implies nothing whatever as to the ancestry, but states that the individuals concerned are members of the prophetic guilds or schools. In the NT the word "sons" (huiot) in Lk 11 19, rendered "children" in Mt 12 27 AV, means, not physical descendants, but members of the class or sect; according to Mt the Pharisees, who were attacking Christ.

(3) The word "son" is used with a following genitive of quality to indicate some characteristic of the person or persons described. In the Eng. the word "son" is usually omitted and the phrase is paraphrased as in 2 S 3 34, where the words trd "wicked have a some characteristic of the person of the phrase is paraphrased as in 2 S 3 34, where the words trd "wicked have a some characteristic or wickedness." men" in AV mean lit. sons or children of wickedness. Two examples of this usage may be cited: the familiar phrase "sons of Belial" in the OT (Dt 13 13 AV, and often), where the meaning is simply base or worthless fellows (cf Nu 24 17, m"children of Sheth" [Expos T, XIII, 64b]); and in the NT the phrase "sons of thunder," which is given in Mk 3 17 as the explanation of the epithet "Boanerges." This use is common in the NT, as the phrases "children of the kingdom," "children of light," etc. indicate, the general meaning being that the noun in the genitive following the word children indicates some quality of the persons under consideration. The special phrases "Son of man" and "Son of God" are considered in separate articles. See also RELATIONSHIPS, FAMILY.

WALTER R. BETTERIDGE SON-IN-LAW. See RELATIONSHIPS, FAMILY.

SON OF GOD, THE (ὁ υίὸς θεοῦ, ho huiós theoú):

1. Use of Title in the Synoptists
2. Meanings in the OT
3. Sense as Applied to Jesus
4. Physical Reason
5. Alleged Equivalence to "Messiah" (Baptism, Temptation, etc)—Personal Sense Implied
6. Higher Use by Jesus Himself
7. The "Son" in Mt 11 27
8. In Mk 13 32
9. In Mt 28 18-20
10. Apostolic Doctrine: Deity Affirmed
11. The Fourth Gospel: Deity, Preëxistence, etc
LITERATURE

LITERATURE

While the title "the Son of man" is always, except once, applied by Jesus to Himself, "the Son of God" is never applied by Jesus to Himself

1. Use of in the Synoptists. When, however, it Title in the is applied to Him by others, He accepts Synoptists it in such a way as to assert His claim to it. Now and then He Himself employs the abbreviated form, "the Son," with the

same intention; and He often speaks of God as "the Father" or "my Father" or "my Father who is in heaven" in such a manner as to betray the consciousness that He is the Son of God.

While to the common mind "the Son of man" is a title designating the human side of Our Lord's person, "the Son of God" seems as

obviously to indicate the Divine side. 2. Mean-But scholarship cannot take this for ings in the OT granted; and, indeed, it requires only a hasty glance at the facts to bring this

home even to the general reader, because in Scripture the title is bestowed on a variety of persons for a variety of reasons. First, it is applied to angels, as when in Job 2 1 it is said that "the sons of God came to present themselves before Jeh"; they may be so called because they are the creatures of God's hands or because, as spiritual beings, they resemble God, who is a spirit. Secondly, in Lk 3 38 it is applied to the first man; and from the parable of the Prodigal Son it may be argued that it is applicable to all men. Thirdly, it is applied to the Heb nation, as when, in Ex 4 22, Jeh says to Pharaoh, "Israel is my son, my first-born," the reason being that Israel was the object of Jeh's special love and

gracious choice. Fourthly, it is applied to the kings of Israel, as representatives of the chosen nation. Thus, in 2 S 7 14, Jeh says of Solomon, "I will be his father, and he shall be my son"; and, in Ps 2 7, the coronation of a king is announced in an oracle from heaven, which says, "Thou art my son; this day have I begotten thee." Finally, in the NT, the title is applied to all saints, as in Jn 1 12, "But as many as received him, to them gave he the right to become children of God, even to them that believe on his name." When the title has such a range of application, it is obvious that the Divinity of Christ cannot be inferred from the mere fact that it is applied to Him.

It is natural to assume that its use in application to Jesus is derived from one or other of its OT

uses; and the one almost universally fixed upon by modern scholarship as 3. Sense as Applied to Jesus that from which it was derived is the fourth mentioned above—that to the Jewish kings. Indeed, it is frequently asserted that in the Jewish lit. between the OT and the NT, it is found already coined as a title for the Messianic king; but the instances quoted

by Dalman and others in proof of this are far from satisfactory.

When we come to examine its use in the NT as applied by others to Jesus, the facts are far from simple, and it is not applied in a

4. Physical uniform sense. In Lk 1 35, the fol-Reason lowing reason for its use is given, "The Holy Spirit shall come upon thee, and the power of the Most High shall overshadow thee: wherefore also the holy thing which is begotten shall be called the Son of God." This is a physical reason, akin to that on account of which the angels or the first man received the title; but it is rather curious that this point of view does not seem to be adopted elsewhere, unless it be in the exclamation of the centurion at the foot of the cross, "Truly this was the Son of God" (Mt 27 54). As a pagan this soldier might be thinking of Jesus as one of those heroes, born of human mothers but divine fathers, of whom the mythology of his country had

so much to tell (cf m).

(1) Ravtism, Temptation.—It has been contended, not without plausibility, that for Jesus Himself the source of the title may

have been the employment of it in the Alleged Equivalence voice from heaven at His Baptism, to Messiah "This is my beloved Son, in whom I—Personal am well pleased" (Mt 3 17). By these words, it is usually assumed, He was designated as the Messiah; but in the adj. "beloved," and the Sense **Implied**

words "in whom I am well pleased," there is something personal, beyond the merely official recogni-tion. The same may be said of the voice from heaven in the scene of the Transfiguration. Milton, in Paradise Regained, makes Satan become aware of the voice from heaven at the Baptism; but this is also implied in the terms with which he approached Him in the Temptation in the wilderness, "If thou art the Son of God" (Mt 4 3, etc); and, if this was the sense in which the prince of devils made use of the phrase, we may conclude that in the mouths of the demoniacs who hailed Jesus by the same title it must have had the same meaning.

(2) At Caesarea Philippi.—When, at Caesarea

Philippi, Jesus evoked from the Twelve their great confession, this is given by two of the synoptists in the simple form, "Thou art the Christ" (Mk 8 29; Lk 9 20); but Mt adds, "the Son of the living God" (Mt 16 16). It is frequently said that Heb parallelism compels us to regard these words as a mere equivalent for "Messiah." But this is not the nature of parallelism, which generally includes

in the second of the parallel terms something in excess of what is expressed in the first; it would be quite in accordance with the nature of parallelism if the second term supplied the reason for the first. That is to say, Jesus was the Messiah because He was the Son of God.

(3) Trial before Sanhedrin.—There is another passage where it is frequently contended that "the Christ" and "the Son of God" must be exactly parallel, but a close examination suggests the reverse. In the account of the ecclesiastical trial in the Gospel of Lk, He is charged, "If thou art the Christ, tell us"; and, when He replies, "If I tell you, ye will not believe: and if I ask you, ye will not answer. But from henceforth shall the Son of man be seated at the right hand of the power of God," they all say, "Art thou then the Son of God?" and, when He replies in the affirmative, they require no further witness (Lk 22 67-71), Matthew informing us that the high priest hereupon rent his garments, and they all agreed that He had spoken blasphemy and was worthy of death (Mt 26 65 f). The usual assumption is that the second question, "Art thou . . . the Son of God?" implies no more than the first, 'Art thou the Christ?'; but is not the scene much more intelligible if the boldness of His answer to the first question suggested that He was making a still higher claim than to be the Christ, and that their second question applied to this? It was when Jesus affirmed this also that their angry astonishment knew no bounds, and their sentence was immediate and capital. It may be questioned whether it was blasphemy merely to claim to be the Messiah; but it was rank and undeniable blasphemy to claim to be the Son of God. This recalls the statement in Jn 5 18, "The Jews sought the more to kill him, because he not only brake the sabbath, but also called God his own Father, making himself equal with God"; to which may be added (Jn 10 33), "The Jews answered him, For a good work we stone thee not, but for blasphemy; and because that thou, being a man, makest thyself God."

Naturally it is with the words of Jesus Himself on this subject that we are most concerned. He speaks of God as His Father, and to the

6. Higher disciples He speaks of God as their Jesus HimJesus Himand even to speak of the opening words of the Lord's Prayer, "Our Father who art in heaven," as if Jesus might have uttered them in company with the disciples; but the distinction is a vital one, and we do not agree with those who can believe that Jesus could have uttered, for Himself along with others, the whole of the Lord's Prayer, including the petition, "Forgive us our debts, as we also

have forgiven our debtors." Of the passages in the Synoptists where Jesus speaks about God as "the Father" and Himself as "the Son," a peculiar solemnity

"the Son," a peculiar solemnity attaches to Mt 11 27 | Lk 10 22, "All things have been delivered unto 7. The "Son" in Mt 11:27 me of my Father: and no one knoweth the Son, save the Father; neither doth any know the Father, save the Son, and he to whom-soever the Son willeth to reveal him." There is a Johannine flavor in these words, and they reveal an intimacy of the Son with the Father, as well as a power over all things, which could not have been conferred by mere official appointment, unless there had been in the background a natural position warranting the official standing. Not infrequently has the word "Messianic" been allowed by scholars to

blind them to the most obvious facts. The conferring of an office on a mere man could not enable him to do things beyond the reach of human powers: yet it is frequently assumed that, if only Jesus was Messiah, He was able for anything, even when the thing in question is something for which a mere man is wholly incompetent.

There is a saying of Jesus (Mk 13 32) about His own Sonship which may seem to refute the church

doctrine on the subject, as in it He 8. The confesses ignorance of the date of His Second Coming: "Of that day or that "Son" in Mk 13:32 hour knoweth no one, not even the angels in heaven, neither the Son, but the Father." Yet, while there is much in this passage fitted to produce sane and sober views as to the real manhood of Jesus, there are few sayings of His that betray a stronger consciousness of His being more than man. Four planes of being and of knowledge are specified—that of men, that of angels, that of Himself, and that of God. Evidently the Son is above not only men but angels, and, if it is confessed that He is ignorant of anything, this is mentioned as a matter of surprise.

The conclusion would seem to be that He is a being intermediate between the angels and God:

but this impression is corrected by 9. The "Son" in the greatest of all the sayings in which He calls Himself the Son (Mt 28 18-20), "All authority hath been given un-Mt 28: 18-20 to me in heaven and on earth. Go ye therefore, and make disciples of all the

nations, baptizing them into the name of the Father and of the Son and of the Holy Spirit: teaching them to observe all things whatsoever I commanded you: and lo, I am with you always, even unto the end of the world." Here the Son is named along with the Father and the Holy Spirit in a way suggesting the equality of all three, an act of worship being directed to them jointly. By those who dis-believe in the Deity of Christ, the most strenuous attempts have been made to get rid of this passage, and in certain quarters it is taken for granted that it must have been an addition to the text of this Gospel. But for this there is no ground whatever; the passage is the climax of the Gospel in which it occurs, in the same way as the confession of Thomas is the climax of the Gospel of Jn; and to remove it would be an intolerable mutilation. Of course to those who disbelieve in the bodily resurrection of Our Lord, this has no more substance than the other details of the Forty Days; but to those who believe in His risen glory the words appear to suit the circumstances, their greatness being congruous with the entire representation of the NT.

Indeed, it is the Son of God, as He appears in this final scene in the First Gospel, who dominates the rest of the NT. Thus, in Acts 9 20, 10. Apostol- the beginning of Paul's testimony as

ic Doctrine: a Christian is given in these words,
Deity

"And straightway in the synagogues he
Affirmed proclaimed Jesus, that he is the Son of
God"; and what this meant to Paul
may be gathered from his own statement in the opening of Rom, "Paul, a servant of Jesus Christ, called to be an apostle, separated unto the gospel of God, which he promised afore through his prophets in the holy scriptures, concerning his Son, who was born of the seed of David according to the flesh, who was declared to be the Son of God with power, according to the spirit of holiness, by the power, according to the spirit of holiness, by the resurrection from the dead; even Jesus Christ our Lord" (Rom 1 1-4). In He the equality of the Son with the Father is the theme throughout the entire book; and in Rev 2 18, "the Son of God, who hath his eyes like a flame of fire," speaks from

the right hand of power to the church.

On this subject there was no division of opinion in the apostolic church. On many other questions the followers of Jesus were divided; but on this one they were unanimous. For this the authority of Paul is often assumed to be responsible; but there was a prior and higher authority. This was the self-testimony of Jesus in the Gospel of Jn. Though this may not have been put in literary form till all the other books of the NT had been completed, it was active and influential in the church all the time, affecting Paul and the other NT writers.

There is no real disharmony between the expression of Our Lord's self-consciousness in the Synoptists and that in Jn; only in the latter

tists and that in Jn; only in the latter it is far ampler and more distinct. Fourth Gos-Here Jesus is not only called "the Son pel: Deity, of God" by others, but applies the Preëxistitle to Himself in its full shape, as ence, etc well as in the abbreviated form of "the Son." He further calls Himself the "only begotten Son of God" (3 16.18), that is to say, He is Son in a sense in which no others can claim the title. This seems expressly to controdict the the title. This seems expressly to contradict the statement, so often made, that He makes others sons of God in the same sense as Himself, or that His Sonship is ethical, not metaphysical. No doubt it is ethical—that is to say, He is like the Father in feeling, mind and will-but it does not follow that it is not at the same time metaphysical. In fact, the perfection of ethical unity depends upon that which is metaphysical. Between a dog and a man

there may be deep sympathy, yet it is limited by the difference of their natures; whereas between a woman and a man there is perfect sympathy, because they are identical in nature.

Another feature of Sonship in the Fourth Gospel is preëxistence, though, strange to say, this is more than once connected with the title "Son of man." But the strongest and most frequent suggestions as to what is implied in Sonship are to be found in the deeds attributed to the Son; for these are far beyond the competence of any mere man. Thus, He executes judgment (5 22); He has life in Himself and quickeneth whom He will (5 26.21); He gives eternal life (10 10), and it is the will of the Father that all men should honor the Son, even as they do the Father (5 23). Nevertheless, the Son does nothing of Himself, but only what He hath seen the Father do (5 19); and only that which He hath heard of the Father does He speak (14 10). In short, God is not only His Father, but His God (20 17). To statements such as these a merely official Sonship is not adequate; the relation must be ethical and metaphysical as well; and to a perfect

Sonship all three elements are essential. LITERATURE.—See the books on the Theology of the NT by Weiss, Beyschlag, Holtzmann, Feine, Schlatter, Weinel, Bovon, Stevens, Sheldon; and on the Teaching of Jesus by Bruce, Wendt, Dalman; Gore, The Incarnation of the Son of God, Bampton Lectures, 1891, and Dissertations on Subjects Connected with the Incarnation; Robertson, Teaching of Jesus concerning God the Father; full bibliography in Stalker, Christ's Teaching concerning

JAMES STALKER SON OF MAN, THE (ὁ ὑιὸς τοῦ ἀνθρώπου, ho huiós toú anthropou):

1. Use in NT: Self-Designation of Jesus
2. Questions as to Meaning
Source of the Title
1. The Phrase in the OT—Pss, Ezk, Dnl
2. "Son of Man" in Dnl 7—NT Allusions
3. Expressive of Messianic Idea
4. Post-canonical Literature: Book of En
Why Jesus Made Use of the Title
1. Consciousness of Being the Messiah
2. Half Concealed, Yet Half Revealed His Secret
3. Expressive of Identification with Men in Sympathy, Fortunes and Destiny
4. Speculations (Lietzmann, Wellhausen, etc) on
Aramaic Meaning: These Rejected (Dalman, etc) LITERATURE

This is the favorite self-designation of Jesus in In Mt it occurs over 30 t, in Mk 15 t, in Lk 25 t, and in Jn a dozen times. 1. Use in It is always in the mouth of Jesus the NT: Himself that it occurs, except once, Self-Desig- when the bystanders ask what He

means by the title (Jn 12 34). Outnation of side the Gospels, it occurs only once in Acts, in Stephen's speech (Acts 7 Jesus

56), and twice in the Book of Rev (1 13; 14 14) At first sight it appears so apt a term for the human element in Our Lord's person, the Divine

element being similarly denoted by "the Son of God," that this was supposed to be its meaning, as it still is 2. Questions as to Meaning by the common man at the present

day. As long as it was assumed that the meaning could be elicited by merely looking at the words as they stand and guessing what they must signify, this was substantially the view of all, although this common conception went in two directions—some noting esp. the loftier and more ideal elements in the conception, while others emphasized what was lowly and painful in the human lot; and both could appeal to texts in support of their view. Thus, the view "that Christ by this phrase represented Himself as the head, the type, the ideal of the race" (Stanton, The Jewish and the Christian Messiah), could appeal to such a saying as, "The Son of man is Lord even of the sabbath" (Mk 2 28); while the humbler view could quote such a saying as, "The foxes have holes, and the birds of the heaven have nests; but the Son of man hath not where to lay his head" (Mt 8 20).

The more scientific investigation of the phrase

began, however, when it was inquired, first, what the source was from which Jesus derived this title,

and, secondly, why He made use of it.

I. Source of the Title.—That the phrase was not one of Jesus' own invention is manifest, because it occurs often in the OT. Ps 8 4 it is used as an equivalent for "man" in the parallel lines, 1. The

Phrase in the OT (Pss, Ezk, Dnl)

"What is man, that thou art mindful of him?

And the son of man, that thou visitest him?''

This passage has sometimes been regarded as the source whence Jesus borrowed the title; and for this a good deal might be said, the ps being an incom-parable exposition both of the lowliness and the loftiness of human nature. But there is another passage in the Pss from which it is far from incredible that it may have been derived: in Ps 80 17 occur the words,

"Let thy hand be upon the man of thy right hand, Upon the son of man whom thou madest strong for thyself."

This is an appeal, in an age of national decline, for the raising up of a hero to redeem Israel; and it might well have kindled the spark of Messianic consciousness in the heart of the youthful Jesus.

There is a book of the OT in which the phrase

"the son of man" occurs no fewer than 90 t. is the Book of Ezk, where it is always applied to the prophet himself and designates his prophetic mission. In the words of Nösgen (Christus der Menschen- und Gottessohn): "It expresses the contrast between what Ezekiel is in himself and what God will make out of him, and to make his mission appear to him not as his own, but as the work of God, and thus to lift him up, whenever the flesh threatens to faint and fail." Thus there was one before Jesus of Nazareth who bore the title, at least in certain moments of his life; and, after Ezekiel, there arose another Heb prophet who has put on record that he was addressed from the same high

quarter in the same terms; for, in Dnl 8 17, it is written, "So he came near where I stood; and when he came, I was affrighted, and fell upon my face: but he said unto me, Understand, O son of man"words then following intended to raise the spirit of the trembling servant of God. By Weizsäcker and others the suggestion has been made that Jesus may have borrowed the term from Ezk and Dnl to express His consciousness of belonging to the same prophetic line.

There is, however, in the same Book of Dnl another occurrence of the phrase, in a totally different sense, to which the attention 2. "Son of of science is more and more being drawn. In 7 3 ff, in one of the Man" in Dnl 7-NT apocalyptic visions common to this Allusions

prophet, four beasts are seen coming out of the sea—the first a lion with eagle's wings, the second a bear, the third a fourheaded leopard, and the fourth a terrible monster with ten heads. These beasts bear rule over the earth; but at last the kingdom is taken away from them and given to a fifth ruler, who is thus described, "I saw in the night-visions, and, behold, there came with the clouds of heaven one like unto a son of man, and he came even to the ancient of days, and they brought him near before him. And there was given him dominion, and glory, and a kingdom, that all the peoples, nations, and languages should serve him: his dominion is an everlasting dominion, which shall not pass away, and his kingdom that which shall not be destroyed" (vs 13.14). Compare with these words from Dnl the words of Jesus to the high priest during His trial, "Henceforth ye shall see the Son of man sitting at the right hand of Power, and coming on the clouds of heaven" (Mt 26 64), and the echo of the OT words cannot be mistaken. Equally distinct is it in the great discourse in Mt 24 30, "Then shall appear the sign of the Son of man in heaven: and then shall all the tribes of the earth mourn, and they shall see the Son of man coming on the clouds of heaven with power and great glory."

The use of this self-designation by Jesus is esp. frequent and striking in passages referring to His future coming to judgment, in which

3. Expressive of Messianic Idea

there is necessarily a certain resemblance to the apocalyptic scene in Dnl. In such utterances the Messianic consciousness of Jesus is most emphatically expressed; and the passage in

Dnl is also obviously Messianic. In another considerable series of passages in which this phrase is used by Jesus, the references are to His sufferings and death; but the assumption which explains these also most easily is that they are Messianic too; Jesus is speaking of the fortunes to which He must submit on account of His vocation. Even the more dignified passages, expressive of ideality, are best explained in the same way. In short, every pas-sage where the phrase occurs is best understood from this point of view, whereas, from any other point of view, not a few appear awkward and out of place. How little, for example, does the idea that the phrase is expressive of lowliness or of brotherhood with suffering humanity accord with the opening of the judgment-scene in Mt 25 31, "But when the Son of man shall come in his glory, and all the angels with him, then shall he sit on the throne of his glory"!

The son of man, or rather "one like unto a son of man" mentioned in Dnl, is primarily the Heb people, as is expressly noted in the prophecy itself; but Jesus must have looked upon Himself as the representative of the people of God, in the same way as, in the OT generally, the reigning sovereign was regarded as the representative of the nation. But the question has been raised whether this transference of the title from a collective body to an individual may have 4. Post-

canonical Literature: Book of En

been mediated for Him through postcanonical religious literature or the prevalence among the people of ideas generated through this literature. In the Book of En there occur numerous

references to the son of man, which bear a remarkable resemblance to some of the sayings of Jesus. The date usually assigned to this production is some 200 years BC; and, if these passages in it actually existed as early as this, the book would almost require to be included in the canonical Scriptures, though for other reasons it is far from worthy of any such honor. The whole structure of the Book of En is so loose and confused that it must always have invited interpolation; and interpolations in it are recognized as numerous. The probability, therefore, is that the passages referring to the son of man are of later date and of Christian origin.

II. Why Jesus Made Use of the Title. - The conclusion that this title expresses, not the personal qualities of Jesus as a man, but His functions as Messiah, may be disappointing; but there is a way of recovering what seems to have been lost; because we must now inquire for what reasons He made use

of this term.

The first reason, of course, is, that in Dnl it expressed Messiahship, and that Jesus was con-

1. Consciousness of Being the Messiah

scious of being the Messiah. In the OT He was wont all His days to read His own history. He ranged over all the sacred books and found in them references to His own person and work. With divinatory glance He pierced into the secrets of Scrip-

ture and brought forth from the least as well as the best-known portions of the ancient oracles meanings which are now palpable to all readers of the Bible. but which He was the first to discover. From the passage in Dnl, or from some other passage of the OT in which the phrase "the son of man" occurs, a hint flashed out upon Him, as He read or heard; and the suggestion grew in His brooding mind, until it rounded itself into the fit and satisfying expression for one side of His self-consciousness.

Another reason why He fixed upon this as His favorite self-designation may have been that it

2. Half Concealed Yet Half Revealed His Secret

half concealed as well as half revealed His secret. Of the direct names for the Messiah He was usually shy, no doubt chiefly because His contemporaries were not prepared for an open declaration of Himself in this character; but at all stages of His ministry

He called Himself the Son of man without hesitation. The inference seems to be, that, while the phrase expressed much to Himself, and must have meant more and more for those immediately associated with Him, it did not convey a Messianic claim to the public ear. With this accords well the perplexity once manifested by those listening to Him, when they asked, "Who is this Son of man?" (Jn 12 34); as it also explains the question of Jesus to the Twelve at Caesarea Philippi, "Who do men say that the Son of man is?" or, as it is in the margin, "that I the Son of man am?" (Mt 16 13). more and more for those immediately associated That He was the Son of man did not evidently mean for all that He claimed to be the Messiah.

But when we try to realize for what reasons Jesus may have picked this name out from all which presented themselves to Him in His intimate and loving survey of the OT, it is difficult to resist the belief that a third and the principal reason was because it gave expression to His sense of connection with all men in sympathy, fortunes and destiny. He felt Himself to be identified with all as their brother, their fellow-sufferer, their

3. Expressive of Identification with Men

representative and champion; and, in some respects, the deepest word He ever spake was, "For the Son of man also came not to be ministered unto. but to minister, and to give his life a ransom for many" (Mk 10 45 ||).

tion with Men but to minister, and to give his life a ransom for many" (Mk 10 45 ||).

In 1896, Hans Lietzmann, a young Ger. scholar, startled the learned world with a speculation on the "Son of man." Making the assumption that Aram. was the language spoken by Jesus, he contended that Jesus could not have applied to Himself the Messianic title, because there is nothing corresponding with it in Aramaic. The only term approximating to it is barnash, which means something very vague, like "anyone" or "everyman" (in the sense of the old morality play thus entitled). Many supposed Lietzmann to be arguing that Jesus had called Himself Anyone or Everyman; but this was not his intention. He tried to prove that the Messianic title had been applied to Jesus in Asia Minor in the first half of the 2d cent. and that the Gospels had been revised with the effect of substituting it for the first personal pronoun. But he falled to show how the MSS could have been so universally altered as to leave no traces of this operation, or how, if the text of the NT was then in so fluid a state as to admit of such a substitution, the phrase should not have overflowed into other books besides the Gospels. Although the hypothesis has secured wide attention through being partially adopted by Wellhausen, whose view is to be found in Skizzen und Vorarbeilen, VI, and at p. 66 of his Comm. on Mk, it may be reckoned among the ghosts which appear for an hour on the stage of learning, attracting attention and admiration, but have no permanent connection with the world of reality. Dalman, the leading authority on Aram., denies the foundation on which the views of both Lietzmann and Wellhausen rest, and holds that, had the Messianic title existed, the Aram. language would have been quite capable of expressing it. And in 1911 Wellhausen himself explicitly admitted this (Einleitung in die drei ersten Evangelien. 2130).

Literature.—See the books on NT Theology by Weiss, Beyschlag, Holtzmann, Feine, Schlätter, Weinel, Stevens Sheldon: and

Evangelier, 130).

LITERATURE.—See the books on NT Theology by Weiss, Beyschlag, Holtzmann, Feine, Schlatter, Weinel, Stevens, Sheldon; and on the Teaching of Jesus by Wendt, Bruce, Dalman; Abbott, The Son of Man, 1910; very full bibliography in Stalker, The Teaching of Jesus concerning Himself.

JAMES STALKER SONG (שִׁירָה , shīr, שִׁירָה , shīrāh): Besides the great collection of sacred songs contained in the Psalter, as well as the lyric outbursts, marked by strong religious feeling, on great national occasions, it is natural to believe, and we have evidence to show, that the Hebrews possessed a large number of popular songs of a secular kind. Song of Songs (q.v.) of itself proves this. Probably the very oldest song or fragment of song in the OT is that "To the well" (Nu 21 17).

W. R. Smith (Religions of the Semites, 167) regards this invocation of the waters to rise as in its origin hardly a mere poetic figure. He compares what Cazwini 1, 189, records of the well of Ilabistan: "When the water failed, a feast was held at its source with music and dancing, to induce it to flow again." If, however, the song had its origin in an early form of religious belief, it must have been secularized later.

But it is in the headings of the Pss that we find the most numerous traces of the popular songs of the Hebrews. Here there are a number of words and phrases which are now believed to be the names or initial words of such lyrics. In AV they are prefaced with the prep. "on," in RV with "set to," i.e. "to the tune of." We give a list: (1) Aijeleth Shahar AV, RV Aijeleth hash-shahar, 'ayyeleth ha-shahar. The title means (RVm) "The hind of the morning," but whether the original song so named was a hunting song or a morning serenade it is useless to conjecture. See Hind of the Morning.

(2) Al-taschith (AV), Al-taskheth (RV), 'al-taskheth, i.e. "Destroy not," Pss 57-59, 75, is apparently quoted in Isa 65 8, and in that case must refer to a vintage song. (3) Jonah elem rehokim or Yōnath-'ēlem rehōkīm (Ps 56), RVm "The silent dove of them that are afar off," or—with a slightly different reading—"The dove of the distant terebinths." (4) Mahalath (Ps 53) and Mahalath le annoth (Ps 88). Mahalath may mean "sickness," and be the first word of a song. It might mean, on the other hand, a minor mode or rhythm. It has also been held to designate a musical instrument. (5) $M\bar{u}th$ labben (Ps 9) has given rise to many conjectures. Lit. it may mean "Die for the son," or "Death of the son." An ancient tradition referred the words to Goliath (death at the hand of the son [?]), and they have been applied to the fate of Absalom. Such guesses need only be quoted to show their worthlessness. (6) Lastly, we have Shōshannīm= "Lilies" (Pss 45, 69), Shūshan 'Ēdhūth="The lily of testimony" (Ps 60); and Shōshannīm 'Ēdhūth= "Lilies, a testimony" (Ps 80), probably to be explained like the others.

The music to which these songs were sung is irretrievably lost, but it was, no doubt, very similar in character to that of the Arabs at the present day. While the music of the temple was probably much more elaborate, and of wider range, both in notes and expression of feeling, the popular song was almost certainly limited in compass to a very few notes repeated over and over in long recitations or This is characteristic of the performances of Arab minstrels of today. The melodies are plaintive, in spite of the majority of them being in major keys, owing to the 7th being flattened, as in genuine Scots music. Arab music, further, is marked by great variety and emphasis of rhythm, the various kinds of which have special names. See Spiritual Songs. JAMES MILLAR

SONG OF SONGS (שׁיר הַשִּׁירָים, shīr ha-shīrīṃ; LXX "Аσμα, А́sma; NAC, "Аσμα άσμάτων, Asma asmátōn; Vulg Canticum Canticorum):

I. CANONICITY
II. TEXT
III. AUTHORSHIP AND DATE
IV. HISTORY OF INTERPRETATION
1. The Allegorical Interpretation
2. The Typical Interpretation
3. The Literal Interpretation
V. CLOSING HINTS AND SUGGESTIONS

LITERATURE

The full title in Heb is "The Song of Songs, which is Solomon's." The book is called by some Canticles, and by others Solomon's Song. The Heb title implies that it is the choicest of all songs, in keeping with the dictum of R. 'Akība (90-135 AD) that "the entire world, from the beginning until now, does not outweigh the day in which Canticles was given to Israel."

I. Canonicity.—Early Jewish and Christian writers are silent as to the Song of Songs. No use is made of it by Philo. There is no quotation from it in the NT, nor is there any clear allusion to it on the part of Our Lord or the apostles. The earliest distinct references to the Song of Songs are found in Jewish writings of the 1st and 2d cents. AD (4 Esd 5 24.26; 7 26; Ta'ānīth 4 8). The question of the canonicity of the Song was debated as late as the Synod of Jamnia (c 90 AD), when it was decided that Canticles was rightly reckoned to "defile the hands," i.e. was an inspired book. It should be borne in mind that the Song of Songs was already esteemed by the Jews as a sacred book, though prior to the Synod of Jamnia there was probably a goodly number of Jewish teachers who did not accept it as canonical. Selections from Cantieles were sung at certain festivals in the temple at Jerus, prior to its destruction by Titus in 70 AD (Ta'anīth 4 8). The Mish pronounces an anathema on all who treat Canticles as a secular song (Sanhedhrīn, 101a). The latest date for the composition of the Song of Songs, according to critics of the advanced school, is toward the close of the 3d cent. BC. We may be

sure that it was included in the $K^{e}th\bar{u}bh\bar{\iota}m$ before the ministry of Our Lord, and so was for Him a part of the Scriptures.

II. Text.-Most scholars regard the text of Canticles as comparatively free from corruption. Grätz, Bickell, Budde and Cheyne have suggested a good many emendations of the traditional text, a few of which commend themselves as probable corrections of a faulty text, but most of which are mere guesses without sufficient confirmation from either external or internal evidence. For details see Budde's able commentary, and articles by Cheyne in JQR and $Expos\ T$ for 1898–99 and

in the Expos, February, 1899.

III. Authorship and Date. -The title in the Heb text ascribes the poem to Solomon. That this superscription was prefixed by an editor of Canticles and not by the original writer is evident from the fact that the relative pronoun employed in the title is different from that employed throughout the poem. The beauty and power of the book seemed to later students and editors to make the writing worthy of the gifted king, whose fame as a composer of both proverbs and songs was handed on to later times (1 K 4 32). Moreover, the name of Solomon is prominent in the Song of Songs itself (1 5; 3 7.9.11; 8 11 f). If the traditional view that Solomon wooed and won the Shulammite be true, the Solomonic authorship may even yet be defended. though the linguistic argument for a later date is

quite strong.

The question in debate among recent critics is whether the Song was composed in North Israel in preëxilic days, or whether it is post-exilic. The author is at home in Heb. His vocabulary is extensive, and the movement of the poem is graceful. There is no suggestion of the use of lexicon and grammar by a writer living in the period of the decadence of the Heb language. The author is familiar with cities and mountains all over Pal, esp. in the northern section. He speaks of the beauty of Tirzah, the capital of North Israel in the 10th cent. BC, along with the glory of Jerus, the capital of Judah (64). The recollection of Solomon's glory and pomp seems to be fresh in the mind of the writer and his contemporaries. Smith regarded Canticles as a protest against the Smith regarded Cambridge as a property of Solomon. True lawy and the extensive harem of Solomon. True love could not exist in such an environment. fidelity of the Shulammite to her shepherd lover. notwithstanding the blandishments of the wealthy and gifted king, stands as a rebuke to the notion that every woman has her price. Driver seems inclined to accept a preëxilic date, though the arguments from vocabulary and philology cause him to waver in his opinion (LOT, 8th ed, 450). An increasing number of critics place the composition of Canticles in the post-exilic period, many bringing it down into the Gr period. Among scholars who date Canticles in the 3d cent. BC we may name Grätz, Kuenen, Cornill, Budde, Kautzsch, Martineau and Cheyne. The chief argument for bringing the Song into the time of the early Ptolemies is drawn from the language of the poem. There are many Heb words that are employed elsewhere only in later books of the OT; the word pardēs (4 13) is a Pers loan-word for "park"; the word for "palanquin" may be Indian, or possibly Gr. Moreover, the form of the relative pronoun is uniformly that which is found in some of the latest books of the OT. The influence of Aram. is apparent, both in the vocabulary and in a few constructions. This may be accounted for on the theory of the northern origin of the Song, or on the hypothesis of a post-exilic date. The question of date is still open.

IV. History of Interpretation.—All interpreters of all ages agree in saying that Canticles is a poem of love; but who the lovers are is a subject of keen debate, esp. in modern times.

First in point of time and in the number of adherents it has had is the theory that the Song

1. The Allegorical Interpretais a pure allegory of the love of Jeh and His people. The Jewish rabbis, from the latter part of the 1st cent. AD down to our own day, taught that the poem celebrates a spiritual love, Jeh being the bridegroom and Israel

the bride. Canticles was supposed to be a vivid record of the loving intercourse between Israel and her Lord from the exodus on to the glad Messianic time. The Song is read by the Jews at Passover, which celebrates Jeh's choice of Israel to be His spouse. The Tg interprets Canticles as an allegory of the marital love of Jeh and Israel. Origen made the allegorical theory popular in the early church. As a Christian he represented the bride as the church or the soul of the believer. In more recent centuries the Christian allegorical interpreters have favored the idea that the soul of the believer was the bride, though the other type of the allegorical view has all along had its advocates.

Bernard of Clairvaux wrote 86 sermons on the first two chapters of Canticles; and a host of writers in the Roman church and among Protestants have composed similar mystical treatises on the Song. Devout souls have expressed their fervent love to God in the sensuous imagery of Canticles. The imagery could not become too fervid or ecstatic for some of these devout men and women in their highest moments of beatific vision. Whatever may be the final verdict of sane criticism as to the original purpose of the author of the Song, it is a fact that must not be overlooked by the student of Canticles that some of the noblest religious souls, both Heb and Christian, have fed the flame of devotion by interpreting the Song as an allegory.

What justification is there for the theory that Canticles is an allegory of the love between Jeh and His people, or of the love of Christ and the church, or of the love of the soul of the believer and Christ? It must be frankly confessed that there is not a hint in the Song itself that it is an allegory. modern reader of Canticles had never heard of the allegorical interpretation, nothing in the beginning, middle or end of the poem would be likely to suggest to his mind such a conception of the poet's meaning. How, then, did the early Jewish interpreters come to make this the orthodox interpretation of the Song? The question is not easy to answer. In the forefront of our answer we must recall the fact that the great prophets frequently represent the mutual love of Jeh and Israel under the symbolism of marriage (Hos 1-3; Jer 3; Ezk 16, 23; Isa 50 1; 54 5.6). The Heb interpreter might naturally expect to find some echo of this bold imagery in the poetry of the Kethübhīm. In the Torah the frequent command to love Jeh might suggest the marital relation as well as that of the father and son (Dt 6 5; 7 7-9.13; 10 12.15; 30 16.20), son (Dt 6 5; though it must be said that the language of Dt suggests the high ethical and religious teaching of Jesus in the matter of love to God, in which the sexual does not appear.

Cheyne suggests (EB, I, 683 f) that the Song was too joyous to be used, in its natural sense, by the Jews after the destruction of Jerus, and hence they consecrated it by allegorical interpretation. The suggestion may contain an element of truth.

It is an interesting fact that the Psalter has so few expressions in which love to Jeh is expressed (31 23; 97 10; 145 20; cf 18 1; 42 1; 63 1). In this manual of devotion one would not be surprised to find the expansion of the image of wedlock as expressive of the soul's relation to God; but we look in vain for such a poem, unless Ps 45 be capable of allegorical interpretation. Even that beautiful song of love and marriage contains no such highly sensuous imagery as is found in Canticles.

Christian scholars found it easy to follow the Jewish allegorical interpreters; for the figure of wedlock is employed in the NT by both Paul and

John to represent the intimate and vital union of Christ and His church (2 Cor 11 2; Eph 5 22-33; Rev 19 7-9; 21 2.9 ff).

The entire body of true believers is conceived of as the bride of Christ. Naturally the purity of the church is sullied through the impure conduct of the individuals of whom it is composed. Hence the appeal to individuals and to local churches to live pure lives (2 Cor 11 1). To the unmarried believer the Lord Jesus takes the place of the husband or wife as the person whom one is most eager to please (1 Cor 7 32 f). It is not difficult to understand how the fervid, sensuous imagery of Canticles would appeal to the mind of a man like Origen as a proper vehicle for the expression of his passionate love for Christ.

Sober inquiry discovers no sufficient justification of the allegorical interpretation of the Song of Songs. The pages of the mystical commentators are filled with artificial interpretations and conceits. Many of them practise a familiarity with Christ that is without example in the Bib. devotional literature.

The allegorical interpreters, for the most part, saw in the Song of Songs no historic basis. mon and the Shulammite are intro-

duced merely as figures through whom The God and His people, or Christ and the Typical Interpretation soul, can express their mutual love. In modern times interpreters have

arisen who regard the Song as primarily the expression of strong and passionate human love between Solomon and a beautiful maiden, but by virtue of the typical relation of the old dispensation, secondarily, the fitting expression of the love of Christ and the church.

Christ and the church.

The way for this modern typical interpretation was prepared by Lowth (Sacred Poetry of the Hebreus, Lects XXX, XXXI) in his modified allegorical view, which is thus described by Canon Driver: "Bishop Lowth, though not abandoning the allegorical view, sought to free it from its extravagances; and while refusing to press details, held that the poem, while describing the actual nuptials of Solomon with the daughter of Pharaoh, contained also an allegoric reference to Christ espousing a church chosen from among the Gentiles" (LOT, 451). Few interpreters have been found to follow Theodore of Mopsuestia and Lowth in their view that the Song celebrates the marriage of Solomon and an Egyp princes; and Lowth's notion of a reference to the espousal of a church chosen from among the Gentiles is one of the curiosities of criticism. Of the typical interpreters Delitzsch is perhaps the ablest (Comm. on Ecclesiastes and the Song of Songs). and the Song of Songs).

The typical commentators are superior to the allegorical in their recognition of Canticles as the expression of the mutual love of two human beings. The further application of the language to Jeh and His people (Keil), or to Christ and the church (Delitzsch), or to God and the soul (M. Stuart) becomes largely a matter of individual taste, interpreters differing widely in details.

Jewish interpreters were deterred from the literal interpretation of Canticles by the anathema in the Mish upon all who should treat the

3. The poem as a secular song (\$\int anhedhr\bar{in}\$, Literal Interpretation great mediaeval Jewish scholar, he "is so thorough in his literal exegesis that it is doubtful whether he is serious when he proceeds to allegorise." Among Christian scholars Theodore of Mopsuestia interpreted Canticles as a song in celebration of the marriage of Solomon and This strictly literal inter-Pharaoh's daughter. pretation of the Song was condemned at the second council of Constantinople (553 AD). For the next thousand years the allegorical theory reigned supreme among Christian interpreters. In 1544 Sebastian Castellio revived the literal theory of the Song, though the allegorical view remained domi-

Herder in 1778 published a remarkable little treatise entitled Lieder der Liebe, die ältesten und schönsten aus dem Morgenlande, in which he ad-

nant until the 19th cent.

vanced the theory that Canticles is a collection of independent erotic songs, about 21 in number, which have been so arranged by a collector as to trace "the gradual growth of true love in its various nuances and stages, till it finds its consummation in wedlock" (Cheyne). But the greatest and most influential advocate of the literal interpretation of Canticles was Heinrich Ewald, who published the 1st ed of his comm. in 1826. It was Ewald who first developed and made popular the theory that two suitors compete for the hand of the Shulammite, the one a shepherd and poor, the other a wise and wealthy king. In the Song he ascribes to Solomon 1 9-11.15; 2 2; 4 1-7; 6 4-13 (quoting the dialogue between the Shulammite and the ladies of the court in vs 10-13); 7 1-9. To the shepherd lover he assigns few verses, and these are repeated by the Shulammite in her accounts of imaginary or real interviews with her lover. In the following passages the lover described is supposed to be the passages the lover destribed is supposed to be the shepherd to whom the Shulammite had plighted her troth: 1 2-7.9-14; 1 16—2 1; 2 3-7.8-17; 3 1-5; 4 8—5 1; 5 2-8; 5 10-16; 6 2 f; 7 10—8 4; 8 5-14. The shepherd lover is thus supposed to be present in the Shulammite's dreams, and in her waking moments she is ever thinking of him and describing to herself and others his many charms. Not until the closing scene (8 5-14) does Ewald introduce the shepherd as an actor in the drama. Ewald had an imperial imagination and a certain strength of mind and innate dignity of character which prevented him from dragging into the mud any section of the Bib. lit. While rejecting entirely the allegorical theory of Canticles, he yet attributed to it an ethical quality which made the Song worthy of a place in the OT. A drama in praise of fidelity between human lovers may well hold a place beside Eccl and Prov in the Canon. Many of the ablest OT critics have followed Ewald in his general theory that Canticles is a drama celebrating the loyalty of a lowly maiden to her shepherd lover. Not even Solomon in all his glory could persuade her to become his queen.

Within the past quarter of a century the unity of Canticles has been again sharply challenged. An account of the customs of the Syrian peasants in connection with weddings was given by the Prussian consul at Damascus, J. G. Wetzstein, in 1873, in an article in Bastian's Zeitschrift für Ethnologie, 270 ff, on "Die syrische Dreschtafel," in which he illustrated the OT from modern Syrian customs. Driver thus describes the customs that are supposed to throw light upon Canticles: "In modern Syria, the first seven days after a wedding are called the 'king's week'; the young pair play during this time king and queen; the 'threshing-board' is turned into a mock-throne, on which they are seated, while songs are sung before them by the villagers and others, celebrating them on their happiness, among which the was, or poetical 'description' of the physical beauty of the bride and bridegroom, holds a prominent place. The first of these wass is sung on the evening of the wedding-day itself: brandishing a naked sword in her right hand, and with a handkerchief in her left, the bride dances in her wedding array, lighted by fires, and surrounded by a circle of guests, half men and half women, accompanying her dance with a wacf in praise of her charms" (LOT, 452). Wetzstein suggested the view that Canticles was composed of the wedding-songs sung during "the king's week." This theory has been most fully elaborated by Budde in an article in the *New World*, March, 1894, and in his comm. (1898). According to Budde, the bridegroom is called King Solomon, and the bride Shūlammīth. The companions of the bridegroom are the 60 valiant men who form his escort (3 7). As a bride, the maiden is called the most beautiful of women (1 8; 5 9; 6 1). The pictures of wedded bliss are sung by the men and women present, the words being attributed to the bride and the bridegroom. Thus the festivities continue throughout the week. Budde's theory has some decided advantages over Ewald's view that the poem is a drama; but the loss in moral quality is considerable; the book becomes a collection of wedding-songs in praise of the joys of wedlock.

in praise of the joys of wedlock.

V. Closing Hints and Suggestions.—Having given a good deal of attention to Canticles during the past 15 years, the author of this article wishes to record a few of his views and impressions.

(1) Canticles is lyric poetry touched with the dramatic spirit. It is not properly classed as drama, for the Hebrews had no stage, though much of the OT is dramatic in spirit. The descriptions of the charms of the lovers were to be sung or chanted.

(2) The amount that has to be read between the lines by the advocates of the various dramatic theories is so great that, in the absence of any hints in the body of the book itself, reasonable certitude can never be attained.

(3) The correct tr of the refrain in 2 7 and 3 5 (cf 8 4) is important for an understanding of the purpose of Canticles. It should be rendered as follows:

'I adjure you, O daughters of Jerusalem, By the gazelles, or by the hinds of the field, That ye stir not up, nor awaken love, Until it please.'

Love between man and woman should not be excited by unnatural stimulants, but should be free and spontaneous. In 8 4 it seems to be implied that the women of the capital are guilty of employing artifices to awaken love:

'I adjure you, O daughters of Jerusalem, Why do ye stir up, or awaken love, Until it please?'

That this refrain is in keeping with the purpose of the writer is clear from the striking words toward the close of the book:

"Set me as a seal upon thy heart,
As a seal upon thine arm:
For love is strong as death;
Jealousy is cruel as Sheol;
The flashes thereof are flashes of fire,
A very flame of Jehovah.
Many waters cannot quench love,
Neither can floods drown it:
If a man would give all the substance of his
house for love,
He would utterly be contemned" (8 6 f).

- (4) Canticles discloses all the secret intimacies of wedded life without becoming obscene. The imagery is too sensuous for our taste in western lands, so that words of caution are often timely, lest the sensuous degenerate into the sensual; but I have been told by several Syrian and Palestinian students whom I have had the privilege of teaching, that Canticles is considered quite chaste among their people, the wedding-songs now in use among them being more minute in their description of the physical charms of the lovers.
- (5) Canticles is by no means excluded from the Canon by the acceptance of the literal interpretation. Ewald's theory makes it an ethical treatise of great and permanent value. Even if Canticles is merely a collection of songs describing the bliss of true lovers in wedlock, it is not thereby rendered unworthy of a place in the Bible, unless marriage is to be regarded as a fall from a state of innocency. If Canticles should be rejected because of its sensuous imagery in describing the joys of passionate lovers, portions of Prov would also have to be excised (Prov 5 15–20). Perhaps most persons need to enlarge their conception of the Bible as a repository for all things that minister to the welfare of men. The entire range of man's legitimate joys finds sympathetic and appreciative description in the Bible. Two young lovers in Paradise

need not fear to rise and meet their Creator, should He visit them in the cool of the day.

He VISIT THEM IN THE COOL of the day.

LITERATURE.—C. D. Ginsburg. The Song of Songs, with a Comm., Historical and Critical, 1857; H. Ewald, Dichter des Allen Bundes, III, 333—426, 1867; F. C. Cook, in Bib. Comm., 1874; Franz Delitzsch, Hoheshed u. Koheleth, 1875 (also tr); O. Zöckler, in Lange's Comm., 1875; S. Oettli, Kurzgefasster Kommentar, 1889; W. E. Griffis, The Lily among Thorns, 1890; J. W. Rothstein, Das Hohe Lied. 1893; K. Budde, art. in New World, March, 1894, and Kommentar, 1898; C. Siegfried, Prediger u. Hoheslied, 1898; A. Harper, in Cambridge Bible, 1902; G. C. Martin, in Century Bible, 1908; art. on "Canticles" by Cheyne in EB, 1899.

JOHN RICHARD SAMPEY

JOHN RICHARD SAMPEY SONG OF THE THREE CHILDREN:

 Name
 Canonicity
 Contents 4. Author and Date
5. Original Language
6. Text and Versions
LITERATURE

For general remarks concerning the Additions to Daniel see BEL AND THE DRAGON

This Addition has no separate title in any MS or VS because in the LXX, Theod, Syr and Lat

(Old Lat and Vulg) it follows Dnl 3 23 1. Name immediately, forming an integral portion of that chapter, viz. vs 24-90 in the LXX and Vulg. It is the only one of the three Additions which has an organic connection with Dnl; as regards the others see preliminary remarks to Bel and the Dragon. The title in EV is "The Song of the Three Holy Children," a title describing its matter as formerly understood, though a more rigid analysis shows that in the 68 verses so designated, we have really two separate sections. See 3, below.

See introductory remarks to Bel and the Dragon. The order in which the three "Additions to Dnl" are

which the three Additions to Sin according to the Geparate Protestant)
Apoc is decided by their sequence in the Vulg, the Song of the Three 2. Canonicity Children forming part of ch 3, Sus of ch 13, and Bel of ch 14 of Dnl

Though the Eng. and other Protestant VSS treat the 68 verses as one piece under the name given

above, there are really two quite
3. Contents distinct compositions. These appear separately in the collection of Odes appended to the Psalter in Cod. A under the headings, "The Prayer of Azarias" (Προσευχὴ 'Αζαρίου, Proseuchέ Azariou, Azariah, Dnl 1 6 f) and "The Hymn of Our Fathers" ("Τμνος τῶν πατέρουν ἡμῶν, Humnos ton pateron hemon); see Swete, The OT in Gr, 3804 ff, and Intro to the OT in Gr, 253 f. Luther with his usual independence makes each of these into a separate book under the titles, "The Prayer of Azaria" (Das Gebet Asarjas) and "The Song of the Three Men in the Fire" (Der Gesang

Song of the Three Men in the Fire" (Der Gesang der drei Männer im Feuerofen).

(1) The Prayer of Azarias (vs 1-22) (Dnl 3 24-48).—Azariah is the Heb name of Abed-nego (= Abednebo, "servant of Nebo"), the latter being the Bab name (see Dnl 1 7; 2 49, etc). This prayer joins on to Dnl 3 23, where it is said that "Shadrach, Meshach and Abed-nego [Azariah] fell down bound into the midst of the burning fiery furnace." O (the VS of Theodotion; see "Text and Versions" below) adds, "And they walked [Syr adds "in their chains"] in the midst of the fire, praising God, and blessing the Lord." This addition forms a suitable connecting link, and it has been adopted a suitable connecting link, and it has been adopted by the Vulg and in modern VSS which are made from 9 and not from the LXX, which last was lost for many centuries (see Bel and the Dragon, III). In the LXX the words with which the Prayer was introduced are these: "Thus therefore prayed Hananias, and Azarias and Misael and sang praises [hymns] to the Lord when the king commanded

that they should be east into the furnace." prayer (offered by Azarias) opens with words of adoration followed by an acknowledgment that the sufferings of the nation in Babylon were wholly deserved, and an earnest entreaty that God would intervene on behalf of His exiled and afflicted people. That this prayer was not composed for the occasion with which it is connected goes without saying. No one in a burning furnace could pray as Azarias does. There are no groans or sighs, nor prayer for help or deliverance of a personal nature. The deliverance sought is national.

(2) The Song of the Three Holy Children (vs 28-68) (Dnl 3 51-90).—This is introduced by a brief connecting narrative (vs 23-27). The king's servants continued to heat the furnace, but an angel came down and isolated an inner zone of the furnace within which no flames could enter; in this the three found safety. Rothstein (Kautzsch, Die Apok., 175) is inclined to think that this narrative section (vs 23-27) stood between Dnl 3 23 and 3 24 in the original Heb text. The "Song" is really a ps, probably a tr of a Heb original. It has nothing to do with the incident—the three young men in the furnace—except in ver 66 (EV) where the three martyrs call upon themselves by name to praise and bless the Lord for delivering them from the midst of the furnace. This verse is an interpolation, midst of the furnace. This verse is an interpolation, for the rest of the Song is a long litany recalling Ps 103 and esp. Pss 136, 148, and Sir 43. The Song, in fact, has nothing to do with the sufferings of the three young men, but is an ordinary hymn of praise. It is well known from the fact that it forms a part of the Anglican Prayer-book, as it had formed part of many early Christian liturgies.

(1) We know nothing whatever of the author besides what may be gathered from this Addition. It is quite evident that none of the

4. Author three Additions belong to the original and Date text of Dnl, and that they were added because they contained legends in keeping with the spirit of that book, and a song in a slight degree (ver 66 EV) adapted to the situation of the three Heb youths in the furnace, though itself of an independent liturgical origin.

For a long time the three Additions must have circulated independently. Polychronius says that "The Song of the Three Holy Children" was, even in the 5th cent. AD, absent from the text of Dnl, both in the Pesh and in the LXX proper. Rothstein (Kautzsch, Die Apok., 176) contends that the Additions formed a part of the LXX from the beginning, from which he infers that they were all composed before the LXX was made. What was the date of this VS of Dnl? Since its use seems implied in 1 Macc 1 54 (cf Dnl 11 31; 12 11), it would be safe to conclude that it existed about 100 BC.

(2) Date of the Prayer of Azarias.—In ver 15 (EV) it is said that at the time the prayer was offered, there was no prince, prophet or leader, nor sacrifice of any kind. This may point to the time between 168 and 165 BC, when Antiochus IV (Epiphanes) profaned the temple. If written in that interval, it must have been added to Dnl at a much later time. But on more occasions than one, in later times, the temple-services were suspended, as e.g. during the invasion of Jerus by the Egyp king, Ptolemy IV (Philopater).

(3) Date of the Song.—We find references in the Song (vs 62 f EV) to priests and temple-servants, and in ver 31 to the temple itself, suggesting that when the Song was written the temple-services were carried on. This, in itself, would suit a time soon after the purification of the temple, about 164 BC. But the terms of the Song are, except in ver 66 (EV), so general that it is impossible to fix the date definitely. On the date of the historical connecting narrative

(vs 23-27) see 3, (2), above.

(1) Romanist scholars in general and several Protestants (Eichhorn, Einleit, in das AT, IV, 24 f; Einleit, in die apok. Schriften, 419; Vatke; De5. Original litzsch, De Habacuci, 50; Zöckler, Bissell,
Ball, Rothstein, etc) hold that the original language was Heb. The evidence, which is weak, is as follows: (a) The style is Hebraistic throughout (not more so than in writings known to have been composed in Alexandrian Gr; the idiom καταισχύνεσθαι+ἀπό, kataischûnesthai+ap6=72 τία, bōsh min (ver 44 EV; LXX ver 44], "to be ashamed of," occurs in parts of the LXX which are certainly not tr*). (b) The three Heb martyrs bear Heb names (ver 66 EV). This only shows that the tale is of Heb origin. (2) Most modern non-Romanist scholars hold that the original language of the Song (and Prayer) was Gr. So Kell, Fritzsche, De Wette, Schürer, König, Cornill, Strack, etc.

Strack, etc.

Some grounds: (1) The Hebraisms are comparatively few, and those which do exist can be paralleled in other writings composed in Hellenistic Gr. (2) It can be proved that in Dnl and also in Bel (see Intro to Bel in the Oxford Apoc, ed R. H. Charles), Theodotion corrects the LXX from the Heb (lost in the case of Bel); but in Three, Theodotion corrects according to Gr idiom or grammar. It must be admitted, however, that the evidence is not very decisive either way.

As to the text and the various versions of the Song, see what is said in art. BEL AND THE DRAGON.

It is important to note that the trs in 6. Text and EV are made from Theodotion's Gr version, which occurs in ancient VSS of the LXX (ABVQ dc) instead of the Versions true LXX (Cod. 87).

LITERATURE.—See art. BEL AND THE DRAGON; Marshall (HDB, IV, 754); W. H. Bennett (Oxford Apoc, ed R. H. Charles, 625 ff).

T. WITTON DAVIES SONGS OF DEGREES. See DEGREES, SONGS OF; DIAL OF AHAZ, 7.

SONS OF. See Son. Sons.

SONS OF GOD (OT) בָּנֵר הָאֱלֹהָרם, benē hā-'ĕlōhīm, "sons of God" [Gen 6 2.4; Job 1 6; 2 1]; בּגֵר אֱלֹהִים, benē 'ĕlōhīm, "sons of God" [Job **38** 7]; בְּנֵר אֵלִים, benē 'ēlīm, "ye mighty," AV; "ye sons of the mighty," AVm, RV; "sons of God" or "sons of the gods," RVm [Ps 29 1]; "sons of the mighty," AV and RV; "sons of God" or "sons of the gods," RVm [Ps 89 6 (Heb 7)]; LXX viol τοῦ θεοῦ, hươi toù theoù, οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ, hươi toù theoù (Gen 6 2]; viol τοῦ θεοῦ hươi toù theoù (Gen 6 4]: οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hươi toù theoù (Gen 6 4]: οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4]: οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4]: οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4]: οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4]: οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4]: οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶνελοι τοῦ θεοῦ hượi toù theoù (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶνελοι τοὺ (Gen 6 4): οἱ ᾶνελοι τοῦ theoú [Gen 6 4]; οἱ ἄγγελοι τοῦ θεοῦ, hoi ággeloi toú theoú [Job 1 6; 2 1]; ἄγγελοί μου, ággeloí mou [Job 38 7]; viol θεοῦ, huiơi theoù [Ps 29 1; 89 6; cf Dnl 3 25]):

This article will deal with this phrase as it is used in the above passages. In the passages from Job and Pss it is applied to supernatural

1. Job and beings or angels. In Job the "sons Psalms of God" are represented as appearing before the throne of Jeh in heaven, ready to do Him service, and as shouting for joy at the creation of the earth. In the Pss they are summoned to celebrate the glory of Jeh, for there is none among them to be compared to Him. The phrase in these passages has no physical or moral reference. These heavenly beings are called "sons of God" or "sons of the 'ĕlōhīm" simply as belonging to the same class or guild as the 'ĕlōhīm, just as "sons of the prophets" denotes those who belong to the prophetic order (see A. B. Davidson, Comm. on Job 1 6).

Different views, however, are taken of the passage in Gen 6 2.4: "The sons of God saw the daughters of men that they were fair; and they took them wives of all that 2. Gen 6:2.4 they chose. . . . The Nephilim were in the earth in those days, and also after that, when the sons of God came in unto the daughters of men." See GIANTS; NEPHILIM.

(1) "Sons of God" is interpreted as referring to men,
(a) to sons of the nobles, who married daughters of the
common people. This is the view of many Jewish
authorities, who hold that it is justified by the use of
'liohim in the sense of "judges" (Ex 21 6; 22 8f, etc.)
But this cannot be the meaning of 'liohim here, for when
'liohim in the sense of "judges" (Ex 21 6; 22 8f, etc.)
But this cannot be the meaning of 'liohim here, for when
'liohim. When contrasted the lower classes, it is
contrasted with 'ish, as in Ps 49 2 (Heb 3), not with
'liohim. When contrasted with 'liohim it signifies the
human race. (b) Some commentators hold that by
"sons of God" is to be understood the pious race descended from Seth, and by "daughters of men" the
daughters of worldly men. These commentators connect the passage with Gen 4 25 f, where the race of
Seth is characterized as the worshippers of Jeh and is
designated as a whole, a seed (cf Dt 14 1; 32 5; Hos 1
10 [Heb 2 1]). They consider the restricted meaning
they put upon "men" as warranted by the contrast
(cf Jer 32 20; Isa 43 4), and that as the term "daughters" expresses actual descent, it is natural to understand "sons" in a similar sense. The phrase "took
wives," they contend also, supports the ethical view,
being always used to signify real and lasting marriages,
and cannot, therefore, be applied to the higher spirits in
their unholy desire after flesh. On this view vs 1-4 are
an introduction to the reason for the Flood, the great
wickedness of man upon the earth (ver 5). It is held
that nothing is said in ver 4 of a race of glants springing
from the union of angels with human wives (see paragraph
2, below), and that the violence which is mentioned
along with the corruption of the world (ver 11) refers to
the sin of the giants.

(2) Most scholars now reject this view and interpret "sons of God" as referring to supernatural beings in accordance with the meaning of the expression in the other passages. They hold that Dt 14 1, etc, cannot be regarded as supporting the ethical interpretation of the phrase in a historical narrative. The reference to Jer 32 20, etc, too, is considered irrelevant, the contrast in these passages being between Israel and other nations, not, as here, between men and God. Nor can a narrower signification (daughters of worldly men) be attached to "men" in ver 2 than to "men" in ver 1, where the reference is to the human race in general. This passage (Gen 6 1-4), therefore, which is the only one of its kind, is considered to be out of its place and to have been inserted here by the compiler as an introduction to the story of the Flood (vs 5-8). The intention of the original writer, however, was to account for the rise of the giant race of antiquity by the union of demigods with human wives. This interpretation accords with En chs 6-7, etc, and with Jude vs 6 f, where the unnatural sin of the men of Sodom who went after "strange flesh" is compared with that of the angels (cf 2 Pet 2 4 ff). (See Hävernick, Intro to the Pent; Hengstenberg on the Pent, I, 325; Oehler, OT Theology, I, 196 f; Schultz, OT Theology, I, 114 ff; Comms. on Gen by Delitzsch, Dillmann, and Driver.) But see Antediluvians, 3; Children of God; Giants; Nephilim; Rephaim.

JAMES CRICHTON SONS OF GOD (NT): Two Gr words are trd "son," τέκνον, tέκνον, vibs, huńos, both words indicating sonship by parentage, the

1. NT former indicating that the sonship has taken place by physical descent, while the latter presents sonship more from Terms the legal side than from the standpoint of relationship. John, who lays special emphasis on sonship by birth, uses *teknon*, while Paul, in emphasizing sonship from the legal side, as referring to adoption, which was current among the Romans but scarcely if at all known to, or if known, practised by, the Jews, uses the word huios (Jn 1 12; Rom 8 14.16.19; Gal 4 6.7; 1 Jn 3 1.2).

Men are not by nature the sons of God, at least not in the sense in which believers in Christ are so called. By nature those outside of Jesus Christ are "children of wrath" (Eph 2 3), "of disobedience" (2 2), 2. NT Doctrine controlled not by the Spirit of God (Rom 8 14), but by the spirit of disobedience

(Eph 2 2-4). Men become sons of God in the regenerative and adoptive sense by the acceptance of Jesus Christ as Lord and Saviour (Jn 1 12f; Gal 3 26). The universal brotherhood which the NT teaches is that brotherhood which is based on faith in the Lord Jesus Christ as the Divine and only Saviour of the world. And the same is true of the universal Fatherhood of God. It is true that all men are "his offspring" (Acts 17 28 f) in the sense that they are God's created children; but that the NT makes a very clear and striking distinction between sonship by virtue of creation and sonship by faith in the Lord Jesus Christ, there can be no reasonable doubt.

Sonship is the present possession of the believer in Christ (1 Jn 3 2). It will be completed at the second coming of Our Lord (Rom 8 23), at which time the believer will throw off his incognito, by reason of which the world may not have recognized his sonship (1 In 3 1.2), and be fully and gloriously revealed as the son of God (2 Cor 5 10). It doth not yet appear, it hath not yet appeared, what we shall be; the revelation of the sons of God is reserved for a coming day of manifestation.

The blessings of sonship are too numerous to The blessings of sonship are too numerous to mention, save in the briefest way. His sons are objects of God's peculiar love (Jn 17 23), and His Fatherly care (Lk 12 27-33). They have the family name (Eph 3 14 f; 1 Jn 3 1); the family likeness (Rom 8 29); family love (Jn 13 35; 1 Jn 3 14); a filial spirit (Rom 8 15; Gal 4 6); a family service (Jn 14 23 f; 15 8). They receive fatherly chastisement (He 12 5-11); fatherly comfort (2 Cor 14), and an inheritance (Rom 8 17; 1 Pet 13-5).

Among the evidences of sonship are: being led by the Spirit (Rom 8 14; Gal 5 18); having a child-like confidence in God (Gal 4 5); having liberty of access (Eph 3 12); having love for the brethren (1 Jn 2 9-11; 5 1), and obedience (1 Jn 5 1-3). WILLIAM EVANS

SOOTHSAYERS, sooth'sa-erz. See Astrology, 1: DIVINATION.

SOP, sop ($\psi\omega\mu\iota\sigma\nu$, $ps\bar{o}m\iota\sigma$): A thin, wafer-like piece of bread dipped into the common dish as a sort of improvised spoon, is thus designated in Jn 13 26 ff. See Morsel.

SOPATER, số pa-tếr, sop a-tếr (Σώπατρος, Sôpatros): RV the son of Pyrrhus; AV omits. A man of Beroea who is mentioned with some Thessalonians and others as accompanying Paul as far as Asia on his return to Jerus after his 3d missionary journey (Acts 20 4). He is probably the same as the "Sosipater" of Rom 16 21.

SOPE, sop. See SOAP.

SOPHERETH, sō-fē'reth, sof'ē-reth, sō'fē-reth (חֹבֶּבֶּס, sophereth): One of the remnant returning from captivity (Ezr 2 55 AV; Neh 7 57). In RV of Ezr 2 55 it is "Hassophereth," the def. art. being transliterated.

SOPHONIAS, sof-ö-nī'as (LXX Σοφονίας, Sophonias): The form in AV and RV of 2 Esd 1 40 for Zephaniah the prophet.

SORCERER, sôr'sĕr-ĕr, SORCERY, sôr'sĕr-i. See Astrology, 1; Divination; Magic; Witch-

SORE, sor (substantive) (Σ), negha'; ελκος, hélkos, vb. ἐλκόομαι, helkóomai): In the account of the appearance of leprosy (Lev 13 42 f) the spot on the skin is called by this name, which in AV is tra

"sore," but in RV "plague"; similarly in the Dedication Prayer (2 Ch 6 28 f) RV has altered the rendering of negha' for "sore" to "plague" as it has done also in Ps 38 11. The word literally means a "stroke" or "blow," and so is applied to a disease or infliction from God. היים ביים האלגלה מור AV is rendered "putrifying sores," ERV "festering sores," ARV and ERVm "fresh stripes." See Stripes. In the only other text in the OT in which "sore" is used as a substantive in AV (Ps 77 2) the word used is yādh, which lit, means the 77 2), the word used is yādh, which lit. means the "outstretched hand," hence RV renders the text: "My hand was stretched out in the night and slacked not." In the NT the ulcers on the limbs of Lazarus which were the result of poverty and hardship (Lk 16 20), and were licked by the pariah dogs (ver 21), are called "sores." Sores also which are called noisome and grievous, were the result of the outpouring of the first of the seven bowls of the wrath of God (Rev 16 2-11).

ALEX. MACALISTER

SOREK, sō'rek, VALLEY OF (ΡΊΨ) ΤΞ, naḥal sōrēk, "the valley of the choice [sōrēk] vine" [see Vine]; σωρήχ, sōrēch): "[Samson] loved a woman in the valley of Sorek, whose name was Delilah" (Jgs 16 4). Jerome (OS, 153 f, 6) mentions a Capharsoree which were non-same (or some transfer a Capharsorec which was near Saraa (ancient ZORAH [a,v.]; this latter is undoubtedly the village of Surah, high up upon the northern slopes of the great Wady es $Sur\bar{a}r$. About $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile W. of this is $Khurbet S\bar{u}r\bar{i}k$, which is certainly the site referred to by Jerome, and possibly marks that of a more ancient town which gave its name to the whole valley. This valley is of importance in the historical geography of Pal out of all proportion to its scanty mention in the OT (HGHL, 218 ff). The Wâdy es Surār is an expansion of the ravine Wâdy Isma'in (which itself is formed by the junction of the great Wâdy Reit Hanāneh which rises near Wady 1sma'n (which itself is formed by the junction of the great Wâdy Beit Hanīneh, which rises near Bereh, and the Wâdy es Sikkeh, which drains the "Plain of Rephaim" near Jerus). The Jerus-Jaffa Railway traverses successively the Wâdy es Surār, the Wâdy Ismai'n and the Wâdy es Sikkeh to reach the Jerus plateau. The Valley of Sorek is a name which probably belonged only to the open a name which probably belonged only to the open, fertile valley, well suited for vineyards, which traverses the Shephelah. It is now given over almost entirely to the cultivation of wheat, barley and maize (durra). The valley passes between the lofty hill of Sara'h (Zorah) to the N. and 'Ain Shems (Beth-shemesh) and Tibneh (Timnah) on the S. Standing on the ruins of Beth-shemesh, one can watch the modern railway train winding for miles watch the modern railway train winding for miles up the valley along almost the very road from Ekron (now 'Akîv), upon which came the strange sight of the milch kine dragging the ark (1 S 6 12). Very probably it was in this valley that the Philis were defeated (1 S 7 5-14) (PEF, III, 53, Sh XVII).

E. W. G. MASTERMAN

SORREL, sor'el: RV in Zec 1 8 for "speckled." See Colors.

SORROW, sor'ō (הֶבֶּלְ, hēbhel, יָגרוֹן, yāghōn, SORROW, sor o (בְּנָיִוֹ, nebnel, בְּיִבְיּיִ, yagnon, בְּיִבְּיִי, makh'ōb, etc; λύπη, lúpē): The OT has very many words trd "sorrow," those named being the most frequent; in the NT "sorrow" is usually the tr of lupē (Lk 22 45; Jn 16 6; 2 Cor 2 3.7, etc). Pénthos, trd "sorrow" in Rev 18 7; 21 4, is in RV "mourning." Odúnē, of pain and distress, is thus rendered in Rom 9 2; 1 Tim 6 10 (cf the vb. in Lk 2 48; Acts 20 38). RV frequently gives a more literal rendering of the words used, as "toil" (Gen 3 17). "pangs" (Ex 15 14), "pining" (Dt 28 (Gen 3 17), "pangs" (Ex 15 14), "pining" (Dt 28 65), "distress" (Isa 5 30), "lamentation" (Isa 29 2), etc; sometimes also it uses "sorrow" for other

words, as for "grief" (2 Ch 6 29; Ps 31 10; 69 26; etc; 2 Cor 2 5), "heaviness" (Rom 9 2; 2 Cor 2 1).

Sorrow or grief is necessary for discipline, for the development of the finer feelings and higher nature of the soul and spirit (Eccl 7 3, "Sorrow is better than laughter; for by the sadness of the countenance the heart is made glad," m "better"). Sorrow inevitably follows sin, and is its punishment, yet the righteous are not exempt from it. The "Servant of Jeh" was "a man of sorrows" (Isa 53 3). Christians learn how to be "sorrowful, yet always rejoicing" (2 Cor 6 10; 7 4; Col 1 24; 1 Thess 1 6; etc). In the New Jerus it is predicted that there shall be no sorrow, for sorrow shall have done its work, and the first things have passed away (Rev 21 4).

W. L. WALKER

SOSIPATER, sö-sip'a-ter (Σωσίπατρος, Sōst-patros): Sosipater unites with Lucius and Jason in sending greetings to the Rom Christians (Rom 16 21). He is a "kinsman" of Paul, by which Paul means a Jew (Rom 9 3; 16 11.21). It is the same name as Sopater (q.v.). "Sopater of Beroea" was one of the companions of Paul on his journey from Philippi after his 3d missionary journey (Acts 20 4). These two are probably the same person, Paul having with him in Corinth, at the time of writing to the Rom Christians, the two Macedonians, Sopater of Beroea and Jason of Thessalonica. name Sosipater is found on a list of politarchs of Thessalonica.

S. F. Hunter Thessalonica.

SOSTHENES, sos'the-nez (Σωσθένης, Sösthénes): Chief of the synagogue at Corinth (Acts 18 17). Possibly identical with the co-worker (afterward) of Paul mentioned in 1 Cor 1 1.

SOSTRATUS, sos'tra-tus (Σόστρατος, Sōstratos, in V Σοσ-, Sos-): "The governor of the citadel" of Jerus under Antiochus IV (Epiphanes). His duty was to gather the revenues of the city and province for the imperial treasury. He made a new departure in demanding from Menelaus direct the sum promised to the king in 2 Macc 4 27 ff (for Jason had the privilege of sending the money by his own messenger to the king [2 Macc 4 23]). This claim the usurper Menelaus disputed; consequently he and the governor were both summoned to appear before the king. No more is told, and Sostratus is otherwise unknown. S. Angus

SOTAI, sō'tī, sō'tā-ī, sō-tā'ī (עָלַט , ṣōṭay): One of those who returned from captivity, being descendants of Solomon's servants (Ezr 2 55; Neh 7 57).

SOTTISH, sot'ish (סָׁכָל , ṣākhāl, "thick-headed"): "They are sottish [stupid, very foolish] children" (Jer 4 22).

SOUL, sol (ΨΦ), nephesh; ψυχή, psuché; Lat anima):

(1) Soul, like spirit, has various shades of meaning in the OT, which may be summarized as follows:

"Soul," "living being," "life," "self,"

1. Shades "person," "desire," "appetite," "emoderate ton" and "passion" (BDB, s.v.). In the first instance it meant that which in the OT breathes, and as such is distinguished from bāsār, "flesh" (Isa 10 18; Dt 12 23); from sho'ēr, "the inner flesh," next the bones (Prov 11 17, "his own flesh"); from beten, "belly" (Ps 31 10, "My soul and my belly are consumed with grief"),

(2) As the life-breath, it departs at death (Gen 35 18; Jer 15 2). Hence the desire among OT

saints to be delivered from Sheol (Ps 16 10, "Thou wilt not leave my soul to Sheol') and from shahath, "the pit" (Job 33 18, "He keepeth back his soul from the pit"; Isa 38 17, "Thou hast delivered it [my soul] from the pit of corruption").

(3) By an easy transition the word comes to stand for the individual, personal life, the person, with two distinct shades of meaning which might best be indicated by the Lat anima and animus. As anima, "soul," the life inherent in the body, the animating principle in the blood is denoted (cf. Dt. 12, 23.24, Only be sure that thou eat not the blood: for the blood is the soul; and thou shalt not eat the soul with the flesh'). As animus, "mind," the center of with the fiesh'). As animus, "mind," the center of our mental activities and passivities is indicated. Thus we read of 'a hungry soul' (Ps 107 9), 'a weary soul' (Jer 31 25), 'a loathing soul' (Lev 26 11), 'a thirsty soul' (Ps 42 2), 'a grieved soul' (Job 30 25), 'a loving soul' (Cant 1 7), and many kindred expressions. Cremer has characterized this use of the word in a sentence: "Nephesh [soul] in man is the subject of personal life, whereof pneuma or ruah [spirit] is the principle" (Lexicon, ser 705)

s.v., 795).
(4) This individuality of man, however, may be denoted by pneuma as well, but with a distinction. Nephesh or "soul" can only denote the individual life with a material organization or body. Pneuma or "spirit" is not so restricted. Scripture speaks of "spirits of just men made perfect" (He 12 23), where there can be no thought of a material or physical or corporeal organization. They are "spiritual beings freed from the assaults and defilements of the flesh" (Delitzsch, in loc.). For an exceptional use of psuchë in the same sense see Rev 6 9; 20 4, and (irrespective of the meaning of Ps 16 10) Acts 2 27.

(1) In the NT psuchē appears under more or less similar conditions as in the OT. The contrast here is as carefully maintained as there. It 2. NT Dis- is used where pneuma would be out tinctions of place; and yet it seems at times to be employed where pneuma might have been substituted. Thus in Jn 19 30 we read: "Jesus gave up his pneuma" to the Father, and, in the same Gospel (Jn 10 15), Jesus gave up His "psuchēfor the sheep," and in Mt 20 28 He gave His psuchē (not His pneuma) as a ransom—a difference which is characteristic. For the pneuma stands in quite a different relation to God from the psuchē. The "spirit" (pneuma) is the outbreathing of God into the creature, the life-principle derived from God. The "soul" (psuchē) is man's individual possession, that which distinguishes one man from another and from inanimate nature. The pneuma of Christ was from inanimate nature. The pneuma of Christ was surrendered to the Father in death; His psuchê was surrendered, His individual life was given "a ransom for many." His life "was given for the sheep."
(2) This explains those expressions in the NT

the implanted word, which is able to save your souls" (Jas 1 21).

The same or similar expressions may be met with in the OT in reference to the soul. Thus in Ps 49 8, AV "The redemption of their soul is precious," and again: "God will redeem my soul from the power of Sheol" (Ps 49 15). Perhaps this may explain—at least this is Wendt's explanation—why even a corpse is called nephesh or soul in the OT, because, in the region of the dead, the individuality

is retained and, in a measure, separated from God (cf Hag 2 13; Lev 21 11).

The distinction between $psuch\bar{e}$ and pneuma, or nephesh and $r\bar{u}^ah$, to which reference has been made,

may best be described in the words of 3. Oehler Oehler (OT Theology, I, 217): "Man on Soul and is not spirit, but has it: he is soul.

Spirit In the soul, which sprang from the spirit, and exists continually through it, lies the individuality—in the case of man, his personality, his self, his ego." He draws attention to the words of Elihu in Job (33 4): 'God's spirit made me,' the soul called into being;' and the health of the Almighty engineers me.' and the breath of the Almighty animates me, the soul kept in energy and strength, in continued existence, by the Almighty, into whose hands the inbreathed spirit is surrendered, when the soul departs or is taken from us (1 K 19 4). Hence according to Oehler the phrases naphshī Hence according to Oehler the phrases naphshi ("my soul"), naphshikhā ("thy soul") may be rendered in Lat egomet, tu ipse; but not $r\bar{u}h\bar{\iota}$ ("my spirit"), $ruh\bar{u}kh\bar{u}$ ("thy spirit")—soul standing for the whole person, as in Gen 12 5; 17 14; Ezk 18 4, etc. See Psychology.

J. I. Marais

SOUND, sound: In Isa 63 15 AV has "the sounding of thy bowels," a painfully literal tr of hămon mē'eykhā, with the similar phrase, "my bowels shall sound like an harp," in 16 11 (cf Jer 48 36). The intestines were considered a seat of emotion, and at times of great excitement were thought (in poetry, at least) to become tense and to give forth a musical sound. RV (following AV in Jer 48 36) substitutes "heart" for "bowels" in Isa 16 11, thus obscuring the figure but preserving the sense. In Isa 63 15 RV paraphrases "the yearning of thy heart" (ERV "bowels"), a needless change from 16 11. See also BATH KOL; SOLEMN, So-BURTON SCOTT EASTON LEMNITY.

SOUNDINGS, sound'ingz. See Ships and BOATS, III, 2.

SOUR, sour: (1) Tota, boser, "immature," "unripe": "The fathers have eaten sour grapes" (Jer 31 29 f; Ezk 18 2; cf Isa 18 5 AV). (2) ילני (to turn aside," "degenerate": "Their drink is turned sour" (AVm "gone," RVm "Their carouse is over").

SOUTH, south: (1) בָּלֶב , neghebh, according to BDB from √ בְּלֶב , nāghabh, meaning "to be dry," the word oftenest used, in RV capitalized (South) in those places where it seems to denote a particular region, i.e. to the S. of Judah. (2) לְּכִילִּי, yām̄n, "right hand," "right." The derived meaning, "south," seems to imply an eastern posture in prayer in which the right hand is toward the S.; cf Arab. يَبُن, yamîn, "right," and يَبُن, yemen,

"Yemen," a region in Southwestern Arabia. (3) קלמָד, tēmān, from the same root as (2), is often used for the south; also for the south wind (Ps 78 26; Cant 4 16). (4) D, yām, lit. "sea" (Ps 107 3). (5) בּרוֹם, dārōm, etymology doubtful (Dt 33 23; Ezk 40 24). (6) בְּלֶב, midhbār, lit. "desert"

(Ps 75 6, reading doubtful).

(7) λlψ, lips, "south west wind" (Acts 27 12).
(8) μεσημβρία, mesēmbria, lit. "mid-day"; "south" (Acts 8 26); "noon" (22 6). (9) νότος, πότος, "south wind" (Lk 12 55; Acts 27 13; 28 13); "south" (1 Macc 3 57; Mt 12 42; Lk 11 31; 13 29; Rev 21 13).

The south wind is often referred to: see Cant 4 16; Job 37 9 (cf 9 9); Zec 9 14 (cf Isa 21 1); Lk 12 55.

Of the passages where South (neghebh) clearly refers to a particular region between Pal and Sinai refers to a particular region between Fal and Sinal see: "And Abraham journeyed, going on still toward the South" (neghbāh) (Gen 12 9; 13 1; Dt 1 7). We read of "the South of the Jerahmeelites," "the South of the Kenites" (1 S 27 10); "the South of the Cherethites," "the South of Caleb" (1 S 30 14); "the South of Judah" (2 Ch 28 18); "Ramoth of the South" (1 S 30 27).

In Ps 126 4, "Turn again our captivity, O Jeh, as the streams in the South," we have a figurative reference to the fact that, after a long period of drought, the dry watercourses are finally filled with rushing streams. The reference in Ezk 20 46 f to "the forest of the South" is to a condition of things very different from that which exists today, though the region is not incapable of supporting trees if they are only planted and protected.

ALFRED ELY DAY SOUTH, CHAMBERS OF THE: The twelve constellations of the Zodiac. See ASTRONOMY, II, 12.

SOUTH, QUEEN OF THE $(\mathrm{Mt}\ 12\ 42).$ See Queen of Sheba.

SOUTH RAMOTH. See RAMOTH.

SOUTHEAST. See Northeast.

SOW, sou. See Swine.

SOWER, sō'er, SOWING, sō'ing. See Agri-

SPAIN, spān (Σπανία, Spania): The country in the S.W. of Europe which still bears this name. It was Paul's purpose, as stated in Rom 15 24.28, to visit Spain. If, as is probable, he ultimately carried out this intention, it must have been after a release from his first imprisonment. Clement of Rome speaks of the apostle as having reached "the extreme limit of the W." (*Ep. of Clem.*, v). See Paul, the Apostle; Tarshish.

SPAN (פֹרֶת, zereth; σπιθαμή, spithamé): A measure of length equal to half a cubit or about 9 in. (Ex 28 16; 39 9; 1 S 17 4, etc). Lam 2 20 AV is a mistranslation; see RV. See Weights and MEASURES.

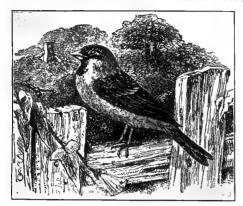
SPARK, spärk. See Leviathan.

SPARROW, spar'ō (Tib¥, cippōr; στρουθίον, strouthíon; Lat passer): A small bird of the Fringillidae family. The Heb cippōr seems to have been a generic name under which were placed all small birds that frequented houses and gardens. The word occurs about 40 t in the Bible, and is indiscriminately trd "bird," "fowl" or "sparrow." Our translators have used the word "sparrow" where they felt that this bird best filled the requirements of the state o ments of the texts. Sparrows are small brown and gray birds of friendly habit that swarm over the northern part of Pal, and W. of the Sea of Galilee, where the hills, plains and fertile fields are scattered over with villages. They build in the vineyards, orchards and bushes of the walled gardens surrounding houses, on the ground or in nooks and crannies of vine-covered walls. They live on seeds, small green buds and tiny insects and worms. Some members of the family sing musically; all are great chatterers when about the business of life. Repeatedly they are mentioned by Bible writers, but most of the references lose force as applying to the bird family, because they are trd "bird"

or "fowl." In a few instances the word "sparrow" is used, and in some of these, painstaking commentators feel that what is said does not apply to the sparrow. For example see Ps 102 7:

I watch, and am become like a sparrow That is alone upon the housetop."

The feeling that this is not characteristic of the sparrow arises from the fact that it is such a friendly



Sparrow (Fringilla domestica).

bird that if it were on the housetop it would be surrounded by half a dozen of its kind; so it has been suggested that a solitary thrush was intended. There is little force in the change. Thrushes of today are shy, timid birds of thickets and deep undergrowth. Occasionally a stray one comes around a house at migration, but once settled to the business of living they are the last and most infrequent bird to appear near the haunts of man. And bird habits do not change in one or two thousand years. In an overwhelmed hour the Psalmist poured out his heart before the Almighty. reason he said he was like a "sparrow that is alone upon the housetop" was because it is the most unusual thing in the world for a sparrow to sit mourning alone, and therefore it attracted attention and made a forceful comparison. It only happens when the bird's mate has been killed or its nest and young destroyed, and this most cheerful of birds sitting solitary and dejected made a deep impression on the Psalmist who, when his hour of trouble came, said he was like the mourning sparrowalone on the housetop. Another exquisite song describes the bird in its secure and happy hour:

Yea, the sparrow hath found her a house, And the swallow a nest for herself, where she may lay her young, Even thine altars, O Jeh of hosts, My King, and my God" (Ps 84 3).

When the mind of man was young and he looked on the commonest acts of creatures around him as filled with mystery, miracle and sign-he held in superstitious reverence any bird that built on a temple, because he thought it meant that the bird thus building claimed the protection of God in so doing. For these reasons all temple builders were so reverenced that authentic instances are given of people being put to death, if they disturbed temple nests or builders. Because he noticed the sparrow in joyful conditions is good reason why the Psalmist should have been attracted by its mourning. is a reference to the widespread distribution of these birds in Prov 26 2:

"As the sparrow in her wandering, as the swallow in her flying,
So the curse that is causeless alighteth not."

Once settled in a location, no bird clings more

faithfully to its nest and young, so this "wandering" could only mean that they scatter widely in choosing locations. Mt 10 29: "Are not two sparrows sold for a penny? and not one of them shall fall on the ground without your Father." This is a reference to the common custom in the East of catching small birds, and selling them to be skinned, roasted and sold as tid-bits—a bird to a mouthful. These lines no doubt are the origin of the oft-quoted phrase, "He marks the fall of the sparrow." Then in ver 31 comes this comforting assurance: "Fear not therefore: ye are of more value than many sparrows." Lk 12 6: "Are not five sparrows sold for two pence? and not one of them is forgotten in the sight of God." This affirms the implication of Mark that these tiny birds were an article of commerce in the days of Jesus, just as they are now in the Far East. GENE STRATTON-PORTER

SPARTA, spär'ta, SPARTANS, spär'tanz (Σπάρτη, Spártē, Srakians, spartata, Spartátai, Spartátai, Lacedaemonians [AV 1 Macc 12 2.5.6.10. 21; 14 20-23; 15 23; in 2 Macc 5 9, Gr Lakedaimónioi]): The passages in 1 Macc relate to a correspondence initiated by Jonathan, the priest, during the Maccabean revolt, and continued after his death with his brother Simon, between the Jews and the Lacedaemonians or Spartans, with a view to a friendly alliance. The proposals, curiously based on a claim to kindredship, were favorably received by the Lacedaemonians. See the letters (1 Macc 12 5 ff.19 ff; 14 16 ff). The claim to blood-rela-tionship (cf 1 Macc 12 21; 2 Macc 5 9) is of course absurd, but there is no good reason to doubt the genuineness of the transaction described. See ARIUS; ASMONEANS; LACEDAEMONIANS; MACCA-BEANS, etc. JAMES ORR

SPEAKING, spē'king, EVIL. See EVIL-SPEAK-ING; SLANDER.

SPEAR, spēr, SPEARMEN, spēr'men. See ARMOR, III, 4; ARMY, 7.

SPECIALLY, spesh'al-i (コペウ, mº'ōdh [Ps 31 11 AV]; μάλιστα, málista): Used in an emphatic sense; derived from a superlative. While usually employed for emphasis, it carries with it slightly the idea of something additional. Not used in the OT in RV, the sense of the Heb being expressed more clearly by "exceedingly," "very." Its ordinary NT usage is, "mostly," "particularly," "chiefly" or, "most of all." Paul in his practical exhortations or, "most of all." Paul in his practical exhoreations says: "But if any provideth not for his own, and specially his own household, he hath denied the faith" (1 Tim 5 8; cf Gal 6 10; 1 Tim 4 10).

WALTER G. CLIPPINGER
SPECKLED, spek'l'd: Zec 1 8; RV "sorrel."

See Colors; HYENA.

SPECTACLE, spek'ta-k'Ι (θέατρον, théatron): Occurs twice in the NT: (1) of the place where assemblies or exhibitions were held (Acts 19 29, "theatre"); (2) figuratively of the suffering apostles (1 Cor 4 9).

SPEECH, spēch (אָמֶרָה, 'imrāh, דָבָר, dābhār, etc; hoyos, logos): "Speech," the articulate utterance of thought, is the tr of various Heb terms which convey this idea of "saying" or "word"; so, in the NT, the term generally so rendered is logos, "word." See Logos; Word. Eulogia in Rom 16 18 is "fair speech"; laliá in Mt 26 73; Mk 14 70 AV; Jn 8 43 is simply "talk." RV has "speech" for various other words in AV, as "matters" (1 S 16 18, m "business"), "communication" (Mt 5 37; Eph 4 29), "words" (Lk 20 20; 1 Cor 14 9); "persuasiveness of speech" for "enticing words" (Col 2 4), etc. W. L. Walker

SPELT, spelt (ΓΏΦ), kuşşemeth; ὅλυρα, ὁlura, ζέα, zéa (Ex 9 32, AV "rye"; Isa 28 25, AV "rye," m "spelt"; Ezk 4 9, AV "fitches," m "spelt"; RV adopts "spelt," influenced by LXX, in all passages)): Spelt is the seed of Triticum spelta, a kind of wild wheat. Several writers would identify this kuşşemeth with the Arab. kirsenneh (Vicia ervilia), a kind of vetch much used as camels' fodder.

SPICE, spīs, SPICES, spī'sis, -sez:

(1) (DWA, besem [Ex 30 23], DWA, bōsem, pl. DYA, besāmīm, all from root "to attract by desire," esp. by smell): The list of spices in Ex 30 23 includes myrrh, cinnamon, "sweet calamus and cassia." These, mixed with olive oil, made the "holy anointing oil." Officials of the temple had charge of the spices (1 Ch 9 29). Among the treasures of the temple shown by Hezekiah to the messengers of Babylon were the spices (2 K 20 13). They were used in the obsequies of kings (2 Ch 16 14) and in preparation of a bride for a royal marriage (Est 2 12, "sweet-odors" = balsam). Spices are frequently mentioned in Cant (4 10.14.16; 5 1, m and AV "balsam"; 5 13; 6 2, "bed of spices," m "balsam"; 8 14). These passages in Cant may refer in particular to balsam, the product of the balsam plant, Balsamodendron opobalsamum, a plant growing in Arabia. According to Jos it was cultivated at Jericho, the plant having been brought to Pal by the Queen of Sheba (Ant, VIII, vi, 6; see also XIV, iv, 1; XV, iv, 2; BJ, I, vi, 6). See Myrrh.

(2) (DYDD, şammīm [Ex 30 34, "sweet spices"]):

(2) (١٩٤٥), sammīm [Ex 30 34, "sweet spices"]): "Take unto thee sweet spices, stacte, and onycha, and galbanum; sweet spices with pure frankincense." It is a general term for fragrant substances finely powdered. Cf Arab. شم, shamm, "a

smell" or "sense of smell"; generally trd "sweet incense" (Ex 25 6; 30 7; 31 11; 35 8.15.28; 39 38; 40 27 [AV only]; Lev 4 7; 16 12; Nu 4 16; 2 Ch 2 4 [AV only]; 13 11). In Ex 37 29; 40 27; 2 Ch 2 4, we have מַרָּרוֹ מָרַרוֹּ אַ נְּיִּלְּהַרוֹּ sammīm, "incense of sweet spices."

(3) (ΓΝ), nºkhō'th; θυμιάματα, thumidmata [Gen 37 25, "spicery," m "gum tragacanth or storax"]; θυμίαμα, thumiama, "incense" [43 11, "spicery"; some Gr versions and the Vulg have "storax"]): Storax is the dried gum of the beautiful Styrax officinalis (see Poplar), which was used as incense—a different article from that now passing under that name. Tragacanth is the resinous gum of several species of milk vetch (N.O. Leguminosae), esp. of the Astragalus gummifer. LXX "incense" is probably the best tr.

(4) (קקם, rekaḥ, "spiced" wine [Cant 8 2]). See

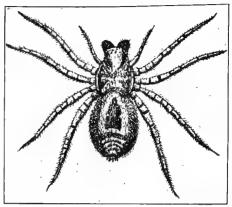
WINE.

(5) (ἄρωμα, ἀrōma, "spices" [Mk 16 1, AV "sweet spices"; Lk 23 56; 24 1; Jn 19 40; in ver 39 defined as a mixture of aloes and myrrh]). See Perfumes; Burial.

(6) (ἄμωμον, ἀποῦποπ [Rev 18 13], m "amomum"; AV "odours"): The Gr means "blameless," and it was apparently applied in classical times to any sweet and fine odor. In modern botany the name Amomum is given to a genus in the N.O. Zingiberaceae. The well-known cardamon seeds (Amomum cardamomum) and the A.grana Paradisi which yields the well-known "grains of Paradise," used as a stimulant, both belong to this genus. What was the substance indicated in Rev 18 13 is quite uncertain.

E. W. G. MASTERMAN

SPIDER, spī'dēr ([1] בְּבְּרֵישׁ, 'akkābhīsh; cf Arab. בּיֹבּיׁהָיּה, 'ankabāt, EV "spider"; LXX מָּמְבִירת [Job 8 14; Isa 59 5]; [2] הְּיִבְּיִרת אָּיִבְּיִרת אָּרָיִרת [Som amīth, "lizard," AV "spider"; LXX καλαβάτης, kalabōtēs [Prov 30 28]): Semāmīth of Prov 30 28



Spider (Clubiona atrox).

is probably the gecko, a kind of lizard, as LXX and RV have it. See Lizard. In Job 8 14 the spider's web is an emblem of frailty: "Whose confidence shall break in sunder, and whose trust is a spider's web." Frailty or futility seems to be indicated also in Isa 59 5.6: "They hatch adders' eggs, and weave the spider's web: . . . Their webs shall not become garments, neither shall they cover themselves with their works." "Spider's web" is in Job 8 14 bēth 'akkābhīsh, "spider's house," while in Isa 59 5 it is kūrē 'akkābhīsh, "There is liver." Albert Elix Day

ALFRED ELY DAY SPIKENARD, spik'nard (קְּדֶב, nērd; νάρδος,

nárdos [Cant 1 12; 4 14]; "ΓΓΓ, n°rā dhīm; νάρδοι, nárdoi [Cant 4 13], "spike-nard plants"; νάρδος THOTHER, nardos pistikė [Mk 14 3; Jn 12 3], "pure nard," m "liquid nard"; the Eng. word is for "spiked nard," which comes from the Nardus spicatus of the Vulg): Spikenard is the plant Nardostachys jatamansi (N.O. Valerianaceae); in Arab. the name Sunbul hind, "Indian spike," refers, like the Eng. and Lat name, to the "spike"-like shape of the plant from which the per-fume comes. The dried plant as sold consists of the "withered stalks and ribs of leaves cohering in a bundle of yellowish-brown cap-illary fibres and consisting of a spike about the size of a small finger" (Sir W. Jones, As. Res., II, 409); in appearance the whole



Nard

plant is said to look like the tail of an ermine. It grows in the Himalayas. The extracted perfume is an oil, which was used by the Romans for anointing the head. Its great costliness is mentioned by

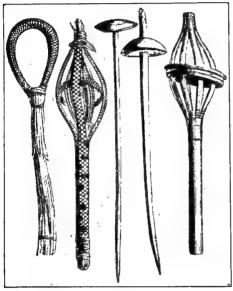
Pliny.

With regard to the exact meaning of the πιστική, pistike, in the NT, there is much difference of opinion: "pure" and "liquid" are both given in m, but it has also been suggested among other things that this was a local name, that it comes from the Lat spicita or from pisita, the Sanskrit name of the spikenard plant. The question is an open one: either "genuine" or "pure" is favored by most commentators.

E. W. G. MASTERMAN

SPINDLE, spin'd'l. See Spinning.

SPINNING, spin'ing: Although spinning must have been one of the commonest of the crafts in Bible times, it is mentioned definitely in three pas-



Spindles.

sages only, namely, Ex 35 25 f, where \vec{n} \vec{v} , $t\bar{a}w\bar{a}h$, is so tr^d , and in Mt 6 28; Lk 12 27 $(v\eta\theta\epsilon\iota\nu)$ néthein), where Jesus refers to the lilies of the field as neither toiling nor spinning.

The materials commonly spun were flax, cotton, wool, goats' hair. Goats' hair required little preparation other than washing, before spinning. was first cleansed and then carded. The present method of carding, which no doubt is of ancient origin, is to pile the wool on a mat and then detach the fibers from each other by snapping a bow-string against the pile. The bow is specially constructed and carefully balanced so that it can be easily held with one hand while with the other the string is struck with a pestle-shaped mallet like a carver's mallet. The same instrument is used for carding

Flax was treated anciently as today, if the Egyp sculptures have been rightly interpreted. stalks after being stripped of their seeds were first retted. This operation consisted in soaking the stems in water until fermentation or rotting had so loosened the fibers that they could be separated from each other by combing. A series of washings and long exposure to the weather finally produced what was termed snowy-white linen.

The various fibers, mentioned above, to be made into thread, were gathered into a loose rope which was wound around a distaff or about the left hand. From this reel it was unwound as needed, the fibers more carefully adjusted with the thumbs and two first fingers of both hands, and then the rope twisted by means of a spindle. The spindle varied in form but was always a shaft, 8 to 12 in. in length, provided at one end with a hook or other means of fastening the thread and at the other end with a circular wharve or whorl of stone or other heavy material to give momentum to the rotating spindle. When 2 or 3 ft. of the rope was prepared as mentioned above, the spindle was twirled with the right hand or laid on the thigh and rotated by passing the hand over the shaft. After the thread was twisted it was wound on the spindle, fastened, and a new portion of rope prepared and twisted. The rope was sometimes fastened to a post and the spindle twisted with both hands, in which case the whorl was not necessary (see Wilkinson, Anc. Egypt, I, 317; II, 170, 172). Spinning was the work of both men and women in ancient Egypt. The Bible characterizes it as the work of women (Ex 35; Prov 31 19). The same method of spinning is still used by the women of Syria, although imported yarn is largely taking the place of homespun thread (see Distaff). JAMES A. PATCH

SPIRIT, spir'it (፲٦٦, rūaḥ; πνεῦμα, pneúma; Lat spiritus):

1. Primary and Figurative Senses
(1) As Wind, Breath
(2) As Anger or Fury
(3) As Mental and Moral Qualities in Man
2. Shades of Meaning
(1) As Life-Principle
(2) As Surviving Death
(3) Spiritual Manifestations
3. Human and Divine Spirit
(1) The Human as Related with the Divine
(2) Operations of the Divine Spirit as Third Person
of the Trinity
4. OT Applications
5. Various Interpretations

(1) Used primarily in the OT and NT of the wind, as in Gen 8 1; Nu 11 31; Am 4 13 ("createth the wind"); He 1 7 (angels, 1. Primary "spirits" or "winds" in m); often and Figura- used of the breath, as in Job 12 10; tive Senses 15 30, and in 2 Thess 28 (wicked consumed by "the breath of his mouth"). (2) In a figurative sense it was used as

indicating anger or fury, and as such applied even to God, who destroys by the "breath of his nostrils" (Job 4 9; Ex 15 8; 2 S 22 16; see 2 Thess 2 8).

(3) Hence applied to man—as being the seat of emotion in desire or trouble, and thus gradually of mental and moral qualities in general (Ex 28 3, "the spirit of wisdom"; Ezk 11 19, "a new spirit," etc). Where man is deeply stirred by the Divine Spirit, as among the prophets, we have a somewhat similar use of the word, in such expressions as: "The Spirit of the Lord came upon him"

(1) The spirit as life-principle in man has various applications: sometimes to denote an apparition (Mt 14 26, AV "saying, It is a spirit";

Lk 24 37, AV "had seen a spirit"); 2. Shades

2. Shades LR 24 37, AV had seen a spirit),
of Meaning sometimes to denote angels, both fallen
and unfallen (He 1 14, "ministering
spirits"; Mt 10 1, "unclean spirits"; cf also 12
43; Mk 1 23.26.27; and in Rev 1 4, "the seven
Spirits . . . before his throne"). (2) The spirit is
thus in man the principle of life—but of man as distinguished from the brute—so that in death this spirit is yielded to the Lord (Lk 23 46; Acts 7 59; 1 Cor 5 5, "that the spirit may be saved"). Hence God is called the "Father of spirits" (He 12 9).

(3) Thus generally for all the manifestations of the spiritual part in man, as that which thinks, feels, wills; and also to denote certain qualities which wills; and also to denote certam qualities which characterize the man, e.g. "poor in spirit" (Mt 5 3); "spirit of gentleness" (Gal 6 1); "of bondage" (Rom 8 15); "of jealousy" (Nu 5 14); "of fear" (2 Tim 1 7 AV); "of slumber" (Rom 11 8 AV). Hence we are called upon to "rule over our own spirit" (Prov 16 32; 25 28), and are warned against being overmastered by a wrong spirit (Lk 9 55 AV, "We know not what memory of spirit ware of?") "Ye know not what manner of spirit ye are of"). So man may submit to the "spirit of error," and turn away from the "spirit of truth" (1 Jn 4 6). Thus we read of the "spirit of counsel" (Isa 11 2); "of wisdom" (Eph 1 17).

(1) We go a step higher when we find the human spirit brought into relationship with the Divine Spirit. For man is but a creature to whom life has been imparted by God's 3. Human and Divine spirit—life being but a resultant of Spirit God's breath. Thus life and death

are realistically described as an imparting or a withdrawing of God's breath, as in Job 27 3; 33 4; 34 14, "spirit and breath" going together. The spirit may thus be "revived" (Gen 45 27), or "overwhelmed" (Ps 143 4), or "broken" (Provided 15 12). 15 13). And where sin has been keenly felt, it is "a broken spirit" which is "a sacrifice to God" (Ps 51 17); and when man submits to the power of sin, a new direction is given to his mind: he comes under a "spirit of whoredom" (Hos 4 12); he becomes "proud in spirit" (Eccl 7 8), instead of being "patient in spirit"; he is a fool because he is "hasty in spirit" and gives way to "anger" (Eccl 7 9). The "faithful in spirit" are the men who resist talebearing and backbiting in the world (Prov 11 13). In such instances as these the difference between "soul" and "spirit" appears. See Soul: Psychology.

ence between "soul" and "spirit" appears. See Soul; Psychology.

(2) On this higher plane, too, we find the Divine Spirit at work. The terminology is very varied here: In the NT we read of the "Holy Spirit" (1 Cor 6 19; Mt 1 18.20; 1 Thess 1 5.6); the "Spirit of God" (1 Cor 2 10 ff; 3 16; Rom 8 9:1; Eph 3 16, etc); the "Spirit of Christ" (Rom 8 9; 1 Cor 3 17; Gal 4 6); or simply of "Spirit," with distinct reference to God (1 Cor 2 10; Rom 8 16.23, etc). God Himself is Spirit (Jn 4 24). Hence God's power is manifested in human life and character (Ik 4 14; Rom 1 1; 1 Cor 2 4; esp. Lk 24 49). The Book of Acts may be termed the Book of the Holy Spirit, working with power in man. This Spirit is placed on a level with Father and Son in the Apostolic Benediction (2 Cor 13 14) and in the parting message of the Saviour to His disciples (Mt 28 19). As the agent in redemption and sanctification His work is glorified by lives "renewed" in the very "spirit of the mind"—a collocation of terms which has puzzled many interpreters (Eph 4 23.24), where practima and notis appear together, to indicate a renewal which is all-embracing, 'renewed in the spirit of your mind, so that the new man is put on, created in righteousness and true holiness' (see also Jn 14 17.26; 15 26; 16 13; 1 Cor 12 11, etc).

In the OT this spirit of God appears in varied functions, as brooding over chaos (Gen 1 2; Job 26 13); as descending upon men, on heroes like of the Holy Spirit: "The Spirit of Joh is Joh himself."

May we not reach a still higher stage? Wendt in his interesting monograph (Die Begriffe Fleisch und Geist), of which extracts are given in Dickson's 5t. Paul's Use of the Terms Flesh and Spirit, draws attention to the transcendental influence of the Divine ruah in the OT as expressed in such phrases as 'to put on' (136 6 34), 'to fall upon' (14 6.19), 'to settle' (Nu 11 25 f). May we not then rightly assume that more is meant than a mere influence emanating from a personal God? Are we not right in maintaining with Davidson that "there are

passage in Gen: "Let us make man after our own image," which some have interpreted in a trinitarian sense, we may point to such texts as Zec 4 6, "by my Spirit"; Isa 63 10.11, "They rebelled, and grieved his holy Spirit": "Where is he that put his holy Spirit in the midst of them?" This is borne out by the NT, with its warnings against "grieving the Holy Spirit," "lying against the Holy Spirit," and kindred expressions (Eph 4 30; Acts 5 3). It is this Spirit which "beareth witness with our spirit, that we are children of God" (Rom 8 16)—the spirit which, as Auberlen has put it (PRE, att. "Geist des Menschen"), "appears in a double relationship to us, as the principle of natural life, which is ours by birth, and that of spiritual life, which we receive through the new birth (Wiedergeburt)." Hence Paul speaks of God whom he serves "with his spirit" (Rom 19); and in 2 Tim 13 he speaks of serving God "in a pure conscience." See Conscience; Flesh; Holy Spirit; Psychology; Soul.

J. I. MARAIS SPIRIT, EVIL. See SATAN; DEMON, DE-MONIAC.

SPIRIT, FAMILIAR. See FAMILIAR SPIRIT; DIVINATION: PYTHON.

SPIRIT, HOLY. See HOLY SPIRIT.

SPIRIT OF DIVINATION. See DIVINATION.

SPIRIT, UNCLEAN (OR EVIL). See DEMON, DEMONIAC.

SPIRITS, DISCERNINGS OF. See DISCERN-INGS OF SPIRITS; SPIRITUAL GIFTS.

SPIRITS IN PRISON. See Prison, Spirits in.

SPIRITUAL, spir'it-û-al (πνευματικός, pneumatikós, "spiritual," from πνεύμα, pneúma, "spirit"): Endowed with the attributes of spirit. Any being made in the image of God who is a Spirit (Jn 4 24) and thus having the nature of spirit, is a spiritual being

(1) Spiritual hosts of wickedness (Eph 6 12), in distinction from beings clothed in "flesh and blood"
—the devil and his angels. This use of the word has reference to nature, essence, and not to character or moral quality. God, angels, man, devil, demons are in essence spiritual. The groundwork and faculties of their rational and moral being are the This limited use of the word in the NT has its advb. equivalent in Rev 11 8, "which [the great and wicked city] spiritually is called Sodom." As the comprehensive term moral includes immoral, so spiritual includes unspiritual and all that pertains to spirit.

(2) With the above exception, "spiritual" in the NT signifies moral, not physical antithesis: an essence springing from the Spirit of God and imparted to the spirit of man. Hence spiritual in this sense always presupposes the infusion of the Holy Spirit to quicken, and inform. It is opposed (a) to σαρκικός, to quicken, and inform. It is opposed (a) to σαρκικόs, sarkikós, "fleshly" (1 Cor 3 1), men of the flesh and not of the spirit; (b) to ψυχικόs, psuchikós, "natural," man in whom the pneúma, "spirit," is overridden, because of the Fall, by psuché, the principle of the animal life, "soul"; hence the unrenewed man, unspiritual, alienated from the life of God (1 Cor 2 14; 2 Pet 2 12; Jude ver 10). See MAN, NATURAL; (c) to natural, meaning physical, "... sown a natural body: raised a ".... sown a natural body; raised a spiritual body" (1 Cor 15 44).

(3) In the NT and general use "spiritual" thus indicates man regenerated, indwelt, enlightened, endued, empowered, guided by the Holy Spirit; conformed to the will of God, having the mind of Christ, living in and led by the Spirit. The spiritual man is a new creation born from above (Rom 8 6; 1 Cor 2 15; 3 1; 14 37; Col 1 9; 1 Pet 2 5).

(4) Ecclesiastically used of things sacred or

religious, as spiritual authority, spiritual assembly, spiritual office. See Spirit, Dwight M. Pratt

SPIRITUAL BLESSING (εὐλογία πνευματική, eulogia pneumatikė): Any blessing administered in the realm of the spiritual life; specifically the blessing of the Spirit in introducing the believer into "the heavenly places in Christ" (Eph 1 3); a term expressing the fulness of blessing in God's gift of eternal life in Jesus Christ.

SPIRITUAL BODY (σῶμα πνευματικόν, sōma pneumatikón, "body spiritual"): The resurrectionbody, a body fitted to the capacities and wants of the spirit in the celestial world; an organism conformed to the spiritual life at the resurrection (see 1 Cor 15 44). See Body, Spiritual.

SPIRITUAL DRINK (πνευματικόν πόμα, pneumatikón póma): Having a spiritual significance, as referring to the water that flowed miraculously from the smitten rock (1 Cor 10 4; Nu 20 11). Symbolic also of nourishment for the thirsty soul in the sacramental cup and the outpoured blood (life) of Christ. See Rock, 2, (1); Spiritual Rock.

SPIRITUAL GIFTS (xaplo para, charismata):

1. Gifts Connected with the Ministry of the Word

Gifts Connected with the Ministry of the Word
(1) Apostleship
(2) Prophecy
(3) Discernings of Spirits
(4) Teaching
(5) The Word of Knowledge
(6) The Word of Wisdom
(7) Kinds of Tongues
(8) Interpretation of Tongues
Gifts Connected with the Ministry of Practical Service
(1) Workings of Miracles
(2) Gifts of Healings
(3) Ruling, Governments
(4) Helps
TTERATURE

LITERATURE

The word charisma, with a single exception (1 Pet 4 10), occurs in the NT only in the Pauline Epp., and in the pl. form is employed in a technical sense to denote extraordinary gifts of the Spirit bestowed upon Christians to equip them for the service of the church. Various lists of the *charismata* are given (Rom 12 6-8; 1 Cor 12 4-11.28-30; cf Eph 4 7-12), none of which, it is evident, are exhaustive. Some of the gifts enumerated cannot be said to belong in any peculiar sense to the distinctive category. "Faith" (1 Cor 12 9), for example, is the essential condition of all Christian life; though there were, no doubt, those who were endowed with faith beyond their fellows. "Giving" and "mercy" (Rom 12 8) are among the ordinary graces of the Christian character; though some would possess them more than others. "Ministry" (Rom 12 7), again, i.e. service, was the function to which every Christian was called and the purpose to which every one of the special gifts was to be devoted (Eph 4 12). The term is applied to any spiritual benefit, as the confirmation of Christians in the faith by Paul (Rom 1 11). And as the general function of ministry appears from the first in two great forms as a ministry of word and deed (Acts 6 1-4; 1 Cor 1 17), so the peculiar charismatic gifts which Paul mentions fall into two great classes—those which qualify their possessors for a ministry of the word, and those which prepare them to render services

and those which prepare them to reflect services of a practical nature.

(1) Apostleship (1 Cor 12 28 f; cf Eph 4 11).—
The name "apostle" is used in the NT in a narrower and a wider sense. It was the peculiar title and privilege of the Twelve (Mt 10 2; Lk 6 13; Acts 1 25 f), but was claimed by Paul on special grounds (Rom 1 1; 1 Cor 9 1, etc); it was probably appeaded to James the Lord's brother (1 Cor ably conceded to James the Lord's brother (1 Cor

15 7; Gal 1 19), and in a freer use of the term is applied to Barnabas (Acts 14 4.14; cf 1 Cor 9 5.6), Andronicus and Junias (Rom 16 7). From the *Didache* (xi.4 ff) we learn that the ministry of apostles 1. Gifts Connected with Minis- was continued in the church into the sub-apostolic age (see LITERATURE, SUB-APOSTOLIC). The special gift and try of the Word function of apostleship, taken in the

widest sense, was to proclaim the word of the gospel (Acts 6 2; 1 Cor 1 17, etc), and in particular to proclaim it to the world outside of the church, whether Jewish or gentile (Gal 2 7.8). See

APOSTLE.

(2) Prophecy (Rom 12 6; 1 Cor 12 10.28.29), under which may be included exhortation (Rom 12 8; cf 1 Cor 14 3). The gift of prophecy was bestowed at Pentecost upon the church as a whole (Acts 2 16 ff), but in particular measure upon certain individuals who were distinctively known as prophets. Only a few of the Christian prophets are directly referred to—Judas and Silas (Acts 15 32), the prophets at Antioch (13 1), Agabus and the prophets from Jerus (11 27 f), the four daughters of Philip the evangelist (ver 9). But 1 Cor shows that there were several of them in the Corinthian church; and probably they were to be found in every Christian community. Some of them moved about from church to church (Acts 11 27 f; 21 10); and in the Didache we find that even at the celebration of the Eucharist the itinerant prophet still takes precedence of the local ministry of bishops and deacons (Did., x.7).

It is evident that the functions of the prophet

must sometimes have crossed those of the apostle, and so we find Paul himself described as a prophet long after he had been called to the apostleship (Acts 13 1). And yet there was a fundamental distinction. While the apostle, as we have seen, was one "sent forth" to the unbelieving world, the prophet was a minister to the believing church (1 Cor 14 4.22). Ordinarily his message was one of "edification, and exhortation, and consolation" (1 Cor 14 3). Occasionally he was empowered to make an authoritative announcement of the Divine will in a particular case (Acts 13 1 ff). In rare instances we find him uttering a prediction of a future event

(Acts 11 28; 21 10 f).

(3) With prophecy must be associated the discernings of spirits (1 Cor 12 10; 14 29; 1 Thess 5 20 f; cf 1 Jn 4 1). The one was a gift for the speaker, the other for those who listened to his words. The prophet claimed to be the medium of Divine revelations (! Cor 14 30); and by the spiritual discernment of his hearers the truth of his claim was to be judged (ver 29). There were false prophets as well as genuine prophets, spirits of error as well as spirits of truth (1 Jn 4 1-6; cf 2 Thess 2 2; Did., xi). And while prophesyings were never to be despised, the utterances of the prophets were to be "proved" (1 Thess 5 20 f), and that in them which came from the Spirit of God spiritually judged (1 Cor 2 14), and so discriminated from anything that might be inspired by evil spirits. See DISCERNINGS OF SPIRITS.

(4) Teaching (Rom 12 7; 1 Cor 12 28 f).—As distinguished from the prophet, who had the gift of uttering fresh truths that came to him by way of vision and revelation, the teacher was one who explained and applied established Christian doctrine—the rudiments and first principles of the oracles of God (He 5 12). Possibly (5) the word of knowledge (gnösis) and (6) the word of wisdom (sophia) (1 Cor 12 8) are to be distinguished, the first as the utterance of a prophetic and ecstatic intuition, the second as the product of study and reflective thought; and so are to be

related respectively to the functions of the prophet

and the teacher. See Teacher, Teaching.
(7) Kinds of tongues (1 Cor 12 10.28.30). What Paul means by this he explains fully in ch 14. The gift was not a faculty of speaking in unknown foreign languages, for the tongues (glôssai) are differentiated from the "voices" or languages (phōnai) by which men of one nation are distinguished from those of another (vs 10.11). And when the apostle says that the speaker in an unknown tongue addressed himself to God and not to men (vs 2.14) and was not understood by those who heard him (ver 2), that he edified himself (ver 4) and yet lost the power of conscious thought while praying with the spirit (vs 14 f), it would appear that the "tongues" must have been of the nature of devout ejaculations and broken and disjointed words, uttered almost unconsciously under the stress of high ecstatic feeling.

(8) Parallel to this gift was that of the interpretation of tongues (1 Cor 12 10.30). If the gift If the gift of tongues had been a power of speaking unknown foreign languages, the interpretation of tongues would necessarily have meant the faculty of interpreting a language unknown to the interpreter; for tr from a familiar language could hardly be described as a charisma. But the principle of economy makes it improbable that the edification of the church was accomplished in this round-about way by means of a double miracle—a miracle of foreign speech followed by a miracle of interpretation. If, on the other hand, the gift of tongues was such as has been described, the gift of interpretation would consist in turning what seemed a meaningless utterance into words easy to be understood (ver 9). The interpretation might be given by the speaker in tongues himself (vs 5.13) after his mood of ecstasy was over, as he tr^d his exalted experiences and broken cries into plain intelligible language. Or, if he lacked the power of self-interpretation, the task might be undertaken by another possessed of this special gift (vs 27.28). The ability of a critic gifted with sympathy and insight to interpret the meaning of a picture or a piece of music, as the genius who produced it might be quite unable to do (e.g. Ruskin and Turner), will help us to understand how the ecstatic half-conscious utterances of one who had the gift of tongues might be put into clear and edifying form by another who had the gift of interpretation. See Tongues, GIFT of.

(1) Workings of miracles (1 Cor 12 10.28.29). The word used for miracles in this chapter (duna-meis, lit. "powers") is employed in 2. Gifts Acts (8 7.13; 19 11.12) so as to cover Connected those cases of exorcism and the cure with Prac- of disease which in Paul's list are placed

tical Service under the separate category of "gifts of healing." As distinguished from the ordinary healing gift, which might be possessed by persons not otherwise remarkable, the "powers" point to a higher faculty more properly to be described as miraculous, and bestowed only upon certain leading men in the church. In 2 Cor 12
12 Paul speaks of the "powers" he wrought in
Corinth as among "the signs of an apostle." In
He 2 4 the writer mentions the "manifold powers" of the apostolic circle as part of the Divine confirmation of their testimony. In Rom 15 18 ff Paul refers to his miraculous gifts as an instrument which Christ used for the furtherance of the gospel and the bringing of the Gentiles to obedience. The and the bringing of the Gentiles to obedience. The working of "powers," accordingly, was a gift which linked itself to the ministry of the word in respect of its bearing upon the truth of the gospel and the mission of the apostle to declare it. And yet, like the wider and lower gift of healing, it must be regarded primarily as a gift of practical beneficence,

and only secondarily as a means of confirming the truth and authenticating its messenger by way of a sign. The Book of Acts gives several examples of powers" that are different from ordinary healings. The raising of Dorcas (9 36 ff) and of Eutychus (20 9 ff) clearly belong to this higher class, and also, perhaps, such remarkable cures as those of the lifelong cripple at the Temple gate (3 1 ff) and Aeneas of Lydda (9 32 ff).
(2) Gifts of healings (1 Cor 12 9.28.30).—See Healing, Gifts of.

(3) Ruling (Rom 12 8), governments (1 Cor 12 28).—These were gifts of wise counsel and direction in the practical affairs of the church, such as by and by came to be formally intrusted to presbyters or bishops. When Paul wrote to the Corinthians, the ministry of office had not yet supplanted the ministry of inspiration, and Christian communities were guided and governed by those of their members whose wisdom in counsel proved that God through His Spirit had bestowed upon them the gift of ruling.

(4) Helps (1 Cor 12 28).—This has sometimes been understood to denote the lowliest Christian function of all in Paul's list, the function of those who have no pronounced gifts of their own and can only employ themselves in services of a subordinate kind. But the usage of the Gr word (antilempsis) in the papyri as well as the LXX points to succor rendered to the weak by the strong; and this is confirmed for the NT when the same Gr word in its verbal form (antilambánō) is used in Acts 20 35. when Paul exhorts the elders of the Ephesian church to follow his example in helping the weak. Thus, as the gift of government foreshadowed the official powers of the presbyter or bishop, the gift of helps appears to furnish the germ of the gracious office of the deacon—the "minister" par excellence, as the name diákonos denotes—which we find in existence at a later date in Philippi and Ephesus (Phil 1 1; 1 Tim 3 1-13), and which was probably created, on the analogy of the diakonia of the Seven in Jerus Acts 6 1 ff), as a ministry, in the first place, to the poor. See, further, Helps.

LITERATURE.—Hort, Christian Ecclesia, Lect X; Neander, Hist of the Planting of the Christian Church, I, 131 ff; Weizsäcker, Apostolic Age, II, 255-75; Lindsay, Church and Ministry, passim; EB, IV, art. "Spiritual Gifts"; ERE, III, art. "Charismata"; PRE, VI, art. "Geistesgaben."

J. C. Lambert SPIRITUAL HOUSE (οἶκος πνευματικός, οίλος pneumatikós, "house spiritual"): A body of Christians (a church), as pervaded by the Spirit and power of God (1 Pet 2 5); a term applicable to God's house: "house of prayer," the temple (Mt 21 13); to heaven: "my Father's house" (Jn 14 2); to the tabernacle: "Moses. . . faithful in all his house" (He 3 2); to saints: as "the household of God" (Eph 2 19), and "the temple of the Holy Spirit" (1 Cor 6 19); hence any "habitation of God in the spirit" (Eph 2 22) in which His glory dwells and His power and grace are manifest. J. C. LAMBERT dwells and His power and grace are manifest.

SPIRITUAL MAN (ὁ πνευματικός, ho pneumati-kós): In distinction from the natural, the unrenewed man (1 Cor 2 15); man in whom the Holy Spirit dwells and rules. This Divine indwelling insures mental illumination: "He that is spiritual discerneth [AVm] [or interpreteth] all things"; moral renewal: "a new creature" (2 Cor 5 17); "a new man" (Eph 4 24); spiritual enduement: "Ye shall receive power" (Acts 1 8). See Spiritual, 2; SPIRITUALITY; MAN, NEW.

SPIRITUAL MEAT (βρῶμα πνευματικόν, brôma pneumatikón, "food spiritual"): Nourishment for the soul, referring specifically (1 Cor 10 3) to the

manna by which the children of Israel were miraculously fed and which was made by Paul prophetically equivalent to the broken bread of the Christian sacrament symbolizing the body of Christ. Hence (1) Christ Himself as the food of the soul: "I am the bread of life" (Jn 6 48–58); (2) anything that nourishes the spiritual life: (a) obedience to the will of God: "My meat is to do the will of him that sent me" (Jn 4 32–34); (b) the truths of God in the Scriptures: "Word of righteousness" = "strong meat" (He 5 12–14); "word of God" (Mt 4 4); (c) the things of the Spirit (1 Cor 3 1–2; cf ch 2).

DWIGHT M. PRATT

SPIRITUAL ROCK (πνευματική πέτρα, pneumatikê pêtra): Having a spiritual significance: supernatural, manifesting the power of the Divine Spirit; allegorically applied to Christ as fulfilling the type in the smitten rock in the desert, from which water miraculously burst forth to nourish the Israelites. A tradition current among the Jews affirms that this rock followed the people in their journeyings and gave forth a living stream for their supply. Paul made this ever-flowing rock a beautiful and accurate symbol of Christ: "The rock was Christ" (1 Cor 10 4).

Without the characterizing word "spiritual," this figurative term, with the same significance, is common to the Scriptures; applied (1) to Jeh, God: "Rock of his salvation," "their rock is not as our Rock" (Dt 32 15.31); "Jeh is my rock" (Ps 18 2; cf Isa 26 4; 32 2; Is 2 2; 2 8 22;) (2) to the foundation-stone of Christian confession and testimony (Mt 16 18; cf Eph 2 20; I Cor 3 11; I Pet 2 6-8), and thus to Christ Himself; (3) in Christian hymnology to Jesus crucifled and spear-pierced: "Rock of ages, cleft for me."

SDIRITHAL SACRIFICE (Trequention)

SPIRITUAL SACRIFICE (TVENDATIVAL)

pneumatikat thusiai): A figure taken from the victim slain and offered on the altar, as e.g. the paschal lamb; thus signifying the complete and acceptable offering of the self-dedicated spirit. As the temple, priesthood and God Himself are spiritual, so is the sacrifice of the consecrated believer (1 Pet 2 5); cf "living sacrifice" (Rom 12 1); "sacrifice of praise" (He 13 15.16). Any self-dedicating act of the inner man; the devout, renewed, consecrated spirit, e.g. Christian benevolence (Phil 4 18); "to do good and to communicate" (He 13 16); "mercy" and "knowledge of God," instead of material and outward sacrifice (Hos 6 6). This is defined and beautifully illustrated in the classic verse on this theme, "The sacrifices of God are a broken spirit," etc (Ps 51 17).

SPIRITUAL SONGS (ψδαλ πνευματικαί, ōdai pneumatikai): ψδή, ōdē, Eng. "ode," is the general, and generic word for "song," of which "psalms and hymns" are specific varieties (Eph 5 19; Col 3 16). It includes all lyric poetry, but is limited by the word "spiritual" to songs inspired by the Holy Spirit and employed in the joyful and devotional expression of the spiritual life. While songs, like psalms and hymns, were used in public worship and praise, they were more intended for, and suited to, personal and private and social use; as, e.g. in family worship, at meals, in the agapai ("love-feasts"), in meetings for prayer and religious intercourse from house to house. The passages above cited give apostolic authority for the use of other than the OT pss in public praise, and rebuke the narrowness and unbelief that would forever limit the operations of the Holy Spirit and the hymnology of the church to the narrow compass of the Davidic era and the Davidic school of poetry and song.

The "new song" of Rev 5 9; 14 3, and "the song of Moses and of the Lamb" (15 3), indicate that spiritual songs are to be perpetuated in the eternal melodies of the redeemed.

DWIGHT M. PRATT

SPIRITUAL THINGS (τὰ πνευματικά, tá pneumatikā): Things proceeding from the Holy Spirit and pertaining to man's spiritual life, worship, service. Contrasted in 1 Cor 9 11 and in Rom 15 27 with τὰ σαρκικά, tá sarkiká, things fleshly, physical, which have to do with man's sensuous, corporeal nature, such as food, raiment, money. By "spiritual things" Paul signifies the benefits accompanying salvation, the gifts of the Spirit—faith, hope, love, justification, sanctification, peace—all the fruits and blessings and aids of the regenerate life.

Ecclesiastically: Things pertaining to spiritual office, the ministry of the Word, or the service of the sanctuary.

DWIGHT M. PRATT

SPIRITUALITY, spir-it-ti-al'i-ti: The state of being spiritual in the higher use of the word. It is purely a religious term and signifies the state of a soul vitalized by the Divine Spirit and made alive unto God. It covers the entire range of man's faculties: intellect, feeling, will—all the attributes of personality.

of personality.

The intellectual can be divorced from the spiritual, but the spiritual can never be divorced from the intellectual. If a man is spiritual,

intellectual. If a man is spiritual,

1. Intellect his intellect is touched with the
Divine life and comes under the power
of the Divine baptism. One word describes this
mental quickening and illumination—"vision."
"The pure in heart shall see God." Paul affirms
(1 Cor 2 12.13) that the Spirit of God operates
directly on the mental faculties, adjusting reason
and intellect to the Divine reason, and enabling
man to think God's thoughts and discern His
purposes, nature and will. The common use of
the word "spirituality" limits it mistakenly to
religious experience, narrowly interpreted, but as
spirituality brings the intellect into harmony with
the Divine reason in every realm of mental action,
it may be as manifest in science, art, philosophy,
commerce and law as in religion.

The feelings and emotions are fertile soil for the spiritual life. Love is the beginning and end of

true religion. Spirituality in the realm

2. Affections
of the affections is that state of soul in which the heart with its holiest love is centered on God as revealed in Christ. The specific and supreme work of the Holy Spirit is to shed abroad God's love in the heart (Rom 5 5). Spirituality sets the affections on things above and brings the entire emotional nature under the regulating and redeeming sway of

the Holy Spirit.

A spiritually-minded man is one whose will is set on God as well as his intellect and affections.

In every fiber of his moral being, and 3. Will in all the activities of his soul, he is under the guidance and dominion of the Holy Spirit. The affections present motives, the intellect estimates their worthiness, the will decides upon the course of action. When this trinity of mental operation—necessary to normal manhood—is under the sway of the Divine Spirit, man possesses spirituality, a state in which all the faculties of the soul are voluntarily and joyfully under the dominion and guidance of Christ's indwelling Spirit. When intellect, heart and will focus their energies reverently and affectionately upon Him, love—a passionate, ever-present, everdominant love—is the result. This is the triune sphere of the Holy Spirit's indwelling and activity, and the character of such a God-centered and Spirit-filled life is described by the exalted word "spirituality. DWIGHT M. PRATT

SPIRITUALLY, spir'it-ū-al-i (πνευματικῶς, pneumatikôs): As in 1 Cor 2 14, "spiritually judged,"

i.e. by means of the spirit renewed and enlightened by the Spirit of God; having the mind of the Spirit is to be spiritually-minded (cf AV and RV Rom 8 6)

Allegorically used also (Rev 11 8) to characterize, in a bad sense, the qualities of the spiritual (i.e. the spirit's) life: "which spiritually is called Sodom." See Spiritual.

SPIT, spit, SPITTLE, spit"l (פְּרֵי, yārak, פְרֹי, rōk; [ἐμ]πτύω, [em]ptūō): Spitting in a person's face indicated gross contempt (Nu 12 14; Dt 25 9; Job 30 10; Isa 50 6; Mt 26 67; 27 30, etc); when performed by an unclean person it produced defilement (Lev 15 8) which necessitated washing the clothes and a bath. When David allowed his spittle (פּרַי, rī̄r) to run down over his beard, it was his purpose to behave like a lunatic (1 S 21 13). "Till I swallow down my spittle" (Job 7 19) has the same import as the Eng. "in the twinkling of an eye" (1 Cor 15 52). Spittle was used by Our Lord in restoring sight and speech (Mk 7 33; Jn 9 6) as signifying His will to cure. It was a widespread belief that spittle, accompanied with magical formulae, possessed medicinal qualities. "Oil" possessed a similar virtue (Mk 6 13; Jas 5 14).

T. Lewis

SPOIL, spoil. See BOOTY; WAR, 8.

SPOILER, spoil'er (תַּשִׁרֵּח, ha-shōdhēdh, "the spoiler"): A favorite expression of the prophet Jeremiah by which he describes generally the enemies that invade and devastate a country—with special reference to enemies that invade Judah (Jer 12 12; 15 8); to enemies who devastate Moab (48 8.18); to enemies from the N. who are to assail Babylon (51 48), and in one case (6 26) to Nebuchadrezzar making an irresistible advance upon Jerus. ARV uniformly renders "destroyer."

SPOKE, spōk (1 K 7 33). See Sea, Molten.

SPONGE, spunj (σπόγγος, spóggos): The word "sponge," AV "spunge," occurs only in the accounts of Our Lord's crucifixion in Mt 27 48; Mk 15 36; Jn 19 29. Sponges have been known from the earliest periods. They are mentioned by Homer, Aeschylus, Aristophanes and other ancient writers. The sponge fisheries of the Eastern Mediterranean are still among the most important in the world. Sponges are animals of a very simple organization, fixed to rocks or other objects in the sea or in fresh water. The marketable sponge consists of a mass of soft interlacing fibers which constituted the skeleton of the living animal. The sponge fishers of the Levant dive from boats, with or without diving apparatus, and tear the sponges from the rocks with their hands. The sponges are allowed to die and rot in the air and are then thoroughly washed until nothing but the skeleton remains. Sponges which have calcareous or silicious skeletons are unfit for use.

Alfred

SPOON, spoon (Φ), kaph; LXX θυτσκη, thuiskē, except in Jer 52 18, where it is κρεάγρα, kreágra, lit. "fork"): A hollow vessel, a censer; a small vessel in which incense was to be burnt, as is seen from the account given in Nu 7 of the oblations of the princes of the tribes after the setting-up of the tabernacle. Beginning with ver 14 of this chapter, we meet at every succeeding 6th verse the statement, "one golden spoon of ten shekels, full of incense," till at ver 86 the summary statement is made. "the twelve golden spoons, full of incense."

SPORTS, sports. See Games.

SPOT, spot, SPOTTED, spot'ed (DMM, mūm; crīlos, spilos): The Heb word is used to denote a blemish which mars the perfection of the face, as in Cant 4 7; Job 11 15. It is trd "blemish" in Lev 24 19 f, where it means an injury the result of violence, and is rendered "blot" in Prov 9 7, where it signifies "shame" or "disgrace." The "spotted" cattle of Gen 30 32–39 are animals of variegated color (N) tālā'; of Ezk 16 16, "decked with divers colors"; Josh 9 5, "patched"). For hābharburāh in Jer 13 23, see Leopard. Spilos is used in the figurative sense of a stain of sin in 2 Pet 3 14, and similarly along with rhutis ("a wrinkle") in Eph 5 27. The "garment spotted [vb. spilosmai] by the flesh" of Jude ver 23 is, as Calvin has paraphrased it, anything that in any way savors of sin or temptation. The "spots" of Jude ver 12 AV are spilādes, "hidden [sunken] rocks" which are betrayed by the surf beating over them (as in Homer Od. iii. 298), and are so rendered in RV. "Spot" in Lev 13 is referred to under Freckled Spot; Leprosy; Tetter.

"Without spot" in Nu 19 2, etc, is tāmīm, a usual word for "perfect" (so RVm); āspilos (the negative form of spilos) occurs in 1 Tim 6 14; 1 Pet 1 19; 2 Pet 3 14, with Jas 1 27 ("unspotted"). For AV He 9 14 see Blemish.

Alex. Macalister

SPOUSE, spouz (), kallāh, "bride," "daughter-in-law"): RV gives "bride" for AV "spouse" in Cant 4 8 ff, and "brides" for "spouses" in Hos 4 13 f (m "daughters-in-law"). See ESPOUSAL; MARRIAGE; RELATIONSHIPS, FAMILY.

SPREAD, spred, SPREADING, spred'ing: Alone, or in phrases like "spread abroad," "spread forth," etc, "spread' represents very many Heb terms, principally "", pāras; in the NT the act of spreading is στράνννμ, strönnumi, where in Mt 21 8b AV has "strawed" (q.v.); compound in Lk 19 36. For "spread abroad" in Mk 1 28; 1 Thess 1 8 (exérchomai), RV has "went out" and "gone forth"; conversely, RV has "spread abroad" for AV "break forth" (Isa 54 3) and "published" (diaphērō, Acts 13 49), and for "commonly reported" (diaphēmízō, Mt 28 15).

SPRING. See FOUNTAIN; WELL.

SPRINKLE, sprin'k'l, SPRINKLING, sprin'kling (Γ), zārak, τι, nāzāh; ἡαντίζειν, rhantizein): The first word means "to toss" or "scatter abundantly," e.g. in handfuls, as dust on the head (Job 2 12) or blood from a bowl (Ex 9 8). The other Heb word is used of sprinkling with the finger (Lev 14 7; 16 14, etc). In the account of Jezebel's death the word is used in its literal meaning of "spurt" (2 K 9 33).

Sprinkling (blood, water, oil) formed an important—if not the essential—part of the act of sacrifice. A consideration of the chief passages in the OT will reveal the prominence and the significance of sprinkling as a feature of the sacrificial act. The significance of the sprinkling of blood is seen in the account of the establishment of the covenant between Jeh and Israel (Ex 24 6–8). Half the blood was sprinkled on the altar as representing the Deity, while the remainder was put into a basin and then sprinkled on the people. This ceremony is a survival in a modified form of the communal meal in which the tribal god and his worshippers sat together and participated in the same food, and in this way came to possess the same life. The two-fold sprinkling of blood resulted in the establishment

of an inviolable bond (Nu 18 17; 2 K 16 15). In the account of the consecration of Aaron and his sons (Ex 29 16.20.21) the blood of the ram of the burnt offering was sprinkled on the altar, while the blood of the ram of consecration was put on the altar and sprinkled on Aaron and his sons and on their garments. Water of purifying was sprinkled on the Levites at their ordination (Nu 8 7). Lev gives detailed information in regard to sacrificial sprinkling. In the case of burnt offering the blood was sprinkled round about upon the altar (Lev 1 5.11). The same practice obtained in the case of peace offerings, whether ox, lamb or goat (Lev 3 2.8.13). When a sin offering for sins inadvertently committed was made, the priest dipped his fingers in the blood and sprinkled it seven times before Jeh, before the veil of the Holy Place (Lev 4 6). Elsewhere (Lev 16 11.15) we read that Aaron took the blood of the sin offering and sprinkled it with his finger upon the mercy-seat, eastward, 7 t (see also Nu 19 4). Sprinkling constituted part of the process of purification. But it is obvious that the sprinkling, even in this case, was a religious act, and not part of the actual physical cleaning. A simple kind of sprinkler was made by fastening a bunch of hyssop to a cedar rod by a piece of scarlet thread or wool and then the patient was besprinkled 7 t (Lev 14 7), while oil was sprinkled with the finger, also 7 t, before Jeh (Lev 14 16; see also Ex 12 22; Nu 19 18; Ps 51 7). The house in which the leper lived was disinfected in the same thorough manner (Lev 16 51).

In the case of persons who had contracted uncleanness through contact with a corpse, sprinkling with the "water of separation" was part of the process of cleansing. The water of separation consisted of the ashes of a red heifer (slain for the purpose) mixed with running water (Nu 19). A sprinkler was used as in the case of the leper (19 18). The final sprinkling—on the 7th day—was followed by a bath (ver 19). The "tent" in which the corpse lay, together with all the contents, were thoroughly disinfected (see Heffer, Red).

According to Ex (9 8.10) the plague of "boils and blains" was caused through the sprinkling of ashes ("soot" RVm) in the air toward heaven, which settled on man and beast and produced the eruption. The narrative gives no clue in reference to the connection between the ashes and the eruption, but the religious character of the act is obvious. By means of it, the assistance of the Deity was invoked. According to primitive thought, there was no necessary connection between the religious act and the consummation devoutly wished for. The purpose of the religious observance was to influence, or bring pressure to bear upon, the Deity so that He might exert Himself on behalf of the worshipper. It is evident that sprinkling as part of the act of worship was believed to be religiously effectual. It was not symbolical nor morally significant. It was a religious act. It is not denied that in some passages sprinkling is symbolical. According to Ezk (36 25) the restored community will experience moral and spiritual renewal. There will be a "new heart" and a "new spirit." The sprinkling with clean water is the outward symbol of the inward lustration. In Isa 63 3 the sacrificial allusion is obvious. The conqueror who strides triumphantly from Bozrah is "besprinkled" with the life-blood (or juice) of his victims. In Isa 52 15 "sprinkle" is a doubtful rendering. There is no apparent connection between bodily disfigurement and national purification. RVm renders "startle" (lit. "cause to spring"). The exalted dignity of the "martyr" will excite the wonder of kings and

In 1 Pet 1 2, "sprinkling of the blood of Jesus Christ" is used figuratively of its cleansing efficacy (cf He 9 13.14; 10 22). T. Lewis

SPURIOUS, spū'ri-us, ACTS, EPISTLES, GOS-PELS. See Apocryphal ACTS; Apocryphal EPISTLES; APOCRYPHAL GOSPELS.

SPY, spī. See Espy.

STACHYS, stā'kis (Στάχυς, Stáchus): The name of a Rom Christian to whom Paul sent greetings. The name is Gr and uncommon; it has been found in inscriptions connected with the imperial household. Paul designates him "my beloved" (Rom 16 9).

STACK, stak: Ex 22 6 AV, RV "shocks" (of grain).

STACTE, stak'tē (Τζ), nāṭāph, "drops" [Job 36 27]; στακτή, stak'tē, meaning "oozing out in drops"): One of the ingredients of the holy ointment (Ex 30 34; Ecclus 24 15, m "opobalsamum," AV "storax"). The marginal reading is a concession to Jewish tradition, but see Spice, (1). Dioscorides describes two kinds of stacte, one of pure myrrh and one of storax and a fat mixed. See Myrrh. This nāṭāph must have been either myrrh "in drops," as it is collected, or some other fragrant gum, similarly collected, such, for example, as gum tragacanth.

STAFF, staf: Many Heb terms are represented by this word. The "staves" of the ark translate the word 72, badh, lit. "a part," hence branch, bar, etc (Ex **25** 13.14.15.27.28, etc). Other words, as matteh, makkēl, shēbhet, used of the staff in the hand, the shepherd's staff, figuratively, "staff of bread" (matteh, Ezk **4** 16; **5** 16; **14** 13), as indispensable for support of life, are dealt with under Rod (q.v.). The NT word is passed, rhábdos (Mt **10** 10 | Lk **9** 3; He **11** 21). See also SCEPTRE.

STAIR, stâr. See House.

STAKE, stāk: Isa 33 20; 54 2 for Thi, yāthēdh, "tent-pin," or, perhaps, "tent-pole" (Ex 27 19; Jgs 4 21, etc). AV Sir 43 19, "The hoar frost, . . . being congealed, lieth on the top of sharp stakes," is of course meaningless. RV "When it is congealed, it is as points of thorns" renders the Gr very exactly, but the Heb would indicate for the original meaning "forms frost-flowers of sapphire."

STALK, stôk: In Gen 41 5.22 is for אָבּה, "cane"; in Josh 2 6 for אָבָּה, 'ēç, "wood." In Hos 8 7, RVm has "stalk" for אָבָּה, kāmāh, "that which stands." RV's "standing grain" is due to this meaning of kāmāh in Ex 22 6, etc, but this tr spoils the figure. The meaning is, "They sow the wind, a worthless sowing, for such seed produces no stalk, it yields no grain."

STALL, stôl ([1] בְּלֵבֶם, marbēk, lit., "a place for tying up" [Am 6 4; Mal 4 2], [2] אַרְּלְּ, 'ābhaṣ, "to give fodder" [Prov 15 17], [3] אַרְלָּהְ, 'urvāh, "to pluck and feed" [1 K 4 26; 2 Ch 9 25; 32 28], [4] אַרָּן, repheth, "a resting place" [Hab 3 17]; [5] φάτνη, phátnē, "a manger" or "crib" [Lk 13 15; cf אַרֵּלַה, 'ābhūṣ, trd "crib' in Isa 1 3; Prov 14 4]): During the season when cattle are not being used they are allowed to roam in the fields. Otherwise they are tied in rooms in the winter time, or under shelters made of green boughs in the summer, and all their food brought to them. Horses and cattle alike are haltered and the chains fastened through holes made in stones projecting from the walls. No stanchions and no separating partitions between

animals are used. The horses are usually hobbled JAMES A. PATCH

STAMMERER, stam'er-er: Isa 32 4, עלג 'illēgh, "inarticulate speaking." In Isa 28 11; 33 19, l'g (pointing uncertain) is rendered "strange" by RV, with "stammering" in AV, RVm. Probably the word means both, as primitive people always think that their own language alone is clearly pronounced. Or the word may mean "mocking."

STANDARD-BEARER, stand'ard-bâr'er. See WAR, 5; BANNER.

STANDARDS, stand'ardz. See WAR, 5; BAN-NER; ASTRONOMY, II, 7.

STANDING, stand'ing. See ATTITUDES.

STAR, stär, STARS, stärz. See Astronomy,

STARGAZERS, stär'gāz-ērz. See Astrology, 5.

STAR IN THE EAST. See STAR OF THE MAGI:

STAR OF BETHLEHEM. See STAR OF THE MAGI.

STAR OF THE MAGI:

The Magi
Herod's Enquiry
Two Facts concerning the Star
The Wisdom of the Magi Not Astrological
The Prophecy of Balaam
The Star Not a Conjunction of Planets
The Star Not Nova Cassiopeiae
The Legend of the Well
Lesson of the Narrative

The birth of Our Lord was announced in a supernatural manner not only to Jews by the angelic message to the shepherds, but also to

1. The Gentiles, for "Wise-men from the Magi east came to Jerusalem, saying, Where is he that is born King of the Jews?

for we saw his star in the east, and are come to worship him" (Mt 2 1.2). The word which has been rendered "wise men" in AV and ERV (ARV "Wise-men") is "Magi." These, according to Herodotus, were originally a tribe of the Medes (Herodotus i.101) and from their supposed skill in divination the term was applied to the learned and priestly caste among the followers of Zoroaster; they were thus in principle worshippers of one only God, and rejecters of polytheism and idolatry. The simple creed and high morality, which Zoroastrianism in its purest form professed, were well adapted to prepare its faithful disciples to receive a further revelation, and we may reasonably believe that the wise men who had been thus guided to worship the new-born king of the Jews had been faithful to the light afforded to them, for "in every nation he that feareth him [God], and worketh righteousness, is acceptable to him" (Acts 10 35). See MAGI.

The gospel tells us that the arrival of the Magi at Jerus threw Herod the king and all the city into great excitement, and Herod at once called a council of all the chief priests 2. Herod's

and scribes of the people that he might Enquiry learn from them where the Messiah should be born. In reply they quoted to him the prophecy of Micah which had indicated Bethlehem as the destined site. "Then Herod privily called the Wise-men, and learned of them exactly what time the star appeared. And he sent them to Bethlehem,

and said. Go and search out exactly concerning the young child; and when ye have found him, bring me word, that I also may come and worship him. And they, having heard the king, went their way; and lo, the star, which they saw in the east, went before them, till it came and stood over where the young child was. And when they saw the star, they rejoiced with exceeding great joy" (Mt 2 7-10). So much, and no more, are we told of the star of the Magi, and the story is as significant in its omissions as in that which it tells us.

What sort of a star it was that led the wise men; how they learned from it that the King of the Jews

3. Two

was born; how it went before them; how it stood over where the young Facts con-Cerning the indeed told but two facts concerning it: first, that its appearance in some way or other did inform the wise men,

not of the birth of a king of the Jews, but of the King of the Jews for whose coming, not Israel only, but more or less consciously the whole civilized world was waiting; next, that, when they had come to Judaea in consequence of this information, the star pointed out to them the actual spot where the new-born King was to be found. It went before them till it came and stood over where the young Child was. It may also be inferred from Mt 2 10 that in some way or other the wise men had for a time lost sight of the star, so that the two facts mentioned refer to two separate appearances. The first appearance induced the Magi to leave the East and set out for Judaea; the second pointed out to them the place at Bethlehem where the object of their search was to be found. Nothing is told us respecting the star except its work as a guide.

There can be no doubt that the Magi took their journey in obedience to direct revelation from God, and since we are told that God warned them in a dream not to return to Herod, so that they departed to their own country another way, it is but reasonable to suppose that their outward journey had been

directed in a similar manner.

directed in a similar manner.

It has been conjectured that as the Magians were credited with a great skill in astrology they may have been able to forecast the birth of Our Lord by the rules of their art. But this conjecture must be peremptorily rejected. It is not astrological by the rules of their art. But this conjecture must be peremptorily rejected. It is not astrological a reality to which it has no claim, for it is nonceivable that the planetary configurations can really foretell the birth of princes. Even if it were admitted that such could be taken as indicating the One Birth for which the world was waiting, unless some direct and explicit revelation from God had been received to that effect. For that Birth was necessarlly unique, and science can deal only with repeated events. No astronomical research is now, or was at any time, competent in itself to supply the indication needed; it was not in virtue of any natural learning that the wise men understood the meaning of the star. And if a mere astronomical research was helpless to supply any such power of prediction, still more emphatically must the claim of "occult knowledge" be disallowed. So far as occult knowledge has had any basis in fact at all, it has been simply a euphemistic way of describing the frauds, impostures and crimes by which debased heathen priesthoods and "medicine men" have imposed upon the gross superstition of their followers. The very suggestion that, by means like these, God's purpose would be made known shows that those who suggest it have not entirely shaken off the influence of heathenism.

The suggestion has often been made that the prophecy of Balaam, "There shall come forth a

5. The Prophecy of Balaam

star out of Jacob, and a sceptre shall rise out of Israel" (Nu 24 17), may have been preserved in the East and have furnished the clue upon which the Magi acted. It is a pleasing

thought that these devout Gentiles had thus preserved and meditated upon the prophecy given through one who may well have been of an allied order to themselves; but that prophecy can surely not have been sufficient in itself, and some much more direct intimation must have been vouchsafed to them; though the prophecy may have aided their faith and have dictated the form in which they announced their mission to King Herod and the Jews.

which they announced their mission to King Herod and the Jews.

We are not told how the Magi learned the meaning of the star, neither are we told what kind of a star it was. Some three centuries ago the ingenious and devout Kepler supposed that he could identify the star with a conjunction of the planets Jupiter and Saturn in the constellation Pisces, the two planets being so close Planets as to seem a single star. This conjunction took place in the month of May, 7 BC, not very long before the birth of Our Lord is supposed to have taken place. But the late Professor Pritchard has shown (Nature and Revelation, 243-55). first, that a similar and closer conjunction occurred 59 years earlier, and should therefore have brought a Magian deputation to Judaea then. Next, that the two planets never approached each other nearer than twice the diameter of the moon, so that they would have appeared, not as one star, but as two, and thirdly, if the planets had seemed to stand over Bethlehem as the wise men left Jerus, they would assuredly not have appeared to do so when they arrived at the little city. Ingenious as the suggestion was, it may be dismissed as unworthy of serious consideration.

Another suggestion has received at times a very wide popularity. In the year 1572 a wonderful new star appeared in the constellation Cassiopeiae.

7. Not Nova At its brightest it outshone Venus and Cassiopeiae it gradually declined in splendor it was not lost to sight until after 16 months. There have been other instances of outbursts of shortlived bright stars, and in the annals of the years 1265 and 952 some brief notices have been found which may have referred to objects of this class, but more probably described comets. The guess was then hazarded that these three events might all refer to the same object; that the star in Cassiopeia might be a "variable" star, bursting into brilliancy about every 350 years or so; that it was the star that announced the birth of Our Lord, and that it would reappear about the ead of the 19th cent. t

The statement that the star "went before" the Magi gives the impression that it was some supernatural light like the $sh^ekh\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}h$, "glory," resting upon the tabernacle, or the pillar of fire which led the children of Israel through the wilderness. But this view raises the questions as to the form in which it first appeared to the wise men, when they were still in the East, and how they came to call it a star, when they must have recognized how un-starlike it was. On the other hand, if what they saw when in the East was really a star, it seems most difficult to understand how it can have appeared to go before them and to stand over the place where the young Child lay.

Yet there is a legend still current in Pal which may possibly explain how an actual star may have

fulfilled this part, and there is a well at Bethlehem that is still shown to 8. The pilgrims as the means whereby the wise men "saw the star" the second Legend of the Well time. It is said that when they had

reached Bethlehem, apparently nearly at mid-day, one of them went to the well of the inn in order to draw water. Looking down into the well he saw the star reflected from the surface of the water and knew that it must be directly overhead. Its re-observation under such unusual circumstances would be a sufficient assurance to the Magi that they had ING. See Astronomy, I, 8; I, 7; I, 9.

reached the right place, and inquiry in the inn would soon inform them of the visit of the shepherds, and of the angelic message which had told them where to find the babe 'born in the city of David, the Saviour, which is Christ the Lord.

If we may accept this legend we may take the star as having been what astronomers know as a "new" or "temporary" star, like that of 1572. When the Magi first saw it, and in consequence set out upon their journey, it may have been an evening star and thus, being seen only in the west shortly after sunset, it would appear, evening after evening, to point them their way to Judaea. As they journeyed thither it probably faded as temporary stars in general quickly do. At the same time it would have drawn nearer and nearer to the sun, until it was lost in its rays by the time they reached Jerus, when they would seem to have lost sight of it altogether. Having thus lost it, they would naturally not expect to see it again until it had drawn away from the sun on the other side, and been detected as a morning star in the east before sunrise; they would not expect to discover it in the daytime.

In the ordinary way, the planet Venus is, after the two "great lights," the brightest object in the heavens, but temporary stars are on record that have even exceeded Venus in brightness. The difficulty of seeing the planet Venus in full sunshine does not lie in her want of brightness, but in picking up and holding steadily so minute a point of light in the broad expanse of the gleaming sky. This difficulty, which would be even greater in the case of a star, would be lessened by looking down the well, as the shaft would narrow the field of view down to a small area, and would direct the observer's gaze straight to the star. There may also have been, at the very time of observation, a temporary revival of the brightness of the star as has been recorded in the case of one or two objects of the same class. The legend, whether well founded or not, seems to have some astronomical verisimilitude, and at any rate suggests a mode in which an actual star could have seemed to stand over the place where the young Child lay. It would also explain what seems to have been implied in the narrative, how it happened that the Magi alone, and not the Jews in general, perceived the star at its second appearance.

Yet it seems safer to conclude that the narrative has been purposely left—astronomically—too incomplete for any astronomical con-

clusion to be drawn from it. One 9. Lesson of the Nar- verse more, and that a short one, could rative have answered all our inquiries, could have told us whether the star was a conjunction of the planets, a comet, or a temporary star; or whether it was a supernatural light like the pillar of fire in the wilderness. But that verse has not been given. The score of additional words which could have cleared up the matter have been withheld, and there can be no doubt as to the reason. The star, whatever its physical nature, was of no importance except as a guide to the birthplace of the infant Jesus. The reticence of the gospel narrative on all points, except those directly relating to Our Lord Himself, enforces the truth that the Scriptures were not written to instruct us in astronomy, or in any of the physical sciences, but that we

omy, or in any of the physical bound of the STAR OF WORMWOOD. See Wormwood.

STARS, COURSES OF. See ASTRONOMY, I, 1.

STARS, FALLING; MORNING; WANDER-

STARS, SEVEN. See ASTRONOMY.

STATELY, stāt'li (בְּרְדָּה, kebhūddāh, "weight," "honor," "wealth"): "And sit upon a stately [magnificent] bed" (Ezk 23 41).

STATER, stā/tēr (στατήρ, statēr): Used only once, Mt 17 27, where it is rendered by "piece of money" in AV and "shekel" in RV. It was originally a standard Gr weight equal to two drachmas, but later it was used to designate the tetradrachma, and this is probably the coin referred to in the above passage. See Money.

STATURE, stat'ūr (בּוֹדָם, madh, מֹדָה, middāh, "measure" [Nu 13 32, etc], mual, vi, madah, "standing up" [1 S 16 7, etc]; hluka, hēlikia, "greatness"): This last word means "height of the body," "stature," in Lk 2 52; 19 3; Eph 4 13, but it can mean "length of life" equally well and has this force in Jn 9 21.23; He 11 11. And this meaning, not "stature" (as in AV), is fixed for Mt 6 27 [Lk 12 25 for to add some 18 inches (see Curry)] Lk 12 25, for to add some 18 inches (see Cubit) to one's "stature" would be a grotesque feat, while it is the smallness of the act that is emphasized. Hence the tr "able to extend his long path of life by a single cubit" (RV "measure of life"). Cf also "great of stature," Bar 3_26 (εὐμεγέθης, eumegéthēs). BURTON SCOTT EASTON

STAVES, stāvz (בְּדִּלֹם, baddīm): Ten or eleven Heb words are used in the OT to describe various staffs, bars, and wooden rods used by the Hebrews (cf Staff; Rod; Scepter). One word only is used to describe the staves or wooden poles used for carrying the holy furniture of the tabernacle from place to place. That word is badh (pl. baddīm), which occurs 28 t in Ex and Nu and 5 t in K and Ch (cf also Job 17 16; Hos 11 6). The only passage in which these staves are mentioned by another name is 1 Ch 15 15, where the staves used for carrying the ark from its captivity into Jerus are called motah. The reason for this probably is that the original baddim had been lost during the long absence of the sacred chest from its home in the tabernacle.

In the wilderness wanderings, arrangements were made that four items of the holy furniture of the portable tabernacle should be carried on the shoulders of Levites, suspended on these staves. These were the golden altar of incense, the golden table for shewbread, the brazen altar of sacrifice. and the ark of the covenant (Ex 35 12-16).

In the case of the large altar of sacrifice, which was in reality a hollow wooden chest covered with brass (bronze) plates (see Altar), four rings were attached to the brass grating which rose midway in the chest, and through these rings the staves passed. The staves were of acacia wood and were covered with brass plating. In the case of the three golden utensils of the sanctuary, the staves were of acacia wood, covered with gold plates.

The last mention of any of these staves is in 1 K 8 7-9, where it is stated of the ark, in the holy of holies in Solomon's Temple, that the ends of its staves were seen by anyone standing in the adjoining holy place, before (i.e. east of) the oracle. Priests only might view them there, the curtain being withdrawn. The writer of 1 K 8 adds that the staves were thus visible when he wrote, an item of evidence worthy of note as to the date of the document.

W. SHAW CALDECOTT STAY, stā: Is derived from two distinct forms. From one derivation it has the meaning "to stand" and so "to continue in one place" (Gen 8 10; Lev 13 23.28, etc), "to forbear to act" (Ruth 1 13), "to rest," "to be trustful" (AV, ERV Isa 10 20; see below). Transitively it means "to cause to stay," "to hinder" (Dnl 4 35, etc), and "stay" as a noun means "cessation of progress" (Lev 13 5.37), "sojourn." From the second derivation the vb. means "to support" (Ex 17 12; 1 K 22 35; Cant 2 5), while the noun means "a support" (1 K 10 19; Isa 3 1, etc). ARV has judged obsolete "stay on" in the sense "trust in," and for "stay" has substituted "lean" in Isa 10 20 and "rely" in 30 12; 31 1; 50 10, although "stay themselves upon" (="support themselves by") has been kept in 48 2. Otherwise RV has made few alterations. But such as have been made ("tarry ye" for "stay yourselves" in Isa 29 9 and ARV "restrain" for "stay" in Job 37 4) could have been carried farther with advantage.

Burton Scott Easton see below). Transitively it means "to cause to

BURTON SCOTT EASTON STEAD, sted, STEADS, stedz (תְּחָהַ, taḥath, "[same] place"; AS stede, "place"): Occurs only in 1 Ch 5 22, "They dwelt in their stead [place] until the captivity."

STEALING, stē'ling. See CRIMES; PUNISH-

STEDFASTNESS, sted'fast-nes: (1) στερέωμα, sterέδmα, "firmness": "The stedfastness of your faith in Christ" (Col 2 5). Some take this figuratively, in a military sense, of a "solid front" (see Thayer, Gr-Eng. Lex of NT, s.v.). (2) στεριγμός, sterigmós, "stability" (2 Pet 3 17; of 1 Cor 15 58).

STEEL, stēl: RV substitutes "brass" for "steel" in 2 S 22 35; Job 20 24; Ps 18 34; Jer 15 12, and "steel" for "torches" in Nah 2 3. See Brass.

STEPHANAS, stef'a-nas (Στεφανᾶs, Stephanás): The name occurs only in 1 Cor 1 16; 16 15–18. Stephanas was a Christian of Corinth; his household is mentioned in 1 Cor 16 15 as the first family won to Christ in Achaia, and in 1 Cor 1 16 as among the few personally baptized by Paul at Corinth. The "house of Stephanas," apparently of independent means, had "set themselves to minister unto the saints" (1 Cor 16 15), i.e. to do Christer unto the saints. tian service. Possibly this service consisted in putting their house at the disposal of the Christians at Corinth for worshipping, or in rendering especial assistance in establishing intercommunication between the Corinthian church and the apostle, or the other churches. An instance of such service was the commission of S. at Ephesus referred to in 1 Cor 16 17.18. At the occasion of some disorders in the Corinthian church S., with Fortunatus and Achaicus in the deputation, brought a letter of the Corinthians to Paul. Our present 1 Cor is the reply to this letter, and thus, in all probability, the three men mentioned above were the bearers of this ep. With fine courtesy Paul expresses his appreciation for this service in 1 Cor 16 18, referring to it as a cherished opportunity of fellowship with his beloved Corinthians through these representatives. It is in consideration of such Christian service that Paul enjoins upon the Corinthians to show the house of S. that respect and deference due to Christian leaders by willingly submitting to their direction.

S. D. Press

STEPHEN, stē'v'n (Στέφανος, Stéphanos, "crown" [Acts **6** 5—**8** 12]):

- 1. His Personal Antecedents
 2. His Character and Activity
 3. His Teaching
 4. His Arraignment before the Sanhedrin
 5. His Defence before the Sanhedrin
 (1) Personal Defence
 (2) Defence of His Teaching
 6. Martyrdom of Stephen
 LITERATURE

Known best as the proto-martyr of the Christian church, introducing the heroic period of persecutions. He deserves as well to be called the first great apologist for Christianity, since it was this that brought on his death as a martyr (c 36 or 37 AD).

As his name and his relations in the church at Jerus seem to imply (Acts 6 3 ff), he was a Hellenist, i.e. a Greek-speaking Jew. Thus he

1. Personal belonged to that class of Jews usually Antecedents residing outside of Pal who, though distinguished from the orthodox Palestinian Jew by a broader outlook on life due to a more liberal education, were Jews none the less, the original Jewish element predominating in their character, and who might be true Israelites indeed, as Stephen was. Of his conversion to Christianity we know nothing, though there is a tradition that he was among the Seventy. As Stephen by his life and work marks a period of transition in the development of the early Christian church, so his name is connected with an important new departure within the organization of the church itself, viz. the institution of the office of the Seven (Acts 6 1 ff), who were intrusted with the administration of the work of relief in the church at Jerus—the foundation of the diaconate (Iren., Haer., i.26; Cyprian, Epist., iii.3). Of the seven men, all Hellenists, elected to

this office at the occasion of a grievance of the Hellenistic Christians in the Jerus church against the Heb Christians, to the effect that in the distribution of alms their widows were being discriminated against, Stephen, who heads the list, is by far the most distinguished.

Stephen more than met the requirements of the

office to which he was elected (Acts 6 3); the record
characterizes him as "a man full of
faith and of the Holy Spirit" (Acts 6 5),
i.e. of an enthusiastic faith and of a
deep spirituality, and his activity was
not restricted to the functions of his

office; in fact while nothing is said of the manner in which he fulfilled the duties of his office, though without doubt he fulfilled them faithfully, the record makes it very clear that the importance of Stephen lay in his activity as a preacher, a witness for Christ; it is this activity which has given him the place he holds in history (Acts 22 20). In itself that is not surprising, for in the early Christian church every Christian was at once a witness for Christ, and lay-preaching was common. Seven from the first were occupied with essentially spiritual work, as also the later diaconate was engaged in something far different from mere charity organization. But Stephen was esp. qualified for this high work, having been endued by the Holy Spirit with apostolical gifts, not only that of preaching, but also that of working miracles (Acts 6 8). In his freer views of Jewish law and customs, due to his deeper conception and better understanding of the essence of Christianity, he even excelled the apostles.

He burst the bonds of Judaism, by which the other apostles were still bound, by teaching that the temple and the Law of Moses were

3. Teaching evanescent and that Christianity was destined to supersede Judaism (Acts 6 14). These freer views of Stephen, though possibly attributable to his Hellenic culture, were certainly not of Hellenistic origin, for just their promulgation is what brought him into controversy with the Hellenistic synagogues of Jerus. Though the Hellenist dispensed himself from keeping all of the Pharisaic additions to the Law, he always regarded the Law of Moses and the temple at Jerus as highly as the Palestinian Jew. Even Philo characterizes the Law of Moses in distinction from the laws of other nations, as stedfast, immov-

able and unchangeable, placing it on a level with the laws of Nature. The true source of Stephen's freer views of the Mosaic Law and the temple was Christ's own teachings, Stephen showing a wonderby that of Paul some time later. Christ's words regarding the temple (Jn 4 20-24; Mk 13 2) not only led Stephen to see that the true worship of God was not confined to the temple, but opened his eyes as to the purely formal character of this worship in that day, which, far from being true worship, had become a mere ceremonialism (Mk 7 6), and in the words of Christ (Jn 2 19) he saw an intimation of the new temple which was to take the place of the old. Thus also his conception of the transitory nature of the Mosaic Law may be traced to Christ's teaching as to the Sabbath, the laws of purifying, the fulfilment of the Law and Jewish customs of the day (Mt 5 20) and of a better righteousness than that of the Pharisees and scribes (Mt 9 16). As Christ had been drawn into controversy with Pharisees and scribes on account of these freer views, and as His word about the temple was used to frame the accusation against Him in His trial, so also in the case of Stephen. He did not hesitate to preach his views, choosing the Hellenistic synagogues for this purpose, and soon became engaged in controversies there. But, soon became engaged in controversies there. But, as the record says, his opponents "were not able to withstand the wisdom," i.e. better understanding, convincing knowledge, "and the Spirit," i.e. the deep earnestness and spirituality, "by which he spake" so convincingly (Acts 6 10; Mt 10 19.20). Seeing themselves beaten, they took recourse to the ignoble method of declaring him a blasphemer and a heretic, by using the same foul means that the enemies of Jesus had resorted to, by suborning false witnesses to the plot, by stirring up the people against him, by appealing to their Jewish prejudices and to the scribes and elders, members of the Sanhedrin, and thus eventually brought about his arraignment.

The accusation which they brought against him, through the introduction of false witnesses, included a twofold charge, one against his 4. Arraign-person, a charge of blasphemous words ment before against Moses which would make him the San-also a blasphemer of God, and one hedrin against his teaching, charging him with revolutionary and radical statements concerning the temple and the Law (cf Mk 14 58; 13 2; 15 29).

"Customs of Moses" (Acts 6 14) were the institutions that distinguished the Jews and that were derived from Moses. By his reference to "this place" and "these customs" Stephen was understood to imply the destruction of the temple and the change of the Law, Christianity thus aiming not only at the overthrow of the Jews' religion but the very termination of their national existence.

The charge against Stephen's person was a baseless accusation. There was no blasphemy on the part of Stephen, save by perversion of his words. The charge against his teaching was both false and true. It was false as an implied insinuation that he impugned the Divine origin and character of the temple and the Mosaic Law, but it was true as far as he conceived both to be only of a temporary nature and serving a merely provisional purpose, which, as we have seen, constituted the peculiarity of his teaching. As in the trial of Christ, the judge, Pontius Pilate, read his true verdict, "I find no guilt in him," written on His countenance and whole bearing, thus here the record tells us that the judges of Stephen, "All that sat in the council saw his face as it had been the face of an angel" (Acts 6 15; 2 Cor 3 18); as if in refutation of the charge made against him, Stephen receives the

same mark of Divine favor which had been granted to Moses. It is a significant fact that Stephen was not arraigned before the Sanhedrin as being a Nazarene, though at bottom it was the real cause of his arraignment. Thus also his defence before the Sanhedrin, though the name of Jesus was not mentioned until the very last, was in reality a grand apology for Christ.

While the assembly was overawed by the evidence of singular innocence and holiness written

upon the countenance of Stephen 5. Defence (Acts 6 15), the question of the high before the priest "Are these things so?" broke in Sanhedrin upon the silence. It drew forth from Stephen that masterful pleading which, so sublime in form and content and bare of all artificiality, belongs to the highest type of oratory, characterized by its deep, earnest, and genuine spirituality, the kind of oratory of which the great speeches of our own martyred Lincoln were models. It is not so much a plea in self-defence as a grand apology for the cause which Stephen represents.

Beginning by mentioning "the God of glory" and ending with a vision of that glory itself, the speech is a wonderful apotheosis of the humble cause of the Nazarene, noding with a vision of that glory itself, the speech is a wonderful apotheosis of the humble cause of the Nazarene, the enthusiastic tribute of its first great martyr delivered in the face of death. The contents of his speech are a recital of the most marked phases of Jewish history in the past, but as read from the point of view of its outworkings in the present—old facts interpreted by a spiritifiled disciple of Christ. It is in reality a philosophy of Israel's history and religion, and in so far it was a novum. Thus the new feature that it furnishes is its philosophy of this history which might be termed the Christian philosophy of Jewish history. In appealing to their reason he calls up picture after picture from Abraham to Moses; the speech exhibits vividly the continuity and the progress of the Divine revelation which culminated in Jesus of Nazareth, the same thought as that expressed by Christ in Mt 5 17 of the principal agreement between the OT and the NT revelation.

The emotional appeal lies in the reverential and feeling manner in which he handles the history sacred to them all. The strong appeal to the will is made by holding up the figure of Moses' type of the Law, in its vital significance, in such a way as passionately to apply it to the fundamental relation of Divine plan and human conduct. Thus the aim of Stephen was to point out to his hearers the true meaning of Jewish history and Jewish Law might better understand and judge the present and adjust their conduct to it accordingly. Their knowledge of Jewish history and Jewish religion as he would convey tit to them would compet them to clear him of the accusation against him as blasphemer and false teacher.

In accordance with the accusation against him, his defence was a twofold one: personal defence and defence of his teaching.

(1) Personal defence.—The charge of blasphemy against God and contempt of the Law is implicitly repudiated by the tenor of the whole speech. The courteous and at once endearing terms in Stephen's address (Acts 7 2) to the council, and the terms "our fathers" and "our race" in vs 2.19 by which he closely associates himself with his hearers, his declaration of the Divine majesty of Jeh with which the speech opens (ver 2), of the providential leading of the patriarchs (vs 8.10), his recognition of the OT institutions as Divinely decreed (ver 8), his reference to the Divine sanction of the Law and its condemnation of those who had not kept it (ver 53), at the close of his speech, show clearly his reverence, not only for the past history of the Jewish race, but as well for its Sacred Writings and all of its religious institutions. It makes evident beyond doubt how ungrounded the accusation of blasphemy against him was. Not to impiety or frivolity in Stephen, but to some other cause, must be due therefore the difference between him and his opponents. What it is Stephen himself shows unmistakenly in the second part of his defence.

(2) Defence of his teaching.—The fundamental differences between Stephen and his opponents, as is

evident from the whole tone and drift and purpose of his speech, lay in that he judged OT history from the prophetical point of view, to which Jesus had also allied Himself, while his opponents represented the legalistic point of view, so characteristic of the Jewish thought of that day. The significance of this difference is borne out by the fact upon which Stephen's refutation hinges, viz. the fact, proved by the history of the past, that the development of the Divine revelation and the development of the Jewish nation, so far from combining, move in divergent lines, due to a disposition of obstinate disobedience on the part of their fathers, and that therefore not he but they were disobedient to the Divine revelation. Thus in a masterful way Stephen converts the charge of Antinomianism and anti-Mosaism brought against him into a countercharge of disobedience to the Divine revelation, of which his hearers stood guilty in the present as their fathers had in the past. In this sense the speech of Stephen is a grand apology for the Christian cause which he represented, inasmuch as it shows clearly that the new religion was only the Divinely ordered development of the old, and not in opposition to it.

The main arguments of the speech may be summed up as follows: (a) God's self-manifestation to Israel in revealing His covenant and His will, so far from being bound to one sanctuary and conveyed to one single person (Moses). began long before Moses and long before there was a temple. Thus it was gradual, and as it had begun before Moses it was not completed by him, as is evident from his own words, "A prophet shall God raise up unto you from among your brethren, like unto me" (Acts 7 2-37).

you from among your brethren, like unto me" (Acts 7 2-37).

(b) The Jews to whom these revelations were granted, so far from being thankful at all stages of their history, had been slow to believe and understand them because they "would not be obedient" (vs 39.57). They resisted the purpose of God by obstinately and stiff-neckedly opposing those through whom God worked. Thus their fathers had turned away from Moses at the very moment when he was receiving God's greatest revelation, and, instead of obeying the "living oracles" (ver 38) he gave them, turned to idol-worship for which God punished them by the Bab captivity (vs 39-43). They had killed the prophets who had protested against the dead ritualism of the temple-worship and raised their voice in behalf of a true spiritual worship as that of the tabernacle had been (vs 44-50.52). This disposition of disobedience so characteristic of the race in its whole history, because, in spite of the Divine revelation received, they remained unregenerate (ver 51), reached its culmination in that awful crime of betrayal and murder committed by the present generation upon the "Righteous One" whose coming the prophets had predicted—the rejection of Jesus of Nazareth, by which the Jews doomed not only their national existence, but also their temple-worship and the reign of the Law to destruction (7 52-6 14).

Though the name of Jesus was not uttered by Stephen his speech and does not occur until in his dving praver.

destruction (7 52-6 14).

Though the name of Jesus was not uttered by Stephen in his speech and does not occur until in his dying prayer, his hearers could not fail to notice the hidden reference to Him throughout the entire speech and to draw parallels intended by Stephen: As Joseph and Moses, types of the Messiah, had been rejected, scorned and ill-treated (Acts 7 9.27.39), before being raised to be ruler and deliverer, so Jesus had also been repulsed by them.

The climax of his speech is reached in vs 51-53, when Stephen, breaking off the line of argument, suddenly in direct address turns upon his hearers, and, the accused becoming the accuser, charges them openly with the sin of resisting the Holy Spirit, with the murder of the prophets and the Righteous One, and with continual disobedience to the Law. These words which mark the climax, though probably not the close of the speech, pointed the moral in terms of the most cutting rebuke, and were at once prophetical as to the effect the speech would have upon his hearers and for him.

Such arguing and directness as Stephen's could have but one result. Prejudiced and enraged as they were, the unanswerable arguments of Stephen, based on their own Scriptures, made them mad with fury, and doubtless through their demonstrations they stopped the speech. But Stephen,

transported with enthusiasm and inspiration, was vouchsafed a vision of the "glory of God," which he had mentioned in the beginning of

6. Martyrdom of Stephen

his speech (7 2), and of Jesus, whose cause he had so gallantly defended (ver 55). Stephen standing there, his gaze piercing into heaven, while time and human limitations seemed effaced for him, marks one of the most historic moments in the history of Israel, as his words constitute the most memorable testimony ever uttered in behalf of Christ: "Behold, I see the heavens opened, and the Son of man"—the only place where this title is uttered by any other person than Jesus-"standing on the right hand of God" (ver 56). Now the audience could restrain its rage no longer, and the catastrophe followed immediately. Contrary to Rom law and order they took Stephen, and without awaiting sentence against him, amid a tumultuous scene, stoned him to death, the punishment prescribed

in Mosaic Law for a blasphemer (Dt 177; Lev 24 14-16). This recourse to lynch law may have been connived at by the Rom authorities, since the act was without political significance. It is noteworthy, however, that the Jewish legal forms were observed, as if to give to the violence the appearance of legality. Accordingly, Stephen was taken outside the city (Lev 24 14; cf Lk 4 29); the witnesses threw the first stone at him (cf Dt 17 7) after taking off their upper garments and laying them at the feet of a "young man named Saul" (Acts 7 58)—afterward Paul, now about 30 years old-who evidently had charge of the whole

Stephen died as he had lived, a faithful witness to his Master whom he acknowledged as such amid the rain of stones hurled at him, loudly calling upon His name, "Lord Jesus, receive my spirit" (Acts 759; cf Lk 23 46), and whose spirit he exemplified so nobly when, with a final effort, bending his knees, he "cried with a loud voice, Lord, lay not this sin to their charge" (Acts 7 60; cf Lk 23 34). "And when he had said this, he fell asleep" (7 60; cf

1 Cor 15).

proceedings.

The impression made by Stephen's death was even greater than that made by his life. Though it marks the beginning of the first great persecution of Christians, the death of the first Christian martyr resulted in the greatest acquisition Christianity has probably ever made, the conversion of Saul of Tarsus. The vision of the risen and exalted Jesus vouchsafed to the dying Stephen presented Christianity to Saul of Tarsus in a new light, tending to remove what had been its greatest stumbling-block to him in the Crucified One. This revelation coupled with the splendid personality of Stephen, the testimony of his righteous life and the noble bravery of his sublime death, and above all his dying prayer, fell upon the honest soul of Saul with an irresistible force and inevitably brought on the Damascus event, as Augustine clearly recognized: "Si Stephanus non orasset, ecclesia Paulum non habuisset." Judged by his teaching, Stephen may be called the forerunner of Paul. He was one of the first to conceive of the fact that Christianity represented a new order of things and as such would inevitably supersede the old order. Thus his teachings forecast that greatest controversy of the first Christian century, the controversy between Judaism and Christianity, which reached its culmination-point in the Council of Jerus, resulting in the independence of the Christian church from the fetters of Judaistic legalism.

LITERATURE.—R. J. Knowling, "Acts" in Expositor's Gr Test., II (1900); Feine, PRE³, XIX (1907); Pahncke in Studien u. Krit. (1912), I.

S. D. Press

STEWARD, stū'erd (אָרשׁ עַל בַּיִתּ, 'āsh 'al bayith [Gen 43 16.19; 44 1; 1 K 16 9], הַמֶּלְצֶר, ha-melçar [Dnl 1 11], הַסֹּכֹּד, ha-ṣōkhēn [Isa 22 15]): In AV the word "steward" 1. OT

Usage is found in Gen 15 2; 1 Ch 28 1, in addition to the above. ARV renders Gen 15 2 as "possessor," and 1 Ch 28 1 "rulers."

The phrase ben-meshek in Gen 15 2 is best rendered "son of acquisition," hence "heir." But this is disputed. Skinner in the ICC on Gen regards the text as hopelessly corrupt, and offers no solution of the difficulty. In the other passages, the phrase "ish" id bayith is conveniently tra "steward," though lit. it is "man over the house." The word ha-melgar in Dnl 1 11 is tra in AV as a proper noun. This is certainly a mistake. The margin gives "the steward," and this is followed in RV. A better rendering perhaps would be "overseer," as this man seemed to have the superintendence of the training and feeding of the young men until they were fitted to enter the king's service. He was thus rather a steward of persons than of property (see Mellar). In Isa 22 15 Shebna is described in the text as "treasurer," but in the margin as "steward," and seems to combine the ideas in both the words "treasurer" and "steward." Shebna was thus one of the highest officials, having charge of the city's funds, and of administering them for the city's benefit.

Though the word for "steward" occurs but once in that sense, the idea is one familiar to the OT. Eliezer of Damascus was Abraham's slave and trusted steward. He seems to have had the oversight of all his affairs and was intrusted with the important duty of getting a wife for Isaac. He apparently had charge over the family of his master as well as his property. Whether Isaac had such a steward or not is nowhere stated, but it is practically certain that he had. Jacob seems to have been Laban's steward for a time, as he apparently had full charge of the flocks and herds of his master. Joseph was practically Potiphar's steward, and when he became Pharaoh's chief minister, he himself had a steward over his own house (Gen 39 4.5; 44 1.4). The king Elah in his brief reign of two years had a steward in charge of his household (1 K 16 9). The same was doubtless true of all the kings, and it may be safely inferred that every household of distinction or of sufficient wealth had a steward in charge. The functions of this officer seem at times to have included the care of the children or minors, as well as of the property. Sometimes he was a slave, sometimes a freedman.

έπίτροπος, epitropos, οίκονόμος, οίκοπόπος. two terms denote similar positions. The exact differ-

ence cannot be clearly defined, as 2. In the they are sometimes almost synonymously, others that the first word is a more general term including the latter. Lightfoot and Ellicott think that the former refers rather to the guardianship of persons, the child's legal representative, while the latter word refers to the head servant appointed to manage the household or property (cf 2 Macc 11 1; 13 2). There would, however, not be any such hard-and-fast line between their respective duties; these might vary with every master, or might be combined in one individual.

(1) In the Gospels.—The idea seems to have been perfectly familiar to the people in Christ's day. Every household of distinction seems to have had a steward in charge, Herod's steward was named Chuzas, and his wife, Joanna, followed and ministered to Jesus (Lk 8 3). The word epitropos used here is held by some scholars to imply that he had charge of the education of Herod's children. This is very probable but not certain. In the parable of the Laborers in the Vineyard, it is the steward who pays the laborers at the close of the day (Mt 20 8). The parable of the Unjust Steward best illustrates the practice. This steward was a

freeman, had full charge of his master's affairs and could use them to his own advantage if he chose, was fully accountable to his master and had to render an account when called upon. If unfaithful he was usually discharged at once (Lk 16 1-13). The parables of the Minae or Pounds (Lk 19 12-27), the Talents (Mt 25 14-30), and the Wicked Husbandmen (Mt 21 33-46) teach similar truths. In His warning to His disciples Jesus seems to imply that they were to act as stewards in His absence (Lk 12 42). According to this passage a steward's task was to manage all the affairs of his master, attend to receipts and expenditures, and portion out to each one of the household what should come to him. The disciples were left thus in charge of His gospel and were to use this gift to the best advantage in behalf of others until His return. In Jn 2 8 the term "ruler" is given in the margin as "steward." The one referred to here was really director of the feast rather than steward, though in a sense charged with the responsibility of conducting it. Many stewards were no doubt were freedmen (Lk 16 1-21).

(2) In the Epistles.—The application of this

term is largely confined to the ministry of the gospel. Paul and his fellow-laborers regarded themselves as stewards of the mysteries of God (1 Cor 4 1.2). as stewards of the mysteries of God (1 Cor 4 1.2). The idea is that he take scrupulous care of that which was intrusted to him, and give it out to others faithfully and as directed by his master Jesus Christ. A bishop or overseer is to be as God's steward (Tit 1 7). Peter considered himself and all other Christians as "stewards of the manifold grace of God' (1 Pet 4 10). The preva-lence of the custom of having guardians and stewards over children in their minority is shown in Gal 4 2. The difference in meaning of the two words used here is stated above. In Rom 16 23 Erastus is called the oikonomos of the city. This is best trd "treasurer." Erastus was thus an influential member of the community of Corinth and evidently a faithful Christian. JAMES JOSIAH REEVE

STEWPAN, stū'pan (Lev 11 35 m). See Pan.

STIFF-NECKED, stif'nekt (קשׁה עֹרֶם, keshēh 'oreph, lit. "hard of neck"): As it is figuratively used, both in the OT and in the NT, the word means "stubborn," "untractable," "not to be led." The derivation of the idea was entirely familiar to the Jews, with whom the ox was the most useful and common of domestic animals. It was esp. used for such agricultural purposes as harrowing and plowing

(Jgs 14 18; 1 Cor 9 9). The plow was usually drawn by two oxen. the plowman required but one hand to guide the plow, he carried in the other an "ox-goad." This was a light pole, shod with an iron spike. With this he would prick the oxen upon the hind legs to increase their speed, and upon the neck to turn, or to keep a straight course when deviating. If an ox was hard to control or stubborn, it was "hard of neck," or stiff-necked. Hence the figure was used in the Scriptures to express the stubborn, untractable spirit of a people not responsive to the guiding of their God (Ex 32 9; 33 3; Dt 9 6; 2 Ch 36 13; Jer 17 23, etc). See also the NT where $\sigma \kappa \lambda \eta \rho \rho \tau \rho \Delta \chi \eta \lambda \sigma$, sklērotrāchēlos, is so tra (Acts 7 51), "Ye stiffnecked and uncircumcised in heart and ears, ye do always resist the Holy Spirit." Cf Bar 2 30.33.

always resist the Holy Spirit." Cf Bar 2 30.33.

ARTHUR WALWYN EVANS

STILL, stil: "To be still" is "to keep silence"
(Ps 4 4, etc) and so "to be quiet" (Ps 107 29, etc)
or "inactive" in any way (Jgs 18 9; 1 K 22 3;
Zec 1 11, etc). So "be still" in Ps 46 10 means
"desist from your war" (cf RVm "let be"). The

"still small voice" of 1 K 19 12 (RVm "sound of gentle stillness") is due to taking the Heb demāmāh in its literal force of "silent," but the word here means "whisper"—"a whispering, little voice." This familiar passage, however, has made "still voice" good Eng., and the combination is used in Job 4 16 by RVm. In Ps 23 2 the tr "still waters" takes "waters of rest" (so lit. for TITLE), menthah; cf RVm) to mean "waters with little motion." But the meaning is either "wells by which the flocks or "wells that give refreshing water." As an advb. "still" is perhaps more emphatic than in modern Eng.; cf "power to keep still the kingdom," 2 Ch 22 9 AV (RV "to hold the kingdom").

STING, sting (Ψ), pārash, "to cut into"; κέντρον, kéntron, "a goad," "spur"): A sharp, pointed organ or instrument for inflicting wounds by puncture; sting of an adder, Prov 23 32; of scorning Ray 9 10. In the free cut time of 1 Control o pions, Rev 9 10. In the free quotation of 1 Cor 15 55 from Hos 13 14, death is personified as a deadly animal, like a scorpion or serpent, which inflicts destruction by means of sin as its kentron. It should also be remembered that in Acts 26 14 the same Gr word is used with reference to an instrument for exciting fear, rather than death. Both figures are pertinent; for death is powerless, except through sin, and, also, when sin is vanquished, the fear of death (He 2 15) is gone. H. E. Jacobs

STIR, stûr, STIR UP: Used transitively and intransitively to indicate inner, concentrated movement; translates a number of Heb and Gr vbs., each of which has its different shade of meaning. each of which has its different shade of meaning. Thus e.g. in Ps 39 2, we have 'ākhar, "to be troubled," 'excited''; in Cant 2 7, 'ur, "to awake," "disturb" (by the festal dances and songs). In 2 Tim 1 6, it stands for Gr anazōpuréō, used of the resuscitation of a flame; in 2 Pet 1 13; 3 1, Gr diegetrō, "to awaken from sleep or stupor"; in Acts 21 27, Gr sugchéō, "to commingle," vividly portraying the confusion and tumult that resulted: in Acts 13 50. Gr fusion and tumult that resulted; in Acts 13 50, Gr parotrúnō, "to urge on"; Acts 17 13, Gr saleúō, "to sheke to and for" shake to and fro.

STOCK, stok: In EV is used for:

(1) The stem of a tree, whether alive (Job 14 8; Isa 40 24) or cut down (Isa 44 19; Wisd 14 21). In Jer 2 27; 3 9; Hos 4 12, where the Heb has simply \(\textstyle \ is doubtful.

(2) A family (Lev **25** 47; 1 Esd **5** 37; Tob **5** 13; 1 Macc **12** 21; 2 Macc **1** 10; Acts **13** 26; Phil **3** 5).

(3) Elsewhere (Job 13 27, etc) the word refers to an instrument of punishment. See Punish-

STOICS, stō'iks (Στωϊκοί, Stōïkoi):

1. Origin and Propagation
2. Metaphysics and Religion
3. Sensationalist Epistemology
4. Ethical Teaching
5. Relation to Christianity
LITERATURE

The name was derived from the Stoá Poikilē, the painted porch at Athens, where the founders of the school first lectured. This school of Gr philosophy was founded at Athens c 294 BC by Zeno (c 336–264 BC), a native of Citium, a Gr colony in Cyprus. But the Sem race pre-1. Origin and Propagation dominated in Cyprus, and it has been conjectured that Zeno was of Sem rather than Hellenic origin. His Gr critics taunted him with being a Phoenician. It has therefore been suggested that the distinctive moral tone of the system was Sem and not Hellenic.

Further color is given to this view by the fact that Zeno's immediate successors at the head of the school also hailed from Asia Minor, Cleanthes (331–232 BC) being a native of Assos, and Chrysippus (280-206 BC) of Soli in Cilicia. Several other adherents of the system hailed from Asia Minor, and it flourished in several Asiatic cities, such as Tarsus and Sidon. In the 2d cent. BC the doctrine was brought to Rome by Panaetius of Rhodes (c 189-109 BC), and in the course of the two succeeding centuries it spread widely among the upper classes of Rom society. It reckoned among its adherents a Scipio and a Cato, Seneca and Marcus Aurelius, as well as the freedman Epictetus. The most adequate account of the teaching of the Gr Stoics has been preserved in the writings of Cicero, who, however, was a sympathetic critic, rather than an adherent of the school. The system acquired its most lasting influence by its adoption as the formative factor in the jurisprudence of imperial Rome, and Rom law in its turn contributed to the formation of Christian doctrine and ethics.

The main principles of Stoicism were promul-

gated by Zeno and Cleanthes, and Chrysippus formulated them into a systematic 2. Metadoctrine which became a standard of physics and orthodoxy for the school, and which Religion permitted but little freedom of speculation for its subsequent teachers. Whatever may have been the Sem affinities of mind of Zeno and his followers, they derived the formal principles of their system from Gr antecedents. The ethical precept, "Follow Nature," they learnt from the Socratic school of Antisthenes, the Cynics. But they followed the earlier philosopher Heraclitus in defining the law of Nature as reason (lógos), which was at once the principle of intelligence in man, and the Divine reason immanent in the world. This doctrine they again combined with the prevalent Gr hylozoism, and therefore their metaphysics inclined to be a materialistic pantheism. one side, Nature is the organization of material atoms by the operation of its own uniform and necessary laws. On the other side, it is a living, rational being, subduing all its parts to work out a rational purpose inherent in the whole. As such it may be called Providence or God

called Providence or God.

While the Stoics rejected the forms and rites of popular religion, they defended belief in God and inculcated piety and reverence toward Him. Their pantheism provided a basis for Gr polytheism also alongside of their monism, for where all the world is God, each part of it is Divine, and may be worshipped. Another consequence of their pantheism was their attitude to evil, which they held to be only apparently or relatively evil, but really good in the harmony of the whole. Therefore they bolre evil with courage and cheerfulness, because they believed that "all things worked together for good" absolutely.

The materialistic trend of their metaphysics also comes out in their epistemology, which was sensationalist. The human mind at its birth was a tabular rasa. Its first ideas were derived from sensations, the impressions made by the external world upon the soul, which they also conceived as a material body, though made of finer atoms than the external body. Out of these sense-impressions the mind built up its intuitions or preconceptions, and its not clear how far they attributed originative power to the mind as contributing some factor to the organization of knowledge, which was not derived from experience.

to the mind as contributing some factor to the organiza-tion of knowledge, which was not derived from experience. The Stoic system is never consistently materialistic, nor consistently idealistic. Most of its terms are used in a dual sense, material and spiritual.

But its ethical teaching shows that the main trend of the system was spiritualistic. For its crown and climax was the ethics. The

Stoics did not pursue knowledge for its own sake. They speculated about 4. Ethical Teaching ultimate problems only for the practical purpose of discovering a rule of life and conduct. And in their ethics, the great commandment,

"Follow Nature," is interpreted in a distinctly idealistic sense. It means, "Follow reason," as reason inheres both in man and in the universe as a whole. It is submission to Providence or the rational order of the universe, and the fulfilment of man's own rational nature. The life according to Nature is man's supreme good. How actual Nature could be the ideal good that man ought to seek, or how man was free to pursue an ideal, while he was bound in a system of necessity, were fundamental paradoxes of the system which the Stoics never solved. They summed up their moral teaching in the ideal of the sage or the wise man. His circumstances. He therefore lives a consistent, harmonious life, in conformity with the perfect order of the universe. He discovers this order by knowledge or wisdom. But the Stoics also defined this ideal as a system of particular duties, such as purity in one's self, love toward all men, and rever-ence toward God. In Stoic ethics, Gr philosophy reached the climax of its moral teaching. Nowhere else outside Christianity do we find so exalted a rule of conduct for the individual, so humane, hopeful and comprehensive an ideal for society.

When "certain . . . of the Epicurean and Stoic philosophers encountered" Paul at Athens, and

when, after the apostle had spoken

5. Relation on Mars' Hill, "some mocked; but
others said, We will hear thee concerning this yet again" (Acts 17 18.32), it is tianity no improbable inference that the Epi-

cureans mocked, while the Stoics desired to hear more. For they would find much in the apostle's teaching that harmonized with their own views. Paul's quotation from the classics in his Athenian speech was from the Stoic poet, Aratus of Soli in Cilicia: "For we are also his offspring." His doctrine of creation, of Divine immanence, of the spirituality and fatherhood of God, would be familiar and acceptable to them. His preaching of Christ would not have been unwelcome to them, who were seeking for the ideal wise man. Paul's moral teaching as it appears in his Epp. reveals some resemblance to Stoic ethics. It is possible that Paul had learnt much from the Stoic school at Tarsus. It is certain that subsequent Christian thought owed much to Stoicism. Its doctrine of the immanent Logos was combined with Philo's conception of the transcendent Logos, to form the Logos doctrine through which the Gr Fathers construed the person of Christ. And Stoic ethics was taken over almost bodily by the Christian church. See EPICUREANS; PHILOSOPHY.

See EPICUREANS; PHILOSOPHY.

LITERATURE.—The chief extant sources are the writings of Cicero, De Finibus, De Natura Deorum, etc; Seneca, Plutarch, M. Antoninus Aurelius, Epictetus, Diogenes Laertius, Sextus Empiricus and Stobaeus. Modern works: H. von Arnim, Stoicorum veterum fragmenta; Zeller, Stoics, Epicureans and Sceptics; R. D. Hicks, Stoic and Epicurean; W. L. Davidson, The Stoic Creed; E. V. Arnold, Roman Stoicism, which contains a full bibliography and deals with the relation of Stoicism to Christianity; on the latter point see also Lightfoot, Phil, Excursus II, "St. Paul and Seneca"; histories of philosophy by Rogers, Windelband, Ueberweg, and E. Caird.

STOMACH, stum'uk (στόμαχος, stómachos): In man and most vertebrates, a membranous sac-like portion of the alimentary canal, in which the earlier stages of digestion take place and in which food is prepared to yield its nourishment (1 Tim

5 23).

Used figuratively of pride, "A proud look and high stomach" (Ps 101 7, Prayer-book Version), and courage, "Stirring up her womanish thoughts with a manly stomach" (2 Macc 7 21 AV, RV "with manly passion").

, STOMACHER, stum'uk-ër: Used to translate בְּחָרֵיכ, $p^eth\bar{\imath}gh\bar{\imath}l$ (Isa 3 24 AV), where the meaning is uncertain. The Eng. word denotes that part of a woman's dress which covered the breast and the pit of the stomach. It was usually much ornamented.

STONE, ston, STONES, stonz;

(1) Chiefly ζζζ, 'ebhen, and λίθος, líthos; but also, occurring rarely, Tun, 'eshekh (Lev 21 20); קרר, çūr (Job 22 24), usually "rock"

רוֹר ζ , $\zeta^{e}r\bar{o}r$ (2 S 17 13); $\pi\epsilon\tau\rho\sigma$ s, 1. Hebrew and Greek pétros (Jn 1 42); ψηφος, pséphos (Rev Words

"crag," "rock," AV, in Ps 137 9; s "stone," but RV "rock." For **141** 6, has AV "stones," UTT, heres (Job 41 30), RV has "potsherds." See SELA.

The word is used of great stones (Gen 29 2); of small stones (1 S 17 40); of stones set up as memorials (1 S 7 12, "Eben-ezer,"

2. Literal "stone of help"); of precious stones (Ex 35 9, etc); of hailstones (Josh

10 11).

Of hardness: "I will take the stony heart out of their flesh" (Ezk 11 19); of one smitten:

"[Nabal's] heart died within him, and
3. Figurabecame as a stone" (1 S 25 37); of
tive Usage weight: "A stone is heavy, and the
sand weighty" (Prov 27 3); of dumbness: "Woe unto him that saith to the wood, Awake;

to the dumb stone, Arise!" (Hab 2 19); of Jerus: "I will make Jerus a burdensome stone for all the peoples" (Zec 12 3); of the corner-stone as a figure of high position:

"The stone which the builders rejected Is become the head of the corner" (Ps 118 22).

See FLINT; ROCK.

(2) Used also anatomically of the testicles (Lev 21 20; Dt 23 1; Job 40 17, T.P., pahadh, RV "thighs"). ALFRED ELY DAY

STONE-SQUARERS, stōn'skwår-ērz: AV in 1 K 5 18; RV "the Gebalites" (q.v.).

STONES, PRECIOUS:

1. Ancient and Modern Names
2. Change of Signification of Names
3. Three Important Lists of Stones
4. Interpretation of Greek Names Used by St. John
5. Interpretation of Hebrew Names
6. Greek and Latin Equivalents of Hebrew Names
7. Inconsistencies of Text or Translation
8. Vulgate and LXX
9. Hebrew Texts of LXX and EV
10. Equivalence of Hebrew and Greek Names
11. Interpretation of Greek Names Used by LXX
12. List of Names with Biblical References

Great difficulty is met with in any attempt to translate the Gr and Heb names mentioned in the

Bible into names that would be used for the same minerals in a particular 1. Ancient country at the present day. It is and only within the last century, through the development of the sciences of Modern Names chemistry and crystallography, that

it has become possible to define mineral species with any considerable approach to precision. In ancient times various minerals were regarded as belonging to a single kind, and indicated by a single name, that are now distributed into different kinds and mentioned under different names.

For example, 2,000 years ago the Gr term *anthrax* was used to signify various hard, transparent, red stones that are now known to differ much from one another in chemical composition, and are therefore assigned to different species and given different names; among them are oriental ruby (red corundum), balas ruby (red spinel),

almandine and pyrope (red garnets); a stone designated anthrax by the ancient Greeks might thus belong to any one of a number of various kinds to the assemblage of which no name is now given, and the word anthrax has no simple equivalent in a modern language.

Confusion is introduced in another way. The Eng. names of most of the precious stones mentioned in the Bible are adaptations of

Gr names through the Lat; for instance, the Eng. word "topaz" is a 2. Change of Signifimodification of the Lat word topazius, cation of itself merely a Lat form of the Gr word topázion. It would at first sight Names

appear that the Gr word topazion must be trd into Eng. by the word "topaz"; but, strangely, although the words are virtually identical, the stones indicated by the words are quite different. The topazion of the ancient Greeks was a green stone yielding to the action of a file and said to be brought from an island in the Red Sea, whereas the topaz of the present day is not a green stone, does not yield to the action of a file, and has not been brought from an island in the Red Sea. The topazion of the ancient Greeks is really the peridot, not the topaz, of modern mineralogy; topazion and topaz are different kinds of stone. For the interpretation of the Bible it is thus necessary to ascertain, if possible, the kind of stone to which a Gr or Heb name was applied at the time when the word was written.

Most of the names of the precious stones mentioned in the Bible are contained in the Heb de-

3. Three **Important** Lists of Stones

scription of the breastplate of the high priest and the Gr description of the foundations of the New Jerusalem. The ornaments assigned to the king of Tyre (Ezk 28 13) included only stones that had been used in the breastplate;

indeed, in the LXX, they are the same twelve, men-

tioned in precisely the same order.

The stones of the breastplate according to our Heb text (Ex 28 17-21) were:

· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	<u> </u>					
	No. 1	No. 2	No. 3			
1st row	□ŢX 'ōdhem	קּטְרָה piţedhāh	bāre ķeth			
2d row	ПД) nōphekh	סַפִּיר ṣappīr	יַהֲלֹם yahālām			
3d row	چٰق leshem	שָׁבר shebhō	אַרְלָמָה aḫlāmāh			
4th row	תֵרְשִׁרשׁ tarshish	shōham	יָלְשְׁפֵּרוּ yāshephēh			
			I			

The foundations of the New Jerusalem are (Rev 21 19.20):

íaspis sáppheiros chalkēdôn smáragdos 5 chrusólithos 8 chrusóprasos 11 sardónux bérullos sárdion topázion

10 chrusóprasos 11 huákinthos 12 améthustos Only 4 of the latter stones are mentioned elsewhere in the NT, also in the Book of Rev, namely: iaspis (4 3; 21 18), smaragdos (4 3), sardion (4 3) and huakinthos (9 17).

For the interpretation of the Gr names used by St. John, much help is given by Pliny's great work on Natural History, published 77 AD, 4. Interpre- for it records what was known about tation of precious stones at the very time when St. John himself was living. Greek The Gr Names names of stones and their Lat verbal equivalents had presumably the same signification for both these writers; it Used by St. John is thus possible, in some cases at least,

to ascertain what name is now assigned to a stone mentioned in the NT if the name and description

are recorded in the treatise of Pliny; the results are given in the alphabetical list below. All twelve stones, except chalkedon, are mentioned by Pliny; the few important stones described by him, but not mentioned by St. John as foundations, are crystallum and adamas, both of them colorless; onyx, remarkable rather for structure than color; electrum (amber), a soft material; carbunculus, fiery red; callaina, pale green, probably turquoise; cyanus, dark blue; and opalus (opal), ranked in Pliny's time immediately after smaragdus in value. Ac (agate) is omitted, but was no longer precious.

In the interpretation of the Heb names of the stones of the breastplate there is much greater difficulty, for no Heb lit. other than

5. Interpre- the OT has been preserved, and little tation of help is afforded by the contexts of Hebrew other verses in which some of the Heb Names names of precious stones occur. If we could assume that the LXX and

Vulg VSS of the description of the breastplate were made from Heb texts absolutely identical in respect of the names of the stones with those used for the preparation of the EV, and that the VSS were correctly made, the Gr equivalents of the Heb terms for the time of the LXX translators (about 280 BC) and their Lat equivalents for the time of St. Jerome (about 400 AD) would be directly determinable by collation of the Heb original with the Gr and Lat tra

It must be remembered, however, that a Heb writer, in describing the arrangement of a row of stones, began with that on his right and mentioned them in the order right to left, while a western writer begins with the stone on his left and mentions them in the reverse order. Hence, in translating a Heb statement of arrangement into a western language, one may either translate literally word by word, thus adopting the Heb direction of reading, or, more completely, may adopt the western direction for the order in the row. As either method may have been adopted by the LXX translators, it follows that 'odhem and bareketh, the first and last stones of the 1st row according to our Heb text, may respectively be equivalent either to sardion and smaragdos, or, conversely, to smaragdos and sardion; and similarly for the other rows. The number of the middle stone of any row is the same whichever direction of reading is adopted. 'Odhem being red, and sardion and smaragdos respectively red and green (see below), 'ōdhem must be equivalent to the former, not the latter, and the LXX translators must have adopted the Heb direction of reading the rows.

Other sets of possible equivalents are derivable by collation of the Bib. description with each of the

two descriptions given by Jos (Ant, III, vii, 5; BJ, V, v, 7). The possible Gr and Lat equivalents of Heb names 6. Greek and Latin Equivalents are thus as follows:

		No. 1	No. 2	No. 3
1st row	Heb LXX Vulg Ant BJ	'õdhem sárdion sardius sardónux sárdion	pitedhāh topázion topazius topázion topázion	bāreķeth smáragdos smaragdus smáragdos smáragdos
2d row	$egin{array}{l} \operatorname{Heb} \\ \operatorname{LXX} \\ \operatorname{Vulg} \\ \operatorname{Ant} \\ \operatorname{BJ} \end{array}$	nöphekh ánthrax carbunculus ánthrax ánthrax	sappīr sappheiros sapphirus taspis taspis	yahálōm taspis jaspis sáppheiros sáppheiros
3d row	$egin{array}{l} \operatorname{Heb} \\ \operatorname{LXX} \\ \operatorname{Vulg} \\ \operatorname{Ant} \\ \operatorname{BJ} \end{array}$	leshem ligúrion ligurius ligúrion achálēs	shebhö achátës achates améthustos améthustos	'aḥlāmāh aṁéthustos amethystus achátēs ligúrion
4th row	$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{Heb} \\ \mathbf{LXX} \\ \mathbf{Vulg} \\ \mathbf{Ant} \\ \mathbf{BJ} \end{array}$	tarshīsh chrusólithos chrysolithus chrusólithos onúchion	shöham bërúllion onychinus onúchion bërúllion	yāshephēh onúchion beryllus bērúllion chrusólithos

It may be remarked, as regards the 1st stone of the 1st row, that in the time of Jos the stone sardonux could be signified also by the more general term sardion; and, as regards the 1st stone of the 2d row, that anthrax and carbo being respectively Gr and Lat for "glowing coal," anthrax and carbunculus, diminutive of carbo, were used as synonyms for certain red stones.

From the inconsistencies of the above table of possible equivalents it may be inferred that either

7. Inconsistencies

(1) essentially different tr's were given in several cases for the same Heb word, or (2) the Heb texts used in the preparation of the LXX and Vulg VSS

were, in respect of the precious stones, different from each other and from that used in the preparation of EV, or (3) the breastplate differed at different epoché, or (4) one or other, or both, of the descriptions by Jos are incorrect. Conceivably differences may have arisen in all the above-mentioned ways.

tions by Jos are incorrect. Conceivably differences may have arisen in all the above-mentioned ways.

(1) Inconsistency of LXX translators.—That the LXX translators were uncertain as to the correct tr of the Heb names used for the precious stones into the Gr names used in their time, and that they tr't the Heb name of a stone in more than one way may be shown as follows. In the Heb text corresponding to EV the word \$h\tilde{h}am\$ and classify the 2d stone of the 4th row of the breast-plate, occurs also in several verses where there is no mention of other stones, and where there is thus no risk of accidental interchange, such as may easily occur when technical terms, more esp. if unintelligible to the transcriber, are near to one another in the text. Now, for our VSS \$h\tilde{h}am\$ has been systematically trd "onyx." and for the Vulg the Heb word having the same position in the text has been systematically trd by a Lat synonym of onyx, namely, lapis onychinus (except in Job 28 16, where lapis sardonychus is the rendering). Hence it is probable that the word in these particular verses was \$h\tilde{h}am\$ in the Heboriginal of the Vulg, and therefore also of the Heb original of the Vulg, and therefore also of the Heb original of the Vulg, and therefore also of the Heb original of the Vulg, and that the translator, not knowing the Gr word for \$h\tilde{h}am\$, gave merely its Gr transliteration), as well as smarragdos (Ex 28 9; 35 27; 39 6 or LXX 36 13), prásinos (Gen 2 12), sardion (Ex 25 7; 35 9 or LXX 35 8), \$\tilde{h}since (Gen 2 12), sardion (Ex 25 7; 35 9 or LXX, Vulg and EV were not identical in all the verses in which there is mention of precious stones is esp. clear from an analysis of the respective descriptions of the ornaments of the king of Tyre (Ezk 28 13). In the LXX 12 stones are mentioned; as already stated, they have precisely the same names and are mentioned in precisely the same order as the stones of the breastplate are mentioned; they are not in the same order as the corresponding stones in the b

(3) Changes in the breastplate.—That the breastplate in use in the time of the LXX translators (about 280 BC) may have been different from the one described in the Book of Ex is manifest if we have regard to the history of the Jewish nation; for Jerus was captured by Shishak, king of Egypt, about 973 BC, by Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, about 586 BC, and by Ptolemy Soter, king of Egypt, about 320 BC. The original breastplate may have been part of the spoil on one or other of these occasions, and have then disappeared forever.

Again, between the times of the LXX translators

and Jos, Jerus was more than once in the hands of its enemies; in 198 BC the city was captured by Antiochus the Great; in 170 BC it was stormed, and its temple plundered, by Antiochus Epiphanes; in 54 BC the temple was desecrated by Crassus. The breastplate familiar to Jos (for he was long a priest in the temple of Jerus) may thus not have been identical with that in use when the LXX version was made.

And if the signification of the Heb names of the stones had not been carefully passed down from one

generation to another while the breastplate was no longer in existence (for instance, during the Bab captivity), or if stones like those of the original breastplate were not available when a new breastplate was being made, there would inevitably be differences in the breastplate at different times.

The probability of this hypothesis of one or more replacements of the breastplate is still further increased if we have regard to the large stones that were set in gold buttons and fastened to the shoulderpieces of the ephod, the vestment to which the breastplate itself was attached (Ex 28 9; 39 6 or LXX 36 13). According to the LXX, the material was smaragdos (and therefore green); according to Jos it was sardonux (and therefore red with a layer of white). Though the LXX translators may never have had opportunities of looking closely at the stones, they might be expected to know the color of the material; Jos must have seen them often. But the complete difference of colors of smaragdos and sardonux suggests that the difference of the names is due, not to a LXX mistranslation of the Heb name shoham, but to an actual difference of the material; it may have been smaragdos (and green) at the time when the LXX tr was made, and yet sardonux (and red with a layer of white) in the time of Jos.

(4) Descriptions given by Jos.—That in respect of the breastplate it is unsafe to collate the Heb texts of the various VSS with that of Jos may be demonstrated as follows. The 2d stone of the 2d row, termed sappīr in our Heb text, is termed sappheiros in the LXX and sapphirus in the Vulg. Wherever else sappīr occurs in our Heb text, sap-pheiros occurs in the corresponding place in the LXX and sapphirus in the Vulg; it may thus be inferred that in respect of the word $sapp\bar{v}r$ our Heb text and the Heb texts used for the LXX and Vulg VSS were in complete accord with one another. Also, it is certain that the Lat word sapphirus was derived from the Gr word sappheiros, and that either the latter had its origin in the Heb word sappīr or that both words had the same source. There is no reason to think that from the time of the LXX translators to that of St. Jerome the word sappheiros was ever used to signify any other than one kind of stone or that the kind was ever called *iaspis*. But in both the descriptions given by Jos the middle stone of the 2d row is given as iaspis, not as sappheiros, which he makes the last stone of the row. Hence, for the middle stone of the 2d row, the Heb texts were concordant in giving the name sappīr, but they fundamentally differed from that of Jos whose two descriptions agree in giving the name iaspis; it is not a difference of mere nomenclature or tr, but of the kind of stone set in a definite part of the breastplate. This being the case, collation of the Heb, LXX and Vulg descriptions of the breastplate with those given by Jos cannot be relied on to give a true Gr or a true Lat equivalent for the Heb name of any of the stones.

It may be added that the two descriptions given by Jos differ from each other only as regards the order of the stones in the last two rows; in the 3d row, the order is precisely reversed; in the 4th row the order is chrusolithos, onuchion, berullion for Ant, and onuchion, berullion, chrusolithos for BJ.

Ant was written at greater leisure than BJ, and was not completed till 18 years later; Jos had thus more time for the consultation of old MSS. Speaking generally, it is more accurate than his earlier treatise as regards the history of those times of which he had no direct knowledge; its description of the breastplate is more precise as regards the arrangement of the stones, and is therefore the one to which the greater weight must be given. It differs from the LXX only through the interchange of the 2d

and 3d stones in the 2d, 3d and 4th rows; and possibly Jos gave the order from his memory either of the LXX or of the actual breastplate.

the LXX or of the actual breastplate.

The only difference between the descriptions given in LXX and Vulg is that the last two stones, namely bërullion (beryllus) and onuchion (onychinus), are interchanged.

8. Vulgate and LXX as already pointed out, the Heb texts of the LXX and EV must have differed completely as regards the descriptions of the ornaments of the king of Tyre; it is thus not at all certain that they were in complete accord as regards the descriptions of the breastplate. In fact, it is generally accepted that the Heb word it is generally accepted that the Heb word use without a spis are virtually identical, and that they were used to signify the same kind of stone. Hence it follows that the Heb text of EV is not identical with the Heb text of EV is not identical with the Heb texts of the LXX and Vulg VSS in respect of the stones in the 2d and 4th rows; if our Heb text is correct as regards yāshephēh, that stone was the last stone in the last row; if the Heb texts of the LXX and Vulg VSS in respect of the stones in the 2d row; further, onuchion (LXX) and beryllus (Vulg) must be equivalent, not to yāshephēh, but to some other stones of the breastplate.

of the breastplate.

Taking these matters into consideration, the following have considerable claims to be regarded as equivalents:

Heb

Gr
sardion

10. Equivalence of Hebrew and Greek Names

pitedhāh bāreķeth topazion smaragdos $n\bar{o}phekh$ anthraxsappheiros sappīr leshem ligurion achatēs shebhō 'ahlāmāh yāshephēh amethustos

The remaining three stones, tarshish, shoham and yahdlom, are thus equivalent to chrusolithos, onuchion and berullion, but it is uncertain which Gr name corresponds to any of those Heb names.

For the interpretation of the Gr names of stones mentioned in the LXX (and thus of the Heb names

11. Interpretation of Greek Names

in the original text), the work of Theophrastus, a contemporary of the LXX translators, is very useful. That author mentions, besides krústallos and margarítēs which occur elsewhere than in the description of the breastplate, nine

of the LXX names of the breastplate stones, namely: achatēs, amethustos (as améthuson), anthrax, iaspis, ligurion (as lugkúrion), onuckion, sappheiros, ŝar-dion, smaragdos. The three stones mentioned in the LXX but not by Theophrastus are berullion, chrusolithos and topazion. As he mentions only four stones that are not referred to in LXX, namely chrusókolla, hualoeidés, kuanós and ómphax, it follows that the LXX translators at Alexandria introduced every important name that was then in use at Athens for a precious stone.

In the following alphabetical list references are

given to all the verses in which each name of a precious stone occurs, and for each use of a trd name the corresponding word in the original text.

Achatēs (ἀχάτης, achatēs): probably LXX tr of sh^obhō (Ex **28** 19; **39** 12). It is not mentioned in Apoc or the NT.

12. Names Adamant (see also special art.): in with Biblical Ezk 3 9; Zec 7 12, EV tr of Heb References $sh\bar{a}m\bar{\imath}r.$

Agate: in Ex 28 19; 39 12, EV tr of Heb shebhō; in Isa 54 12; Ezk 27 16, AV tr of Heb kadhködh.

'Aḥlāmāh, אַּהְלָמִה: in Ex 28 19; 39 12: 3d stone, 3d row, of the breastplate. LXX translates amethustos; Vulg translates amethystus; EV "amethyst."

The LXX rendering amethustos is generally accepted as correct, but the late Professor N.S. Maskelyne, F.R.S., formerly (1857-80) Keeper of Minerals in the British Museum, gave reasons for regarding the 'ahlāmāh of breastplate times as possibly an onyx in which white bands alternated with waxy-yellow to reddish-yellow

Amber: in Ezk 1 4.27; 8 2, AV, ERV and

ARVm tr of Heb hashmal; in Ex 28 19, RVm tr of Heb leshem.

Amethustos (ἀμέθυστος, améthustos): in Rev 21 20: the 12th foundation of the New Jerusalem; Vulg translates amethystus; EV "amethyst." Four varieties of amethystus were recognized by Pliny as precious; all of them were transparent, and of purple tint or of tints derived from purple. According to LXX, amethustos was the 3d stone, 3d row, of the breastplate, and the stone occupying this position is given in our Heb text as 'aḥlāmāh. Amethustos is mentioned under the name amethuson by Theophrastus; he describes it as a transparent stone resembling wine in color and as used by the gem engravers of his day. Amethystus and amethuson were doubtless identical with the amethyst of the present day a purple variety of quartz (silica). Beads and other ornaments of amethyst found in old Egyp tombs show that the stone was regarded as precious in very ancient times.

Amethyst: in Ex 28 19; 39 12, EV tr of Heb 'ahlāmāh; in Rev 21 20, EV tr of Gr amethustos.

Anthrax (ἄνθραξ, ánthrax): in Tob 13 17; Ecclus 32 5, EV translates "carbuncle." According to LXX, anthrax was also a stone of the breastplate, 1st stone, 2d row, but there is uncertainty as to the Heb text of the LXX in respect of this word. The anthrax of Theophrastus included different kinds of hard, red stone used by the gem engravers. It is the carbunculus of Pliny's time, and probably included the oriental ruby (corundum, alumina), the balas ruby (spinel, aluminate of magnesium), the almandine (a kind of garnet, alumino-silicate of iron) and pyrope (another kind of garnet, alumino-silicate of magnesium) of the present day.

Bāreketh, הַבְּיבָ: in Ex 28 17; 39 10; Ezk 28 13: 3d stone, 1st row, of breastplate. LXX probably translates *maragdos*, but there is uncertainty as to the Heb text of the LXX in respect of this word: EV translates "carbuncle"; RVm translates "emerald." The rendering *smaragdos* may be correct, but no emeralds of very early age have been found in Egypt. From the similarity of the words bāreketh and bārak ("lightning"), it has been suggested that possibly the breastplate stone was not green but of bluish-red color, in which case it may have been an almandine (garnet). EV has interchanged the names given by LXX to the 3d stone of the 1st row (*smaragdos*, "emerald") and the 1st stone of the 2d row (*antrax*, "carbuncle").

Bdellium (see also special art.): in Gen 2 12; Nu 11 7, EV tr of Heb $b^o dh \bar{o} lah$.

B*dhōlah, הֹבְּיבֹּיב: LXX translates anthrax in Gen 2 12, and krustallos in Nu 11 7; Vulg and EV translate bdellium. Some commentators, rejecting both the LXX tr*, interpret the material to be pearl, others to be the gum of an Arabian tree.

Bērullos (βήρυλλος, bḗrullos): in Tob 13 17; Rev 21 20: the 8th foundation of the New Jerusalem. Vulg translates beryllus; EV translates "beryl." According to LXX, bērullion was a stone of the breastplate, the 2d stone, 4th row; owing to uncertainty as to their Heb text, there is doubt as to the Heb word tr⁴ bērullion. Bērullos is not mentioned by Theophrastus, who may have regarded it as included in the smaragdos of his day.

In the time of Pliny 8 varieties were recognized; he says that beryllus was already thought by some to be "of the same nature as the smaragdus, or at least closely analogous. India produces them, and they are rarely to be found elsewhere. The lapidaries cut all beryls of a hexagonal form because the color which is deadened by a dull uniformity of surface is heightened by the reflections resulting from the angles. If they are cut in any other way, these stones have no brilliancy whatever. The most esteemed beryls are those which in color resemble the pure green of the sea. Some are of opinion that beryls are naturally angular."

This description suggests the identity of the seagreen beryllus of Pliny's time with the sea-green beryl (alumino-silicate of beryllium) of the present day.

Beryl: in Ex 28 20; 39 13; Cant 5 14; Ezk 1 16; 10 9; 28 13; Dnl 10 6, EV tr of Heb tarshīsh; in Gen 2 12; Ex 25 7 m; 28 9.20; 35 27 m; 1 Ch 29 2 m; Job 28 16 m, RVm tr of Heb shōhan; in Tob 13 17; Rev 21 20, EV tr of Grbērullos.

Carbuncle: in Ex 28 17; 39 10; Ezk 28 13, EV tr of Heb bāreķeth; in Ex 28 18 m; 39 11; Ezk 27 16; 28 13, RVm tr of Heb nōphekh; in Isa 54 12, EV tr of Heb 'ekdāh; Tob 13 17; Ecclus 32 5, EV tr of Gr anthrax.

Chalcedony: in Ex 28 20, RVm tr of Heb tarshīsh; in Rev 21 19, EV tr of Gr chalkēdōn.

Chalkēdōn (χαλκηδών, chalkēdōn): in Rev 21 19: the 3d foundation of the New Jerusalem. Vulg translates calcedonius; EV translates "chalcedony." Though the name Chalcedon (Lat form) occurs in Pliny, it is not as the name of a stone but as that of a free town then standing on the southern side of the Bosphorus, probably close to the site on which Scutari now stands. Chalcedon had once been noted for its copper mines; but the latter, when Pliny wrote, had been so far exhausted that they were no longer worked.

Pliny refers to a kind of smaragdus (a green stone) as having been found near Chalcedon, but adds that the stones were of very small size and value. They were "brittle, and of a color far from distinctly pronounced; they resembled in their tints the feathers that are seen in the tail of the peacock or on the neck of the pigeon. More or less brilliant, too, according to the angle at which they were viewed, they presented an appearance like that of veins and scales." In another place he refers to a stone from Chalcedon or Calchedon (another reading) as being an iaspis of turbid hue. It is possible that at Patmos or Ephesus, at one of which St. John was living when he wrote the Book of Rev, the word chalkedon was used to specify the particular kind of smaragdus or iaspis that had been found near the town of that name. It is uncertain what name would be given to such a stone in the present day, but the signification now attached to the name "chalcedony" (cryptocrystalline silica) cannot be traced farther back than the 15th cent.

Chrusolithos (χρισόλιθος, chrusolithos): in Rev 21 20: the 7th foundation of the New Jerusalem. Vulg translates chrysolithus; AV translates "chrysolyte"; RV translates "chrysolite." According to LXX chrusolithos was one of the stones of the breastplate (1st stone, 4th row), but there is uncertainty as to the Heb text of the LXX in respect of this word; the name is not mentioned by Theophrastus. The chrysolithus of Pliny was a "transparent stone with a refulgence like that of gold." Those were most valued which "when placed by the side of gold, impart to it a sort of whitish hue, and so give it the appearance of silver."

It may perhaps have included the yellow sapphire (alumina), the yellow quartz (citrine, silica) and the yellow jargoon (zircon, silicate of zirconium) of the present day. The term "chrysolite" is now applied to a different mineral, namely, to a yellow variety of olivine (silicate of magnesium and iron), a species that includes the green precious stone peridot as another of its varieties.

Chrusoprasos (χρυσόπρασος, chrusóprasos): in Rev 21 20: the 10th foundation of the New Jerusalem. Vulg and AV translate chrysoprasus; RV translates "chrysoprase." The chrysoprasus was regarded by some naturalists of the time of Pliny as a variety of beryllus. The 1st variety of beryllus and the most esteemed was, as stated above, of a pure sea-green color; the 2d was paler, and approached a golden tint; the 3d, allied to the 2d in brilliancy but more pallid, was the chrysoprasus. The latter was thought by other naturalists to belong to an independent genus of stone. In another place Pliny describes the color

as like that of the leek, but as varying in tint between the topazion of his day (our peridot) and gold. The stone may have been a yellowish-green plasma (chalcedony, crypto-crystalline silica) or, as suggested by King, pale chrysoberyl (aluminate of beryllium); it is not the chrysoprase of the present day, which is an apple-green chalcedony (colored by nickel).

Chrysolite, chrysolyte: "chrysolite" in Ezk 28 13, AVm tr of Heb tarshīsh; Rev 21 20, RV tr of Gr chrusolithos; "chrysolyte" in Rev 21 20, AV

tr of Gr chrusolithos.

Chrysoprase, chrysoprasus: "chrysoprase" in Ezk 27 16, AVm tr of Heb kadhkōdh; Rev 21 20, RV tr of Gr chrusoprasos; "chrysoprasus" in Rev 21 20, AV tr of Gr chrusoprasos.

Coral, red coral (see special art.): "coral" in Job 28 18; Ezk 27 16, EV tr of Heb $r\bar{a}'m\bar{o}th$; Lam 4 7, RVm tr of Heb $p^en\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}m$; "red coral" in

Job 28 18, RVm tr of Heb penīnīm.

Crystal (see special art.): in Job 28 17, AV tr of Heb zekhūkhūth; Ezk 1 22, AV tr of Heb kerah; in Job 28 18, RV tr of Heb gābhūsh; in Rev 4 6; 22 1, EV tr of Gr krustallos; in Rev 21 11, EV tr of Gr krustallizō ("to shine like crystal").

Diamond: in Jer 17 1, EV tr of Heb shāmīr; in Ex 28 18; 39 11; Ezk 28 13, EV tr of Heb

 $yahăl\bar{o}m.$

'Ekdāḥ, רַּקָּבְּי: in Isa 54 12: LXX translates krustallos; Vulg periphrases as lapides sculpti ("engraved stones"); EV translates "carbuncles." From the similarity to TIP, kādhah, "to burn," it is interpreted as meaning fiery or sparkling, whence comes the rendering "carbuncles."

Electrum (see special art.): Ezk ${\bf 1}$ 4, RVm tr of Heb <code>hashmal</code>, "amber."

Emerald: in Ex 28 18; 39 11; Ezk 27 16; 28 13, EV tr of Heb nophekh; in Ex 28 17; 39 10, RVm tr of Heb bareketh; in Tob 13 16; Jth 10 21; Ecclus 32 6; Rev 21 19, EV tr of Gr smaragdos; in Rev 21 19, EV tr of Gr adj. smarág-

Gābhīsh, בָּרִשׁ: in Job 28 18: LXX transliterates gabis; AV translates "pearls"; RV translates "crystal." From the similarity to ", gābhash, "ice," the rendering "crystal" is suggested.

Hashmal, בשלה: in Ezk 1 4.27; 8 2: LXX translates élektron; Vulg and RVm translate electrum; AV, ERV and ARVm translate "amber"; ARV translates "glowing metal." The ēlektron of the time of the LXX and Theophrastus was the amber of the present day; in the time of Pliny amber was an object of luxury ranked next to crystal, and the term electrum was then applied, not only to amber, but also to a metallic alloy of

gold and silver.

gold and silver.

Huakinthos (ὑάκινθος, huakinthos): in Rev
9 17; 21 20: the 11th foundation of the New
Jerusalem. Vulg translates hyacinthus; AV translates "jacinth"; RV translates "jacinth" (Rev
21 20) and "hyacinth" (Rev 9 17); RVm translates "sapphire" (Rev 21 20). Pliny describes the hyacinthus as being very different from amethys-tus, "though partaking of a color that closely borders upon it" and as being of a more diluted violet. It may have been the pale blue sapphire (alumina) of the present day; the modern hyacinth. or jacinth, is a quite different stone, a brownish to reddish zircon (silicate of zirconium)

Hyacinth, jacinth (see also special art. on Hyacinth): "hyacinth" in Rev 9 17, RV tr of Grhuakinthos; "jacinth" in Ex 28 19; 39 12, RV tr of Heb leshem; in Rev 9 17; 21 20, AV tr of

Gr huakinthos.

Iaspis (ἴασπις ίαspis): in Rev 4 3; 21 11.18 f: the 1st foundation of the New Jerusalem. Vulg

translates jaspis; EV translates "jasper." cording to LXX iaspis was the 3d stone, 2d row, of the breastplate, but there is uncertainty as to the Heb text of the LXX in respect of this word; LXX translates also kadhkōdh as iaspis (Isa 54 12). Pliny describes iaspis as being generally green and often transparent; he recognizes as many as 14 varieties.

He adds that "many countries produce this stone: that of India is like smaragdus in color; that of Cyprus is hard and of a full sea-green; and that of Persia is skyplue. Similar to the last is the Caspian iaspis. On the banks of the river Thermodon the iaspis is of an azure color; in Phrygia it is purple; and in Cappadocia of an azure-purple, somber and not refulgent. The best kind is that which has a shade of purple, the next best being the rose-colored, and the next the stone with the green color of the smaragdus," etc.

The term "jasper" is now restricted to opaque stones; the green transparent kind of *iaspis* may have been identical with the green chalcedony (crypto-crystalline silica) called plasma at the present day.

Jasper: in Ex 28 20; 39 13; Ezk 28 13, EV tr of Heb yāshephēh; in Rev 4 3; 21 11.18.19,

EV tr of Gr iaspis.

Kadhkōdh, פֿרַכּר: in Isa 54 12; Ezk 27 16: LXX translates *iaspis* (Isa **54** 12) and translaterates *chorchor* (Ezk **27** 16); Vulg translates *jaspis* (Isa 54 12) and transliterates chodchod (Ezk 27 16); AV translates "agate"; AVm translates "chrysoprase" (Ezk 27 16); RV translates "ruby." There is little to indicate the probable meaning of the

Keraḥ, קרח: in Ezk 1 22: LXX translates krustallos; Vulg translates crystallum; EV translates "crystal"; RVm translates "ice." The translations are suggested by the similarity to the Heb kerah, חַקַב, 'ice.''

ķeraḥ, ПŢ,

Krustallos (κρύσταλλος, krústallos): in Rev 4 6; 22 1: Vulg translates crystallum; EV translates "crystal." The crystallum of Pliny was the rockcrystal (clear quartz) of the present day. Among the localities cited for crystallum by Pliny are "the crags of the Alps, so difficult of access that it is usually found necessary to be suspended by ropes in order to extract it."

Lapis lazuli: in Rev 21 19, RVm tr of Gr sap-

Leshem, □♥♥♥: in Ex 28 19; 39 12: 1st stone, 3d row, of the breastplate. LXX probably translates ligurion, but there is uncertainty as to their Heb text; Vulg probably translates liqurius; AV translates "ligure"; RV translates "jacinth"; RVm translates "amber."

The ligurion of LXX is probably identical with the lugkwrion of Theophrastus; this was a yellow to yellowished stone used by seal engravers, and was transparent and difficult to polish. The yellow ligurion may be the yellow jargoon of the present day (zircon, silicate of zirconium), a stone much used by the ancient Gr and Rom engravers; but as the jargoon has not been found among ancient Egyp work, it has been suggested that the ligurion of the breastplate may have been a yellow quartz (citrine) or agate. The yellowish-red ligurion may have been one of the stones to which the name "jacinth" (also a zircon) is now applied. Professor Maskelyne, rejecting the LXX tr, suggests that the leshem was identical with the neshem of the Egyptians, namely the green feldspar now called amazon stone; as an alternative rendering to this he suggests yellow jasper. The tr "amber" (RVm) is not likely to be correct, for that material would have been too soft for use as a stone of the breastplate; its properties do not accord with those assigned by Theophrastus to the lugkurion.

Ligure: in Ex 38 19; 39 12, AV tr of Heb

Ligurion (λιγύριον, ligúrion): in LXX Ex 28 19; 39 12, LXX tr of Heb leshem: 1st stone, 3d row, of breastplate.

Margarites (μαργαρίτης, margarites): in Mt 7 6;

13 45.46; 1 Tim **2** 9; Rev **18** 12.16; **21** 21: Vulg translates margarita; EV translates "pearl." The margarites is mentioned by Theophrastus as being one of the precious stones, but not pellucid, as produced in a kind of oyster and in the pinna, and as brought from the Indies and the shores of certain islands in the Red Sea. Hence it was identical with the pearl of the present day.

Nophekh, ក្សា: in Ex 28 18; 39 11; Ezk 27 16; 28 13: 1st stone, 2d row, of the breastplate. There is uncertainty as to the Heb text used by the LXX, but probably nophekh is translated anthrax (except in Ezk 27 16, where the text differs); Vulg probably translates carbunculus; EV translates "emerald"; RVm translates "carbuncle." EV interchanges the names given by the LXX to the 3d stone, 1st row (smaragdos, "emerald") and the 1st stone, 2d row (anthrax, "carbuncle"). Professor Maskelyne suggests that the nophekh of the breastplate may have been the *mophak* or *mafka* of the Egyp hieroglyphics, the turquoise of the present

'Ōdhem, ┗¬X: in Ex 28 17; 39 10; Ezk 28 13: 1st stone, 1st row, of the breastplate. LXX probably translates sardion, Vulg probably translates sardius; EV translates "sardius"; EVm translates "ruby." The Heb word is related to 'ādham, DIN, "to be red," and signifies a reddish stone; it may have been sard (a name given not only to red, but also to pale reddish-yellow or brown, translucent chalcedony), but was more probably carnelian, a red stone closely allied to sard, and much used by

the ancient Egyptians and Assyrians.

Onuchion, onux (ortxior, onuchion, orus, onux): "onux," LXX tr of Heb shoham (Job 28 16); onuchion, perhaps LXX tr of shoham in the descriptions of the ornaments of the king of Tyre (Ezk 28 13) and the stones of the breastplate (being there made 3d stone, 4th row, in Ex 28 20; 39 13), but there is uncertainty as to the Heb text of the LXX; Vulg translates onyx, lapis onychinus, lapis sardonychus. The onuchion of Theophrastus was a hard, translucent stone used by the seal engravers; it consisted of white and dusky layers in alternation. The *onyx* of Rom times was an opaque stone of white and black layers, like the

Onyx: in Gen 2 12; Ex 25 7; 28 9.20; 35 9. 27; 39 6.13; 1 Ch 29 2; Job 28 16; Ezk 28 13, EV tr of Heb shōham.

Pearl: in Job 28 18, AV tr of Heb $g\bar{a}bh\bar{s}h;$ in Job 28 18, RVm tr of Heb $p^en\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}m;$ in Mt 7 6; 13 45 f; 1 Tim 2 9; Rev 18 12.16; 21 20.21,

13 45 f; 1 Tim 2 9; Rev 18 12.16; 21 20.21, EV tr of Gr margaritēs.

Ponīnīm, קנינים ; in Job 28 18; Prov 3 15; 8 11; 20 15; 31 10; Lam 4 7: LXX (from which Prov 20 15 is missing) periphrases the word or had a different Heb text; Vulg translates ebur antiquum ("old ivory") in Lam 4 7, but elsewhere periphrases the word or had a different Heb text; EV translates "rubies"; RVm translates "red coral," or "pearls," except for Lam 4 7, where the tr is "corals." The word is similar to an Arab. word meaning "branches" and may signify red coral, which has been highly esteemed since very ancient times; a description of *korállion* is given by Theophrastus. Pliny says that in his day the reddest and most

branched was most valued. _ Piţ dhāh, הַקְּיָם: in Ex 28 17; 39 10; Job 28 19; Ezk 28 13: 2d stone, 1st row, of the breastplate. LXX translates topazion in Job 28 19 and probably also in the other verses; Vulg translates topazius; EV translates "topaz." The topazion of ancient times appears to have been scarcely known before the Ptolemaic period, and Professor Maskelyne suggested that the Heb word may possibly be

allied to bijada, which in Pers and Arab. signifies 'garnet.''

Ramoth: in Job 28 18, AVm tr of Heb rā'mōth. Rā'mōth, באמרת: in Job 28 18; Ezk 27 16: LXX translates meteora (Job 28 18) and ramoth (Ezk 27 16); Vulg periphrases the passages; EV translates "coral"; AVm translates "ramoth" (only in Job 28 18). There is little to indicate the

in Job 28 18). There is little to indicate the meaning of the Heb word.

Ruby: in Job 28 18; Prov 3 15; 8 11; 20 15; 31 10; Lam 4 7, EV tr of Heb penīnīm; in Isa 54 12; Ezk 27 16, RV tr of Heb kadhkōdh; in Ex 28 17; 39 10; Ezk 28 13, AVm tr of Heb 'ōdhem. Sappheiros (σάπφειρος, sáppheiros): in Tob 13 16; Rev 21 19: the 2d foundation of the New Jerusalem. Vulg translates sapphirus; EV translates "sapphire"; RVm translates "lapis lazuli" (but only in Rev 21 19). According to LXX, sappheiros was the 2d stone, 3d row, of the breastplate, but there is uncertainty as to the Heb text. Pliny describes sapphirus as "refulgent with spots like gold. It is also of an azure color, though sometimes, but rarely, it is purple; the best kind being that which comes from Media. In no case, however, is this stone transparent." These characteristics correspond to the lapis lazuli (sulphato-silicate istics correspond to the lapis lazuli (sulphato-silicate of sodium and aluminium), not to the sapphire

(alumina) of the present day.

Sappīr, "DD: in Ex 24 10; 28 18; 39 11; Job
28 6.16; Cant 5 14; Isa 54 11; Lam 4 7; Ezk 1
26; 10 1; 28 13: 2d stone, 2d row, of the breastplate. LXX translates sappheiros; Vulg translates
sapphirus and (Ex 24 10) lapis sapphirinus; EV
translates "sapphire." The Heb word is universally accepted as equivalent to the Gr sappheiros; that name was used, not for the stone now known as sapphire, but for that now known as lapis lazuli, a substance which was regarded by the ancient Egyp-

tians as a precious stone.

tians as a precious stone.

Sardine (stone), sardius: "sardine" (stone) in Rev 4 3, AV tr of Gr sárdinon, an error of text for sardion; "sardius" in Rev 4 3, RV tr of Gr sardion; in Rev 21 20, EV tr of Gr sardion; in Ex 28 17; 39 10; Ezk 28 13, EV tr of Heb 'ōdhem.

Sardion (σάρδιον, sárdion): in Rev 4 3; 21 20:

the 6th foundation of the New Jerusalem. According to LXX, sardion was the 1st stone, 1st row, of the breastplate. Vulg translates sardius; AV translates "sardine" (stone) (Rev 4 3) and "sardius" (Rev 21 20); RV translates "sardius." The sarda of Pliny's time was much used by the seal engravers. There were three Indian varieties, all of them transparent, one of them red in color; there was then no precious stone in more common use; those of honey-color were less valued. It probably included both the sard and the carnelian of the present day (crypto-crystalline silica).

Sapphire: in Ex 24 10; 28 18; 39 11; Job 28 6.16; Cant 5 14; Isa 54 11; Lam 4 7; Ezk 1 26; 10 1; 28 13, EV tr of Heb sappīr; in Tob 13 16; Rev 21 19, EV tr of Gr sappheiros; in Rev 21 20, RVm tr of Gr huakinthos.

Sardonux (σαρδόνυξ, sardonux): in Rev 21 20: the 5th foundation of the New Jerusalem. Vulg and EV translate sardonyx. According to Pliny, the name sardonyx was at first given to an Indian (red) sarda with a layer of white in it, both being transparent.

Pliny says that later three colors were considered essential, but that they might be repeated indefinitely. The Arabian sardonyx was "characterized by several different colors, black or azure for the base and vermilion surrounded with a line of rich white for the upper part, not without a certain glimpse of purple as the white passes into the red."

The sardonux of St. John's time is included in the sardonyx of the present day.

Sardonyx: in Rev 21 20, EV tr of Gr sardonux; Ex 28 18; 39 11, RVm tr of Heb yahālōm.

Shāmīr, אממי: in Jer 17 1; Ezk 3 9; Zec 7 12; LXX omits Jer 17 1, and in the other two verses either periphrases the word or had a different text; Vulg translates (unguis) adamantinus in Jer 17 1, and adamas in the other two verses; EV translates "diamond" (Jer 17 1) and "adamant" (Ezk 3 9; Zec 7 12). Shāmīr was a hard material used for engraving precious stones; in the days of Jeremiah, Ezekiel and Zechariah, splinters of both diamond and corundum (white sapphire or adamant stone) were probably available for the purpose. Both diamond and adamant are Eng. modifications of the Lat adamas; the form "diamond" has been restricted for some centuries to the more precious of the above stones.

Shōham, Dnw: in Gen 2 12; Ex 25 7; 28 9. 20; 35 9.27; 39 6.13; 1 Ch 29 2; Job 28 16; Ezk 28 13: the 2d stone, 4th row, of the breast-plate. LXX translates prásinos, i.e. "leek-green stone" (Gen 2 12), sardion (Ex 25 7; 35 9), smaragdos (Ex 28 9; 35 27), bērullion, probably through interchange of words in the Heb text (Ex 28 20; 39 13), soom (1 Ch 29 2), onux (Job 28 16) and perhaps onuchion (Ezk 28 13); Vulg translates onyx (Ezk 28 13), lapis sardonychus (Job 28 16) and lapis onychinus elsewhere; EV translates "onyx"; RVm translates "beryl" (except in Ezk 28 13). Professor Maskelyne and Professor Sayce, accepting green as the color of shōham, have expressed the opinion that the stone known by that name in very early times was the stone called 'siamu by the Assyrians, and therefore the green turquoise; Professor Maskelyne gives "amazon stone" as an alternative rendering of the word. Bērullion is given by LXX as the 2d stone, onuchion as the 3d stone, of the 4th row; sardion as the 1st stone, smaragdos as the 3d stone, of the 1st row; but their Heb text is uncertain.

Smaragdinos, smaragdos (σμαράγδινος, smaragdinos): in Rev 4 3: Vulg translates smaragdinus; EV translates "emerald." Smaragdos (σμάραγδος, smáragdos) in Tob 13 16; Jth 10 21; Ecclus 32 5; Rev 21 19: Vulg translates smaragdus; EV translates "emerald." According to LXX, smaragdos was the 3d stone, 1st row, of the breastplate, but their Heb text is uncertain. The smaragdos of Theophrastus was a small, scarce, presumably green, stone used by the gem engravers. In Pliny's time the genus smaragdus comprised no fewer than 12 kinds; one of them was the emerald of the present day, and probably the smaragdos of Theophrastus.

Tarshīsh, אַרְשִׁישׁ: in Ex 28 20; 39 13; Cant 5 14; Ezk 1 16; 10 9; 28 13; Dnl 10 6: the 1st stone, 4th row, of the breastplate. LXX translates tharsis (Cant 5 14; Ezk 1 16; Dnl 10 6), anthrax (Ezk 10 9); in the remaining verses there is uncertainty as to the order of the Heb words in the several texts. The most likely LXX equivalent of tarshīsh is either chrusolithos or bērullion; Vulg

translates hyacinthus (Cant 5 14), mare ("sea") (Ezk 1 16), chrysolithus (Ezk 10 9; Dnl 10 6). LXX gives anthrax as the 1st stone, 2d row, chrusolithos as the 1st stone, 4th row, bērullion as the 2d stone, 4th row, of the breastplate; EV translates "beryl"; AVm translates "chrysolite" (in Ezk 28 13 only); RVm translates "chalcedony" (Ex 28 20; 39 13), "topaz" (Cant 5 14) and "stone of Tarshish" (Ezk 10 9). Professor Maskelyne suggests that the stone may have been citrine (quartz), if yellow as suggested by chrusolithos, and green jasper, if green as suggested by bērullion.

Topaz: in Ex 28 17; 39 10; Job 28 19; Ezk 28 13, EV tr of Heb pitedhāh; in Rev 21 20, EV tr of Gr topazion; in Cant 5 14, RVm tr of Heb tarshīsh.

Topazion (τοπάζιον, topázion): in Rev 21 20: the 9th foundation of the New Jerusalem. According to LXX topazion was the 2d stone, 1st row, of the breastplate. Vulg translates topazius; EV translates "topaz."

The topazion of Pliny's time was "held in very high estimation for its green tints; when it was first discovered it was preferred to every other kind of precious stone." It was said to be brought from an island in the Red Sea, off the coast of Arabia. It was the only stone of high value that yielded to the action of the file. Topazion is not mentioned by Theophrastus. Pliny's account corresponds to the period of the present day (silicate of magnesium and iron), not to our topaz (fluosilicate of aluminium).

Yahălōm, יהלום: in Ex 28 18; 39 11; Ezk 28 13: the 3d stone, 2d row, of the breastplate. Owing to the uncertainty as to the order of the words in the Heb text of the LXX, there is uncertainty as to the Gr equivalent of yahālōm; probably it is one of the words chrusolithos, bērullion, onuchion, given by the LXX as the names of the stones of the 4th row. EV translates "diamond"; this is certainly wrong, for the stone had a name engraved on it and the method of engraving a diamond was not invented till 2,000 or 3,000 years after the breastplate was made; nor were diamonds, if known at all, then known so large as to be comparable in respect of size, with the other stones of the breast-plate. RVm translates "sardonyx" (in Ex only). Professor Maskelyne suggests that the Heb yahalom and the Gr hualos may be kindred words and that yahălōm may have been a bluish glass (considered valuable in very early times), or blue chalcedony, or perhaps even beryl.

Yāsh^ephēh, নেট্টা: in Ex 28 20; 39 13; Ezk 28 13: the 3d stone, 4th row, of the breastplate. LXX probably translates *iaspis*, though *iaspis* is placed by LXX as the 3d stone, 2d row; Vulg probably translates *jaspis*; EV translates "jasper." The equivalence of the Heb yāsh^ephēh and the Gr *iaspis* is generally accepted.

Zekhūkhīth, וְלְכִּיכִיה in Job 28 17: LXX translates hualos, a name given at first to any transparent stone, but in later times only to glass; Vulg translates "trum; AV translates "crystal"; RV translates "glass." Zekhūkhīth is related to a Heb word meaning "to be pure," whence the renderings crystal and glass.

LAZARUS FLETCHER

STONING, ston'ing. See Punishments.

STOOL, stool (፫፻፫፯, 'obhnayim): It is not clear what the character and purpose of this stool were (LXX has no reference to it). It seems to have been a chair of a peculiar sort upon which a woman reclined in parturition (Ex 1 16). The Heb word is in the dual number and primarily means "two stones." The only other place where it occurs is Jer 18 3, where it is rendered "wheels" (LXX $\ell\pi l \tau \hat{\omega} \nu \lambda l \theta \omega \nu$, epi tôn lithōn, "on the stones"). In 2 K 4 10, the word trd in AV as "stool" (እንዴ),

kişşē') is in RV_more correctly trd "seat." See also BIRTH-STOOL; SEAT. Jesse L. Cotton

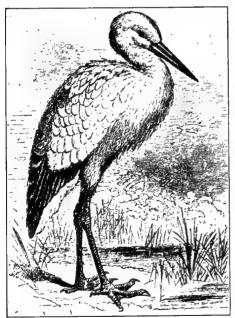
STORAX, stö'raks. See Poplar; Stacte.

STORE-CITIES, stōr'cit-iz (מְלְכָּנוֹלת , mişkenōth): RV Ex 1 11 (of Pithom and Raamses [q.v.]) for AV "treasure cities" (cf 1 K 9 19; 2 Ch 8 4.6; 16 4, etc). Depots of provisions and magazines

STOREHOUSES, stor'houz-iz, -ez: The following chief changes in the use of this word (repreing chief changes in the use of this word (representing various Heb words) in RV to be noted are: In Dt 28 8, RV has "barns" ('ἀṣāmīm); in 1 Ch 27 25, "treasures" ('ʊ̄ςārōth); in Neh 12 25, for "thresholds" has "storehouses" ('ἄsuppīm), so, for "Asuppim" in 1 Ch 26 15.17 ("house of Asuppim," "toward Asuppim") has "store-house"; in Lk 12 24, for "storehouse" has "store-chamber" (tameton). In other passages AV "storehouse" is retained (Gen 41 56; 2 Ch 32 28, miṣk*nōth; Ps 33 7. 'ḡcārōth: Jer 50 26. ma'ðhhuṣām). Ps **33** 7, 'ōçārōth; Jer **50** 26, ma'ābhuṣīm).

STORIES, stō'riz: For AV "stories" (ma'ālāth) in Am 9 6, RV reads "chambers" (in heavens); in Gen 6 16 (ark); Ezk 42 3.6 (temple), the word is supplied. RV in the latter verse reads in the text "the third story" (m as in AV). In 1 K 6 5.10, RV has "stories" (yāçīa", yāçūa"; see Temple), and in Ezk 41 6 supplies "stories."

STORK, stôrk (הְּלְּיְלֶה, ḥǎṣīdhāh; variously rendered in LXX: Lev 11 19, ἐρωδιός, erōdiós; Dt 14 18, πελεκάν, pelekán; Job 39 13, ἀσιδά,



Stork.

hasidá [transliteration of Heb]; Zec 5 9, εποψ, épops; Lat Ciconia alba): A large wading bird of the family Ardeidae, related to crane, ibis, heron and bittern. The stork on wing is a bird of exquisite beauty. The primary, secondary and a few of the tertiary wing feathers are black, the remainder, also the head, neck, and back and under parts white, the bill and legs red. When a perching white bird suddenly unfolds these wonderful wings, having at times a sweep of 7 ft., and sails away, it makes

a very imposing picture. Zechariah in a vision saw a woman having the wings of a stork; Zec 5 9, "Then lifted I up mine eyes, and saw, and, behold, there came forth two women, and the wind was in their wings; now they had wings like the wings of a stork; and they lifted up the ephah between earth and heaven." These birds winter in Africa. In their spring migration many pairs pause in Pal, others cross the Mediterranean and spread over the housetops, ruins and suitable building-places of Europe as far north as Holland and England. Always and everywhere the bird has been more or less protected on account of its fidelity to a chosen location, its fearlessness of man and the tender love between mated pairs and for its young.

The stork first appears among the birds of abomination, and it is peculiar that the crane does not, for they are closely related. But the crane eats moles, mice, lizards and smaller animals it can capture, also frogs and fish. To this same diet the stork adds carrion and other offensive matter, and the laws of Moses, as a rule, are formulated with good reason. Yet at one time, storks must have been eaten, for Pliny quoted Cornelius Nepos, who died in the days of Augustus Caesar, as saying that "in his time storks were holden for a better dish at board than cranes." Pliny adds: "Yet see, how in our age now, no man will touch a stork if it be set before him on the board, but everyone is ready to reach into the crane and no dish is more in request." He also wrote that it was a capital crime in Thessaly to kill storks, because of their work in slaying serpents. This may have been the beginning of the present laws protecting the bird, reinforced by the steady growth of respect and love for its tender, gentle disposition. The Heb word hāṣīdhāh, from which the stork took its name, means "kindness."

There is a smaller stork having a black neck and back, that homes in Pal, but only in small numbers as compared with the white. These birds flock and live in forests around the borders of waste and desert places, and build in trees. The young of both species remain a long time in the nest and are tenderly cared for, so much so indeed that from their performances and love of building on housetops arose the popular tradition that the stork delivers newly born children to homes. first appear in Lev 11 19 and Dt 14 18. Jeremiah noticed that the stork was migratory; see 8 7: "Yea, the stork in the heavens knoweth her appointed times; and the turtle-dove and the swallow and the crane observe the time of their coming; but my people know not the law of Jeh." The Psalmist referred to their nesting in the cedars of Lebanon, for in Pal these birds could not build on housetops, which were flat, devoid of chimneys and much used by the people as we use a veranda today; see Ps 104 17:

"Where the birds make their nests:
As for the stork, the fir-trees are her house."
GENE STRATTON-PORTER STORY, stō'ri. See COMMENTARY.

STORY TELLING. See GAMES, I, 4.

STORY WRITER, stō'ri-rīt-ēr: In the sense of chronicler or historian occurs in 1 Esd 2 17 (m "recorder") and 2 25.

STOUT, stout, STOUTNESS, stout'nes: In modern Eng. the word signifies strength, firmness, corpulence, etc, but in EV (Ps 76 5; Isa 10 12; 46 12; Dnl 7 20; Mal 3 13, with "stoutness" in Isa 9 9) it always means "bold" or "proud" and invariably in a bad sense; cf the Ger. stolz, with which "stout" is allied.

STRAIGHT, strāt, STRAIGHTWAY, strāt'wā: "Straight" and "strait" are two entirely different words that have no connection with each other in Eng., the former being derived from the Anglo-Saxon, while the latter has come back from the Lat through the Romance. At some point still farther back, however, the two words may have had some common original with the general meaning "to stretch." But in straight the stretched object is a cord from which all curvature is removed, while in strait a solid is thought of, which is drawn out and made narrow, used figuratively in Job 20 22; 36 16; Mt 7 13f; Phil 1 23. Before Eng. spelling had reached a relatively settled stage the spelling of the two words was interchanged occasionally, but in even Elizabethan times this could happen only through ignorance. In EV the forms are kept distinct with great care. "Straight," then, appears only in the sense "not crooked," in the OT most commonly for some form of "", yāshar, "be smooth" (2 Ch 32 30, etc). In the Apoc and NT the word is not very common, being used for δρθόs, orthós (Bar 6 27; He 12 13); εὐθόs, euthús (Jth 13 20; Mk 1 3 and | 's), with the vbs. ἀνορθόω, αποτιλόδ (Ik 13 13), and εὐθύνω, euthúnō (Jn 1 23; He 12 12 RVm), "to make a straight," and εὐθυδρομέω, euthudroméō, "to make a straight course" (Acts 16 11; 21 1). For straightway in EV overwhelmingly the most common word is εὐθύs, euthús, or εὐθέωs, euthéōs. AV varies the tr of this advb. by using either "straightway" or "immediately" without distinction, but RV (with a very few exceptions, e.g., Mt 24 29) has adhered to "straightway." The other occurrences in the Bible (1 S 9 13; 28 20, etc) represent no special word.

STRAIGHT STREET, strāt strēt. See Damascus.

STRAIN, strān (δινλίζω, diulizō, "to strain off," "to filter"): Mt 23 24, "Ye blind guides, that strain out the gnat, and swallow the camel!" The imagery is that of a drinking-vessel full of liquid, from which tiny impurities are carefully removed while immense masses of other impure matter (Lev 11 4) are overlooked (cf Mt 7 3 f). The first ed of AV read the same as RV, but in the later edd a misprint converted "strain out" into "strain at," an error that has never been corrected.

STRAIT, strāt, STRAITEN, strāt"n, STRAITLY, strāt'li: The word "strait" and its compounds are used in EV in the literal sense of "narrow" (çar, 2 K 6 1; Isa 49 20; mūçāk, Job 37 10; 'āçal, Ezk 42 6) and in the figurative sense of "strict" (shābha', Ex 13 19; sāghar, Josh 6 1; çārar, "to be distressed" 2 S 24 14||; yāgar, Job 20 22; mēçar, Lam 1 3). In Apoc the vb. "straitened" occurs in Sus ver 22. In the NT we have stenós (Mt 7 13 f||, RV "narrow"; polús, "much"; so RV Mk 3 12; 5 43; sunéchō, "to urge," "hold together," Lk 12 50; Phil 1 23). It occurs in its superlative form in Acts 26 5, "After the straitest [akribéstatos, "most exact," "scrupulous"] sect of our religion," i.e. "the most precise and rigorous in interpreting the Mosaic Law, and in observing the more minute precepts of the Law and of tradition" (Thayer, Lex., s.v.; cf Acts 22 3). See also Straatght, Straatghtway. M. O. Evans

STRAKES, strāks: An older form for "streaks" (so ARV) in AV, ERV Gen 30 37 (piçlāh, "peeled spot"); Lev 14 37 (sh*ka'čtrārōth, "hollow places"). For "strake," Tob 11 11; AV Acts 27 17, see STRIKE.

STRANGE, strānj, FIRE (אָל װֻ לָּהָה, 'ēsh zārāh, "alien fire"): These words are mentioned in connection with the fatal sin committed by the two oldest sons of Aaron, Nadab and Abihu, in "offering strange fire before Jeh," on the occasion of the formal consecration of the Aaronitic priesthood (Lev 10 1.2). The fact is mentioned again in Nu 3 4; 26 61. The greatest calamity of all befell them in that they were cut off childless, which for every true Israelite was the darkest fate imaginable. This fact is mentioned twice (Nu 3 4 and 1 Ch 24 2). The power which cut off the lives of Nadab and Abihu (Lev 10 1.2) is the same as that which shortly before had consumed the consecratory burnt offering (Lev 9 24). What was its true character, whether, as Rosenmüller and Dachsel surmise, it was a lightning stroke or some other supernatural agency, is not worth while debating. It is enough for us to know that "there came forth fire from before Jeh and devoured them." Yet this latter word is not to be taken literally, since they were carried out for burial in their own linen garments (Lev 10 5). They were therefore merely killed, not incinerated. What was their sin? The words "strange fire" have been explained either as common fire, which they placed in their censers, or as unholy incense, which they put thereon (Ex 39 38). But the text plainly points to the former. The sacred fire, once kindled on the altar, was never to be permitted to go out (Lev 6 12 f). When later the temple was dedicated Jeh again lighted the fire on the altar from heaven, as in the case of the dedication of the tabernacle. As, however, the injunction to take fire for the censers of the incense offering only from the coals of the altar is not found before (Lev 16 12), Rosenmüller's observation would seem to be very much to the point: "Quamquam enim in iis quae praecedunt, non extat hoc interdictum, tamen est verisimile Mosem vetasse Aaroni et filiis eius ne ignem alienum altari imponerent." ("For although his injunction does not hold in regard to the preceding cases, yet it is very probable that Moses had forbidden Aaron and his sons to place strange fire upon the A verbal injunction of Moses must have preceded the fatal mistake. But the text leads us to believe there was more than a mistake here. Some find here the sin of drunkenness, from the enjoined abstinence from any intoxicating drink before the priests thereafter minister before Jeh (Lev 10 The likeliest explanation is that, inflated with pride on account of the exaltation of the Aaronitic family above all Israel, they broke unbidden into the ritual of the consecration of the tabernacle and priesthood, eager to take part in the ceremony, and in their haste bringing strange fire into the tabernacle, and thus met their death (see Oehler, OT Theol., 126, 282). The fire burning on the altar came from God, it might never go out, since it represented "the unbroken course of adoration of Jeh, carried on in sacrifice." And this course was interrupted by Nadab and Abihu. The fire on the altar was a symbol of holiness, and they sought to overlay it with unholiness. And thus it became to them a consuming fire, because they approached the Holy One in a profane spirit (cf Isa 33 14).

HENRY E. DOSKER STRANGE GODS. See Gods, Strange.

STRANGE WIFE: "Strange" as contrasted with "an Israelite." Such wives are spoken of in AV Ezr 10 2.11 (ERV "strange women," ARV "foreign women"; see Stranger and Sojourner; in the || 1 Esd 8 68—9 37, AV uses "strange wives" and "strange women" indifferently, and RV here follows AV) as "wives of the people of the land," in taking whom the men of Israel are said

to have "trespassed against their God." ingly such wives were "put away." Accord-

STRANGE WOMAN: The Heb 7, zār, trd "stranger," meant primarily one "who turns aside," i.e. to visit another country; then a "sojourner," iteranger." The "strange woman" of Prov 2 16 is a technical term for "harlot"; cf Jgs 11 1.2, where "son of a strange [RV "another"] woman" (ver 2, 'aħēr) is parallel to "the son of a harlot" (ver 1). See Strange Wife.

STRANGER, strānj'er, AND SOJOURNER (IN THE OT):

I. The gēr
1. Legal provisions
(1) Principles
(2) Rules
2. Relation to Sacrifice and Ritual
3. Historical Circumstances
II. The tōshābh
II. The nokhrī or ben nēkhār
1. Morriegra
1. Morriegra

1. Marriage 2. Exclusion of Some Races from the Assembly

2. Exclu The zār

Four different Heb words must be considered separately: (1) אָל, $g\bar{e}r$, ARV "sojourner" or "stranger"; (2) אָלָּדְרָ $t\bar{o}sh\bar{a}bh$, ARV "sojourner"; (3) הַלְּרִר , $nokhr\bar{\imath}$, בֹּרְר, $t\bar{o}sh\bar{a}bh$, $t\bar{o}sh\bar{a}bh$

I. The ger.—This word with its kindred vb. is applied with slightly varying meanings to anyone who resides in a country or a town of which he is not a full native land-owning citizen; e.g., the word is used of the patriarchs in Pal, the Israelites in Egypt, the Levites dwelling among the Israelites (Dt 18 6; Jgs 17 7, etc), the Ephraimite in Gibeah (Jgs 19 16). It is also particularly used of free aliens residing among the Israelites, and it is with the position of such that this article deals. This position is absolutely unparalleled in early legal systems (A. H. Post, Grundriss der ethnologischen Jurisprudenz, I, 448, n. 3), which are usually far from favorable to strangers.

(1) Principles.—The dominant principles of the

legislation are most succinctly given in two pas-

sages: He "loveth the $g\bar{e}r$ in giving him food and raiment" (Dt 10 18); 1. Legal "And if a ger sojourn with thee [variant Provisions "you"] in your land, ye shall not do The ger that sojourneth with you shall him wrong. be unto you as the home-born among you, and thou shalt love him as thyself; for ye were gerim in the land of Egypt" (Lev 19 33 f). This treatment of the stranger is based partly on historic recollection, partly on the duty of the Israelite to his God. Because the ger would be at a natural disadvantage through his alienage, he becomes one of the favorites of a legislation that gives special protection to the weak and helpless.

(2) Rules. In nationality the freeman followed his father, so that the son of a $g\bar{e}r$ and an Israelitess was himself a $g\bar{e}r$ (Lev **24** 10–22). Special care was to be taken to do him no judicial wrong (Dt 1 16; 24 17; 27 19). In what may roughly be called criminal law it was enacted that the same rules should apply to $g\bar{e}r\bar{t}m$ as to natives (Lev 18 26, which is due to the conception that certain abominations defile a land; 20 2, where the motive is also religious; 24 10–22; see SBL, 84 ff; Nu 35 15). A free Israelite who became his slave was which the red-partial than the relationship to red-partial than the relationship. subject to redemption by a relative at any time on payment of the fair price (Lev 25 47 ff). This passage and Dt 28 43 contemplate the possibility of a stranger's becoming wealthy, but by far the greater number of the legal provisions regard him as probably poor. Thus provision is made for him to participate in tithes (Dt 14 29; 26 12), gleanings

of various sorts and forgotten sheaves (Lev 19 10; 23 22; Dt 24 19.20.21), and poor hired servants were not to be oppressed (Dt 24 14).

Nearly all the main holy days apply to the gēr. He was to rest on the Sabbath (Ex 20 10; 23 12, etc), to rejoice on Weeks and Tabernacles

2. Relation (Dt 16), to observe the Day of Atone-to Sacrifice ment (Lev 16 29), to have no leaven and Ritual on the Festival of Unleavened Bread

(Ex 12 19). But he could not keep the Passover unless he underwent circumcision (12 48). He could not eat blood at any rate during the wilderness period (Lev 17 10-12), and for that period, but not thereafter, he was probihited from eating that which died of itself (Lev 17 15; Dt 14 21) under pain of being unclean until the even. He could offer sacrifices (Lev 17 8 f; 22 18; Nu 15 14 f), and was subject to the same rules as a native for unwitting sins (15 22-31), and for purification for uncleanness by reason of contact with a dead body (Nu 19 10–13).

The historical circumstances were such as to render the position of the resident alien important

from the first. A "mixed multitude" went up with the Israelites from Egypt, 3. Historical Circum- and after the conquest we find Israelites and the races of Pal living side by side throughout the country. We stances

repeatedly read of resident aliens in the historical books, e.g. Uriah the Hittite. According to 2 Ch 2 17 f (Heb 16 f) there was a very large number of such in the days of Solomon, but the figure may be excessive. These seem to have been the remnant of the conquered tribes (1 K 9 20 f). Ezekiel in his vision assigned to $g\bar{e}r\bar{r}m$ landed inheritance among the Israelites (47 22 f). Hospitality to the gēr was of course a religious duty and the host would go to any lengths to protect his guest (Gen 19; Jgs 19 24).

II. The toshabh.—Of the toshabh we know very little. It is possible that the word is practically synonymous with $g\bar{e}r$, but perhaps it is used of less permanent sojourning. Thus in Lev 22 10 it appears to cover anybody residing with a priest. A tōshābh could not eat the Passover or the "holy" things of a priest (Ex 12 45; Lev 22 10). children could be purchased as perpetual slaves, and the law of the Jubilee did not apply to them as to Israelites (Lev 25 45). He is expressly mentioned in the law of homicide (Nu 35 15), but otherwise we have no information as to his legal position. Probably it was similar to that of the

III. The nokhrī.—The nokhrī or ben nēkhār was a foreigner. The word is far wider than those considered above. It covers everything of alien or foreign character regardless of the place of residence. By circumcision a foreign slave could enter into the covenant with Abraham. Foreigners were of course excluded from the Passover (Ex 12 43), but could offer sacrifices to Israel's God at the religious capital (Lev 22 25). The Israelite could exact interest of them (Dt 23 20) and the payment of debts in cases where an Israelitish debtor was protected by the release of Dt 15 (ver 3). Moses forbade the appointment of a foreigner as a ruler (Dt 17 15, in a law which according to MT relates to a "king," but in the preferable text of LXX to a ruler generally). Later the worship of God by foreigners from a distance was contemplated and encouraged (1 K 8 41-43; Isa 2 2f; 56 3.6f; etc), while the case of Naaman shows that a for-eigner might worship Him abroad (2 K 5 17). A resident foreigner was of course a ger. The distinction between these three words is perhaps best seen in Ex 12 43.45.48 f. In the first of these verses we have ben nēkhār, used to cover "alien"

generally; in the last the $g\bar{e}r$ is contemplated as likely to undergo a complete naturalization; while in ver 45 the $t\bar{o}sh\bar{a}bh$ is regarded as certain to be outside the religious society.

In the earlier period marriages with foreigners are common, though disliked (e.g. Gen 24 3; 27 46 ff; Nu 12 1; Jgs 14 3, etc).

1. Marriage The Law provides for some unions of this kind (Dt 21 10 ff; cf Nu 31 18), but later Judaism became more stringent. Moses required the high priest to marry a virgin of his own people (Lev 21 14); Ezekiel limited all descendants of Zadok to wives of the house of Israel (44 22); Ezra and Nehemiah carried on a vigorous polemic against the intermarriage of any Jew with foreign women (Ezr 10; Neh 13 23-31).

foreign women (Ezr 10; Neh 13 23-31).

Dt further takes up a hostile attitude to Ammonites and Moabites, excluding them from the assembly

of the Lord even to the tenth generation, while the children of the third generation of Edomites and Egyptians could enter it (23 3-8 [Heb 4-9]). From 1 K 9 20.21.24; 1 Ch 22 2 we

learn of the existence of foreign quarters in Israel.

IV. The zār.—The remaining word zār means "stranger" and takes its coloring from the context. It may mean "stranger in blood," e.g. non-Aaronite (Nu 16 40 [Heb 17 5]), or non-Levite (e.g. 1 51), or a non-member of some other defined family (Dt 25 5). In opposition to priest it means "lay" (Lev 22 10-13), and when the contrast is with holy, it denotes "profane" (Ex 30 9). See Foreigner; Gentile; Proselyte; Cherethites; Pelelthites; Marriage; Commerce.

STRANGER AND SO JOURNER (IN THE APOC AND NT): The technical meaning attaching to the Heb terms is not present in the Gr words trd "stranger" and "sojourner," and the distinctions made by EV are partly only to give uniformity in the tr. For "stranger" the usual Gr word is ξένος, xένος, meaning primarily "guest" and so appearing in the combination "hatred toward guests" in Wisd 19 13 (μισοξενία, misoxenía). Xenos is the most common word for "stranger" in the NT (Mt 25 35, etc), but it seems not to be used by itself with this force in the Apoc. Almost equally common in the NT is άλλοτριος, allótrios, "belonging to another" (Mt 17 25.26; Jn 10 5 [bis]), and this is the usual word in the Apoc (Sir 8 18; 1 Macc 1 38, etc), but for some inexplicable reason RV occasionally translates by "alien" (contrast, e.g. 1 Macc 1 38; 2 7). Cf the corresponding vb. ἀπαλλοτριόω, apallotrióō (Eph 2 12; 4 18; Col 1 21). With the definite meaning of "foreigner" are άλλογενής, allogenέs, "of another nation," RV "stranger" (1 Esd 8 83; 1 Macc 3 45 [AV "alien"]; Lk 17 18 [RVm "alien"]), and άλλόφιλος, allóphulos, "of another tribe," RV "stranger" (Bar 6 5; 1 Macc 4 12, etc) or "of another nation" (Acts 10 28). For "to sojourn" the commonest form is παροικίω, paroikiō, "to dwell beside," RV always "to sojourn" (Jth 5 7; Sir 41 19; Lk 24 18 [AV "to be a stranger"]; Acts 7 6.26; Eph 2 19; 1 Pet 2 11), with παροικία, paroikia, "sojourning" (Wisd 19 10; Sir 16 8; Acts 13 17 [AV "dwelling as strangers"]; 1 Pet 1 17). In addition, ἐπιδημέω, epidēmeō, "to be among people," is trd "to sojourn" in Acts 2 10; 17 21, and its compound παρεπίδημος, parepidēmos, as "sojourner" in 1 Pet 1 1 (in He 11 13; 1 Pet 2 11, "pilgrim").

STRANGLED, stran'g'ld (Ρ϶ς, ḥānak; πνικτός, pniktós, from vb. πνίγω, pnígō, "to choke," "to

smother," "to strangle" [cf choking of swine in the lake, Mk 5 13; the seed are choked by the thorns, Mt 13 7; the servant takes his fellow-servant by the throat, AV Mt 18 28]): As adj. "strangled," used of animals deprived of life by choking, and so without the shedding of the blood. Flesh thus killed was forbidden as food among the Hebrews, because it contained the blood (Lev 17 12). Even Jewish Christians in the Jerus council thought it best to forbid things strangled to be eaten by gentile converts, so as not to give offence to Jewish sentiment, and doubtless also to prevent participation in heathen sacrificial feasts (Acts 15 20; 21 25).

STRANGLING, stran'g'ling. See Punishments

STRAW, strô, STUBBLE, stub'l: The cognates of Heb 그구, tebhen, "straw," and 비구, kash, "stubble." have been retained in the modern Arab. terms tibn and kashsh. Tibn applies to the straw which has been cut up into short pieces and more or less split by the threshing operations. It is commonly used throughout the East as a coarse fodder or roughage for domestic herbivorous animals (cf Gen 24 25.32; Jgs 19 19; 1 K 4 28; Isa 11 7 65 25). Hay and similar cured crops are practically unknown. Barley, peas and other grain, when fed to animals, are mixed with the tibn. The animals will frequently reject the tibn unless there is grain They often nose about the tibn until the grain settles to the bottom so that they can eat the latter without the straw. Straw left in the manger is thrown out in the stall to form part of the bedding (cf Isa 25 10).

Tibn is mixed with clay for plastering walls or for making sun-dried bricks. It is also mixed with lime and sand for plastering. The children of Israel had their task of brickmaking made more arduous by being required to gather stubble and prepare it by chopping it up instead of being given the already prepared straw of the threshing-

floors (Ex 5 7 ff).

Kashsh (lit. "dried up") refers to the stalks left standing in the wheat fields or to any dried-up stalks or stems such as are gathered for burning. Camels and other flocks sometimes supplement their regular meals by grazing on the stubble, otherwise it has no use. In the Bible stubble is used to typify worthless inflammable material (Ex 15 7; Job 13 25; 41 28.29; Ps 83 13; Isa 5 24, etc; 1 Cor 3 12, κολάμη, kaldmě).

מְחְבֵּן, mathbēn, is trd "straw" in Isa 25 10.

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STRAWED, strôd: Past part. of "to strew,"
"scatter," or "spread about," as powder (of the golden
calf, Ex 32 20, RV "strewed"); branches (Mt 21 8,
RV "spread"); seed (Mt 25 24.26, RV "scatter").

STREAM, strēm: (1) מַבּל, naḥal, EV "stream," as: "Behold, he smote the rock, so that waters gushed out, and streams overflowed" (Ps 78 20). Often "valley," as "the valley [AV "river"] of the Arnon" (Dt 2 24); or "brook," as "the brook (AV "river"] of Egypt" (Josh 15 4; see Brook of Egypt"); or "river," as "the river Kishon" (Jgs 4 7). (2) מַלָּה, nāhār (Aram. מָלָה, nehar [Dnl 7 10]; of Arab מַלְּה, naḥr "river"): "He bindeth the

cf Arab. (مال به معنى), nahr, "river"): "He bindeth the streams," AV "floods" (Job 28 11); "the River" (Euphrates) (Ex 23 31, etc); "Abanah and Pharpar, the rivers of Damascus" (2 K 5 12). (3) بالمالية به المالية به الم

the streams whereof make glad the city of God' (Ps 46 4); but: "The king's heart is . . . as the watercourses" (AV "rivers of water") (Prov 21 1). (4) PDN, 'āphāk, VPDN, 'āphak, "to be strong," hence "channel," "valley," as holding, confining (BDB): "the streams in the South" (Ps 126 4); elsewhere "brook," as "the brooks [AV "rivers"] of Judah" (Joel 3 18); or "channel," as "the channel of brooks" (Job 6 15); or "watercourses" (RVm "ravines," AV "rivers") (Ezk 6 3, etc). (5) the streams whereof make glad the city of God" as: "Seven other kine came up after them out of the river" (Gen 41 3); RV "stream," AV "river" (Ex 7 19; 8 5); RV "stream," AV "brook"; "The streams [m "canals"] of Egypt shall be diminished and dried up" (Isa 19 6). (6) לָבֶל, yābhāl, √ יְבֶּל, yābhal, "to bear along": "brooks and streams of waters" (Isa 30 25); cf אָנבל, yūbhal, "river," "that spreadeth out its roots by the river" (Jer 17 8); אוֹבֶל 'ābhal, "the river Ulai" (Dnl 8 2). (7) אַרָבוּן, 'nāzal, "to flow," "to trickle": "He brought streams also out of the rock" (Ps 78 16). "the stream of the brooks" (Nu 21 15); cf אָשׁרוֹת , 'ăshēdhōth, "the slopes" (Josh 10 40); "the slopes [m "springs"] of Pisgah" (Dt 3 17). (9) ποταμός, potamós, "The stream brake against that house" (Lk 6 48.49); elsewhere "river," as "the river Jordan" (Mk 1 5). (10) κλόδων, klúdōn, "stream," AV Wisd 19 7 (RV "surge"). See BROOK; CANAL; CHANNEL; RIVER; VALE; WATERCOURSE.

ALFRED ELY DAY STREET, strēt. See City.

STRENGTH, strength, OF ISRAEL: For "the strength of the children of Israel," applied to Jeh in AV Joel 3 16, RV reads "a stronghold to the children of Israel."

STRIKE, strik: The vbs. "to strike" and "to stroke" (latter not in EV) have the same derivation, and originally "strike" was the intrans, "stroke" the trans form. "Strike," however, became used in both senses (always trans in EV), while "to stroke" took on the meaning "to rub gently." But in AV this last force still belonged sometimes to "strike" and is so found in 2 K 5 11, "strike his hand over the place" (RV "wave"), and perhaps Ex 12 7.22; Tob 11 11. Otherwise AV's uses of the simple "strike" are modern, including "strike sail" (Acts 27 17; here and in Tob 11 11 with an archaic preterite "strake," elsewhere "struck"). RV's "They lowered the gear" is a more precise tr, not a modernizing of AV's Eng. The combination "to strike through," however, is not modern Eng., and was used by AV as meaning either "to pierce" (Jgs 5 26; Job 20 24; Prov 7 23; Lam 4 9) or, as an intensive, "to strike violently," "to crush" (Ps 110 5). RV has attempted to distinguish only in Hab 3 14, "pierce," m "smite." "Striking hands" is a common custom at the conclusion of a bargain (Ad Est 14 8), but in Job 17 3: Prov 6 1: 17 18: 22 26: PVm STRIKE, strik: The vbs. "to strike" and "to tom at the conclusion of a bargain (Ad Est 14 8), but in Job 17 3; Prov 6 1; 17 18; 22 26; RVm 11 15, the ceremony is used technically for an agreement to be surety for another. Striking (RVm "firing") stones to produce a fire is mentioned (2 Macc 10 3).

The past part. of "strike" is stricken (modern Eng. "struck") (cf Prov 23 35; Jer 5 3; Lam 4 9). So Isa 1 5, "Why will ye be still stricken?" is equivalent to "Why should ye receive any more blows?" (cf 16 7; 53 4.8 m). But in the phrase "stricken in age" (Gen 18 11, etc) "strike" has an older meaning, "advance."

Striker is found in 1 Tim 3 3; Tit 1 7 as a literal tr of $\pi \lambda \eta \kappa \tau \eta s$, $pl\delta kl\delta s$. A hot-tempered man, prone to physical outbursts, is meant. A **stroke** is simply a "blow," but in Dt **17** 8; **21** 5, "stroke" is used technically for "assault."

BURTON SCOTT EASTON STRINGED, stringd, INSTRUMENTS. See

STRIPES, strips. See Punishments.

STRIVE, strīv. See Games, II. 2.

STRONGHOLD, strong'hold. See FORTIFIED CITIES, IV, 1.

STUBBLE, stub'l (Ψ), kash [Ex 5 12, etc]; καλάμη, kalámē [Wisd 3 7; 1 Cor 3 12]): These Heb and Gr forms are used of the stalks of wheat, etc, left knee-high in the field by the reapers. 735, tebhen (Job 21 18), is a mixture of chopped straw and chaff produced in threshing, which is winnowed out by the fan (cf Jer 23 28; Isa 5 24; Mt 3 12). When tebhen was withheld from them the Israelites had to utilize kash for the manufacture of their bricks (Ex 5 12).

STUDS, studz (קְּלְּלְחֹן, nºkuddōth, "engraving," "stud"): Ornaments consisting of small silver points which it was proposed (Cant 1 11) to affix to the new golden "plaits" (RV) or "borders" (AV), and which were to replace the strung beads of the bride's necklace.

STUFF, stuf (בְּלִר , kelī; σκεῦος, skeúos): "Mate-STUFF, stuf (גְּלָּכִי, κείδ; σκεύοs, skeúos): "Material" for any purpose (Ezk 12 3.4.7); or "supplies" in a more general sense (Ex 36 7, Heb mεία khāh; cf AV, ERV 1 S 10 22; 25 13; 30 24 [ARV substitutes "baggage"]); frequently, "household possessions" (Gen 31 37; 45 20; Ex 22 7; Josh 7 11; Neh 13 8; Jth 16 19; AV 15 11 [skeuásmata, RV "furniture"]; AV Lk 17 31, where RV reads "goods"). "Mingled stuff" is the tr of sha'atnēz in RV instead of "garment of divers sorts" AV (Dt 22 11).

STUMBLING-BLOCK, stum'bling-blok, STUM-BLING-STONE (מֶּכְשֶׁלֶה, mikhshōl, מֶּכְשֶׁלֶה, makhshēlāh; πρόσκομμα, próskomma, σκάνθαλον, skándalon): These are the most important of the varied renderings of either of two cognate Heb words, or of two different Gr words. Sometimes the Gr word for "stone" (λίθος, líthos) accompanies the principal word. There is no important difference in the meaning of the words or of their renderings. RV generally substitutes "stumbling" for "offence" of AV.

The literal meaning of the Heb words—an object which causes one to stumble or fall—appears in such passages as Lev 19 14: "Thou shalt not ... put a stumblingblock [mikhshōl] before the blind" (cf Jer 6 21). But the expression is ordinarily figurative, referring to that which causes material ruin or spiritual downfall, which were closely connected in OT thought (Ps 119 165; Ezk 21 15). The things that lead astray are silver and gold (Ezk 7 19); idols (Ezk 14 3; Zeph 1 3, etc).

One of the NT words, σκάνδαλον, skándalon, lit. means the stick of a trap to which the bait is

attached, and which when touched springs the trap. Figuratively either word refers to a thing or a person that leads one to fall into error, into sin or into destruction: the cross of Christ (Gal 5 11; Rom 11 9); another's liberty (1 Cor 8 9); Peter in Mt 16 23; Christ, whose life and character were so different from Jewish expectation (Rom 9 33). See GEORGE RICE HOVEY also Offence.

SUA, sū'a (Σονά, Souá; AV Sud): Name of a family of temple-servants who went up from exile with Zerubbabel (1 Esd 5 29)="Sia" of Neh 7 47; "Siaha" of Ezr 2 44.

SUAH, sū'a ($\square \exists 0$), $\mathfrak{s}\overline{u}^a h$): Son of Zophah, of the tribe of Asher (1 Ch 7 36).

SUBAI, sū'bà-ī, sū'bī (Συβαεί, Subaei): Name of a family of temple-servants who returned with Zerubbabel (1 Esd 5 30)="Shamlai" of Ezr 2 46; "Salmai" of Neh 7 48.

SUB-APOSTOLIC LITERATURE. See LITERATURE, SUB-APOSTOLIC.

SUBAS, sū'bas (Σουβάs, Soubás; AV Suba): Name of a family of "the sons of the servants of Solomon" returning with Zerubbabel (1 Esd 5 34), wanting in the || lists of Ezr 2 57; Neh 7 59.

SUBORN, sub-ôrn' (ὑποβάλλω, hupobállō [Acts 6 11; only here in the NT]): The word means to introduce by collusion, to put one person in the place of another, to employ anyone in a secret manner and instruct such a one to act for and as though he were another person.

SUBSTANCE, sub'stans (שובר), rekhūsh; ὑπόστασις, hupóstasis): Lit. that which stands under, is in the Bible used chiefly of material goods and possessions. In the OT it is the tr of numerous Heb words, of which rekhūsh, "that which is gathered together," is one of the earliest and most significant (Gen 12 5; 13 6; 15 14; 1 Ch 27 31; Ezr 8 21, etc). In the NT "substance" appears in a few passages as the tr of ousta, "being," "subsistence" (Lk 15 13), húparxis, "goods," "property" (He 10 34), hupárchonta, "things at hand" (Lk 8 3). Special interest attaches to He 11 1, AV "Now faith is the substance of things hoped for," etc, where the word is used in its proper etymological sense as the tr of hupostasis, "that which stands under." RV changes to "assurance," m "the giving substance to," which last seems best to bring out the idea of faith as that which makes the things hoped for real to the soul. The same Gr word hupostasis is rendered "substance" in He 1 3 RV, instead of AV "person," with reference to Christ, "the very image [m "impress"] of his substance," i.e. of God's invisible essence or being, the manifestation of God Himself.

SUBTIL, sub'til, SUBTLE, sut''l, SUBTLETY, sut''l-ti, SUBTILTY (מְּבְּרָל, hākhām, בָּרֶל, nākhal, הֹרְבָּרָל, mirmāh; δόλος, dólos): These words are used (1) in a good sense: 2 S 13 3, hākhām, "wise," "Jonadab was a very subtil [ARV "subtle"] man" (discreet); Prov 1 4, 'ormāh, "prudence," "to give subtilty to the simple," ARV and ERVm "prudence"; Wisd 7 22, leptôs, "thin," said of the spirit in Wisdom (very fine or refined); 8 8, strophê, "winding," "subtilties of speeches"; Ecclus 39 2, "subtil parables," RV "the subtilties of parables"; (2) in a bad sense: Gen 3 1, 'ārām, "crafty," "Now the serpent was more subtil than any beast of the field," ARV "subtle."

Gen 27 35, mirmāh, "deceit," "fraud," "Thy brother came with subtilty," RV "with guile"; Ps 105 25, nākhal, "to deceive," AV "deal subtilly," ARV "subtly"; Prov 7 10, nāṣar, "to watch," "guard," "to be hidden or subtle of heart," RV "wily," m "close,' Heb 'guarded'"; 2 K 10 19, 'okebhāh, "deceit" or "treachery" (here only); Jth 5 11, katasophtzō, "to use subtlety"; Ecclus 19 25, panourgia, "cunning," "unscrupulousness," "There is an exquisite subtilty, and the same is unjust"; 2 Cor 11 3, "The serpent beguiled Eve through his subtilty," RV "in his craftiness";

Mt 26 4, dolos, "deceit," "that they might take Jesus by subtlety, and kill him"; Acts 13 10, "O full of all subtilty and all mischief," RV "all guile and all villany."

ERV has "subtilty" for "wisdom" (Prov 8 5.12), m and ARV, "prudence"; for "with subtilty" (ERV Mk 14 1, AV "by craft") ARV has "with subtlety." W. L. WALKER

SUBURBS, sub'ûrbz. See City.

SUBVERT, sub-vûrt' (ΓΤ), 'āwath; ἀνατρέπω, anatrépō): Occurs 5 t: (1) in the sense of overturning, etc, as the tr of 'āwath, "to make bent or crooked" (Lam 3 36), "to subvert a man in his cause"; of anaskeuázō, primarily, "to pack up baggage"; then, "to ravage," etc (Acts 15 24, "subverting your souls"); of anatrepō, "to turn upside down," "to overturn" (Tit 1 11, "who subvert whole houses," RV "overthrow"); of katastrophē, "overthrow," "destruction" (2 Tim 2 14, "to the subverting ekstréphō, "to turn or twist out," "to turn about" (Tit 3 11, "such is subverted," RV "perverted"). For "overthrown me' (Job 19 6) RV has "subverted me [in my cause]," m "overthrown me"; for "perverteth" (Prov 19 3), "subverteth."

SUCATHITES, sū'kath-īts (Δτρ. δ. sūkhāthīm; Β, Σωχαθιείμ, Sōchathieim, Α, Σωκαθιείμ, Sōkathieim; AV Suchathites): These are named only once (1 Ch 2 55), a family of scribes living at Jahez.

SUCCEED, suk-sēd', SUCCESS, suk-ses' (ὑΤς, yārash, ὑτῷ, sākhal; εὐημερία, euēmeria): "To succeed" means, (1) and originally, "to follow after"; (2) mostly in modern Eng., "to prosper"; in AV, with one exception, the word has a qualifying adjective. (1) In the first sense it is the tr of yārash, "to seize" or "to take possession" (Dt 2 12; 12 29, ARV "dispossessest," ERV "possessest"); of kām, "to rise up" (Dt 25 6, "shall succeed in the name of his brother"); of diadéchomai (Ecclus 48 8, "prophets to succeed after him"). (2) In the sense of prospering, "success" is the tr of sākhal, "to be wise," "to prosper" (Josh 1 8, "Thou shalt have good success," AVm "do wisely," RVm "deal wisely"; cf AVm Job 22 2; Ps 111 10; Prov 3 4); "good success" occurs in Tob 7 12, euodósei tá kállista; Wisd 13 19, epituchía; Ecclus 20 9, euodía, RV "prosperity," "There is a prosperity that a man findeth in misfortunes; and there is a gain that turneth to loss"; 38 13, euōdía (so \times C—this word = "sweet savor," "fragrance"; cf Phil 4 18; Eph 5 2; 2 Cor 2 15). See further Euodia. RV "the issue for good"; 1 Macc 4 55, euodóō; 8 23, kalôs, etc. "Success," simply (as "prosperity," euēmeria), 2 Macc 10 28, "a pledge of success and victory"; "successor" occurs (Ecclus 46 1, "Joshua was the successor [diádochos] of Moses"; 2 Macc 9 23; 14 26).

W. L. Walker

SUCCOR, suk'ēr, SUCCORER, suk'ēr-ēr (ΤΙΝ, 'āzar; βοηθέω, boēthêō, προστάτις, prostâtis): Is the tr of 'āzar, "to gird" (2 S 8 5, etc); of boētheō, "to come in aid of" (2 Cor 6 2, "In a day of salvation did I succor thee"; He 2 18, "He is able to succor them that are tempted"); of prostatis, "one standing before" (Rom 16 2, ARV "helper of many"); of antilēpsis (Ecclus 51 7, AV "I looked for the succour of men, but there was none"); of phugadeulērion (1 Macc 1 53, "flee for succor," RV "place of refuge"); of sôzō (2 44, "for succor," RV "for safety"); of sképē (2 Macc 5 9, RV "shelter"); "succors" occurs (Wisd 17 12, AV boēthēma, "for

fear is nothing else but a betraying [RV "surrender"] of the succours which reason offereth"); "succoreth" (1 Macc 12 15, boētheō, "help from heaven that succoureth us," RV "to help us"). RV has "succor" for "help" (1 Ch 18 5); "O thou my succor," for "O my strength" (Ps 22 19). W. L. WALKER

SUCCOTH, suk'oth, suk'oth (בּוֹת), sukkoth, "booths"; Σκηναί, Skēnai, Σοκχώθ, Sokchoth, etc): After parting with Esau, Jacob journeyed to Succoth, a name which he gave to the place from the "booths" which he erected to shelter his cattle (Gen 33 17). It was in the territory of Gad, and is mentioned with Beth-nimrah (Josh 13 27). In his pursuit of Zeba and Zalmunnah, Gideon seems to have retraced the path followed by Jacob, passing Succoth before Penuel (Jgs 8 5 ff). Their churlish-Succoth before Penuel (Jgs 8 5 ff). Their churlishness on that occasion brought dire punishment upon the men of Succoth. Gideon on his return "taught them" with thorns and briers (ver 16). "taught them" with thorns and briers (ver 16). In the soil of the valley between Succoth and Zarethan, which was suitable for the purpose, the brass castings of the furniture for Solomon's Temple were made (1 K 7 46; 2 Ch 4 17). Jerome (on Gen 33 17) says that in his day it was a city beyond Jordan in the district of Scythopolis. From the above data it is clear that Succoth lay on the E. of the Jordan and N. of the Jabbok. From Ps 60 6; 108 7, we may infer that it was close to the Jordan valley, part of which was apparently known by its name. Neubauer (Géog. du Talm. 248) gives the Talmudic name as Tar'ala. Merrill (East of the Jordan, 386) and others compare this with Tell Deir 'Allā, the name of an artificial mound about a mile N. of the Jabbok, on the edge of the valley, fully 4 miles E. of the Jordan. There is a place called $S\bar{a}k\bar{u}t$ W. of the Jordan, about 10 miles S. of $Beis\bar{a}n$. This has been proposed by some; but it is evident that Succoth lay E. of the river. No trace of the name has been found here

W. Ewing Succoth (Γίρο, şukkōth; Σοκχάθ, Sokchōth [Ex 12 37; 13 20; Nu 33 5]): The first station of the Hebrews on leaving Rameses (see Exodus). The word means "booths." The distance from Etham (q.v.) suggests that the site may have lain in the lower part of Wâdy Tumeilât, but the exact position is unknown. This region seems possibly to have been called T-K-u by the Egyptians (see Pithom). Brugsch and other scholars suppose this term to have been changed to Succoth by the OT writer, but this is very doubtful, Succoth being a common Heb word, while T-K-u is Egyp. The Heb s does not appear ever to be rendered by the Egyp. The capital of the Sethroitic nome was called T-K-t (Pierret, Vocab. hiéroglyph., 697), and this word means "bread." If the region of T-K-u was near this town, it would seem to have lain on the shore road from Edom to Zoan, in which case it could not be the Succoth of the Exodus.

C. R. Conder

SUCCOTH-BENOTH, suk'oth, -oth-be'noth, -nōth (בּוֹת בְּנוֹת , şukkōth benōth; 'Poχχωθβαινειθεί, Rhochchothbaineithei, A [better]. Σοκχωθβενιθεί, Sokchöthbenithet): The name of an idol made by the Babylo-1. The Meaning according nians sent into exile at Samaria by an Assyr king (Shalmaneser), and mentioned among the deities of the various to the Hebrew nationalities there assembled (2 K 17 30). In Heb, Succoth-benoth means "booths of daughters," and has been explained as the chambers wherein the Babylonians placed women for prostitution; or booths or tabernacles in which images of certain goddesses were worshipped.

The parallelism, however, requires a deity, like the Nergal of the Cutheans, the Ashima of the Hamathites, etc, and not a chamber of shrine. This consideration caused Rawlinson's Sir H. Rawlinson to suggest an identification of Succoth-benoth with the Bab Zēr-panitum (=Zêr-banitum), whose name was probably pronounced Zēr-panith, the spouse of Merodach (the god of Babylon), as the "seed-creatress." The difference in the first component, zēr, was regarded as due to its possible Hamitic (=Sumerian) equivalent, or to a Sem mistranslation, both of which explanations are now known to be untenable.

As the people who made Succoth-benoth were

Babylonians, we should expect here either a name of Merodach, the god of Babylon, or 3. Is Sucone of the deities identified with him. coth the At present the only suggestion which Babylonian can be made is that Benoth is for n; 12, ban wath, i.e. ban'(i) mati, "creator of the land." Both the Sakut? Sem and the bilingual creation-stories speak of Merodach as the creator of the world, with its products, and the great cities of Babylonia; and "father Enlil," who bore the title "lord of the world," bestowed the same upon Merodach at the creation, thus identifying Merodach with himself. Now there is a group which may be read either Dikut, "the Judge," or Sakut, "the Counsellor," and if we can read Succoth-benoth as Sakut(h)ban' wāt(h), "the Counsellor, creator of the land," a satisfactory explanation of this puzzling name will be furnished. The terminal i of the Bab has been preserved in the et, ei, of the Gr. The adoption of such a descriptive name of Enlil-Merodach would form a compromise between abandoning their old objects of worship and accepting "the god of the land" (2 K 17 26).

T. G. PINCHES

SUCHATHITES, sū'kath-īts. See Sucathites.

SUD, sud: AV = RV SUA (q.v.).

SUDIAS, sū'di-as (Σουδίαs, Soudias): In 1 Esd 5 23, a Levitical family that returned with Zerubbabel, called in Ezr 2 40 "Hodaviah" and in Neh 7 43 "Hodevah" (q.v.).

SUFFERING, suf'ër-ing: A great variety of Heb and Gr expressions, too large to be here enumerated, have been tr^d by "suffering" and other forms derived from the same vb. The most obvious meanings of the word are the following: (1) The commonest meaning perhaps in the EV is "to permit," "to allow," "to give leave to": "Moses suffered to write a bill of divorcement, and to put her away" (Mk 10 4). (2) "To experience," "to go through," "to endure": "I have suffered many things this day in a dream because of him" (Mt 27 19). A woman "had suffered many things of many physicians" (Mk 5 26). Other common phrases are "to suffer affliction" (1 Thess 3 4; He 11 25, RV "share ill-treatment"), "to suffer hardship" (2 Tim 2 9), "to suffer adversity" (He 13 3 AV, RV "to be ill-treated"), "to suffer dishonor" (AV "shame," Acts 5 41), "to suffer violence" (Mt 11 12), "to suffer wrong" (Acts 7 24), "to suffer terror" (Ps 88 15), "to suffer shipwreck" (2 Cor 11 25), "to suffer thirst" (Job 24 11). (3) "To put up with," "to tolerate": AV, "For ye suffer fools gladly (RV "ye bear with the foolish gladly"), seeing ye yourselves are wise" (2 Cor 11 19). (4) "To undergo punishment": "Think ye that these Galileans were sinners above all the Galileans, because they have suffered these

things?" (Lk 13 2). (5) "To sustain loss": "If any man's work shall be burned, he shall suffer loss" (1 Cor 3 15; also Phil 3 8). (6) "To suffer death." Here the clearest references are to the suffering or passion of Christ, which indeed includes the enduring of untold hardships and affliction, all of which culminate in His vicarious death for man (Mt 16 21; Mk 8 31; 9 12; Lk 9 22; 17 25; 22 15; 24 26.46; Acts 3 18; 17 3; 26 23; 1 Pet 3 18).

Suffering belongs to the discipline of all Christ's followers (Rom 8 17; 2 Cor 17; Gal 3 4; Phil 3 10; 1 Thess 2 2; 2 Thess 1 5; 2 Tim 2 12; 3 12; Jas 5 10; 1 Pet 2 20 f; 3 14.17; 4 1.13.16; 5 10). Such suffering is called a suffering for God's or Christ's sake (Jer 15 15; Acts 9 16; Phil 1 29; 2 Tim 1 12). This fellowship in suffering unites us with the saints of God in all times (Jas 5 10), and is indeed a fellowship with the Lord Himself (Phil 3 10), who uses this discipline to mold us more and more according to His character.

H. L. E. LUERING
SUFFOCATION, suf-ö-kā/shun. See Punishments.

SUICIDE, sū'i-sīd. See CRIMES.

SUKKIIM, suk'i-im (๑๘೬೬೦, şukkīyīm): Named in 2 Ch 12 3 as a tribe that took part with Libyans and Cretans in the invasion of Judaea by Shishak. The identification is uncertain.

SULPHUR, sul'fur. See BRIMSTONE.

SUMMER, sum'er ("), kayic; Aram. U), kayit [Dnl 2 35], from "), kūc, U), kūt, "to cut off," "to pluck or gather fruit," hence the time of fruit, summer [2 S 16 1.2; Jer 40 10.12]; 6¢pos, théros [Mt 24 32; Lk 21 30]): The Heb vb., mentioned above, occurs in Isa 18 6, "to summer," used of the ravenous birds feeding upon carcases of the slain. The term "summer parlor" in Jgs 3 20 (cf ver 24) is lit. "upper room," and is so rendered in RV. The summer was the dry season extending from April to October when usually no rain falls. Hence the "drought of summer" (Ps 32 4). See Seasons.

H. Porter

SUMMER-HOUSE (אָבֶּרֶת הַּקְּלֵּת): Am 3 15 notes it as part of the judgment on Israel that Jeh would smite "the winter-house with the summer-house." It belonged to the luxury of the period that kings and wealthy persons had separate residences for the cold and hot seasons. This is the only mention of "the summer-house," but Eglon's "cool upper room" (Jgs 3 20, AV and ERV "summer parlour," not in this case a separate building) may be compared. See Winter-House.

SUN. See ASTRONOMY, I, 2.

SUN (Figurative): Poetical conceptions for the sun are frequently found in the Scriptures, though the strictly figurative expressions are not common. Undoubtedly the Jewish festivals, religious as well as agricultural, were determined by the sun's movements, and this fact, together with the poetical nature of the Hebrews and their lack of scientific knowledge, had a tendency to multiply spiritual and metaphorical expressions concerning the "greater light" of the heavens. Some of these poetical conceptions are very beautiful, such as the sun having a habitation (Hab 3 11), a tabernacle (Ps 19 4f) set for him by Jeh, out of which he comes as a bridegroom from his chamber, rejoicing as a strong man to run a race. The sun is also

given as the emblem of constancy (Ps 72 5.17), of beauty (Cant 6 10), of the law of God (Ps 19 7), of the purity of heavenly beings (Rev 1 16; 12 1), and of the presence and person of God (Ps 84 11). The ancient world given to personifying the sun did not refrain from sun-worship, and even the Hebrew in the time of the kings came perilously near this idolatry (2 K 23 11). See Sun-worship.

C. E. SCHENK
SUN, CHARIOTS OF THE. See Horses of
THE SUN.

SUN GATE. See East GATE.

SUN, HORSES OF THE. See Horses of the Sun.

SUN-IMAGES. See IMAGES.

SUNDAY, sun'da. See Lord's Day.

SUNRISING, sun'riz-ing: A frequent designation in the OT for the East (Nu 21 11; Dt 4 41.47; Josh 1 15, etc). In Rev 7 2, RV has "sunrising" for AV "east."

SUN, SMITING, smit'ing, BY: Exposure of the uncovered head to the heat of the sun is likely to produce either of two conditions; the commoner is heat exhaustion with faintness, the rarer is heatstroke with fever and paralysis of the heat-regulating apparatus of the nervous system. This condition is described as siriasis. The two fatal instances recorded were probably of the latter kind. One, the case of the Shunammite's son (2 K 4 19), was apparently very acute, like some of the cases described by Manson and Sambon. Of the other case, that of Manasseh, Judith's husband, we have no particulars (Jth 8 3), except that it was likewise brought on by exposure in the harvest field, and occurred at the time of barley harvest, that is, early in May. Jonah's attack was one of heat syncope, as he fainted from the heat (Jon 4 8). According both to psalmist (Ps 121 6) and to prophet (Isa 49 10), the people of God are protected from the stroke of the sun as well as from that of the The latter was supposed to cause lunacy (hence the name), and epilepsy, so in Mt 4 24 the word rendered "lunatic" (AV) for "epileptic" (RV) is selēniazomėnous, lit. "moon_struck." See ALEX. MACALISTER

SUNSTROKE, sun'strok. See Sun, Smiting by.

SUN-WORSHIP, sun'wûr-ship: The splendor of the sun makes it a natural object of adoration, once the purer idea of the one true God (Rom 1 20. 21) is parted with, and in most ancient nations the worship of the sun was an outstanding feature. It is found in Bab and Assyr (Šamaš; special seats of sun-worship were Sippara and Larsa); in Egypt it is a leading feature of the religion (Ra, and, under special phases, Horus, Tum, Aten; a special seat of sun-worship was Heliopolis, the OT On, called in Jer 43 13 Beth-shemesh, "house of the sun"). Other cities bore the same name: Beth-shemesh (Josh 15 10=Ir-shemesh; 19 41, in Judah; Josh 19 22, in Issachar; 19 38, in Naphtali; see Beth-shemesh). Allusions to, and warnings against, sun-worship are frequent in the OT, as in Lev 26 4.6, in which passages for AV "images," "idols," RV has "sun-images" (q.v.); Job 31 26.27 and numerous passages show that this form of idolatry latterly penetrated deeply into Judah—even into its temple-worship (2 K 23 5.11, "horses given to the sun" [see under Horses of The Sun,

"Chariots of the Sun"]; and Ezk 8 16). Josiah's reformation took account of these abuses (2 K 23 5.11 ff; 2 Ch 34 4.7), and Ezekiel strenuously denounced them (8 16 ff).

James Orr

SUP, SUPPER, sup'er. See MEALS.

SUPERFLUOUS, sū-pūr'floō-us, SUPERFLUITY, sū-pēr-floō'i-ti (Στω, sāra'; περισσός, perissós [2 Cor 9 1], περισσέα, perisséa]: According to the Levitical Law, "a blind man, or a lame, or he that hath a flat nose, or anything superfluous" could not fulfil priestly functions (Lev 21 18; 22 23). According to Dillmann (Baentsch, BDB) the word should be rendered "a limb too long," but Ewald (following the LXX) suggests "having cropped ears." The only instance of superfluity occurs in Jas 1 21, AV "superfluity of naughtiness"; according to Mayor "overflowing ebullition of malice" (RV "overflowing of wickedness," m "malice"); but the Gr word is used in other connections, e.g. of "grace" (Rom 5 17); "joy" (2 Cor 8 2).

SUPERSCRIPTION, sû-pēr-skrip'shun (ἐπιγραφή, epigraphē): (1) The legend on a coin designating the person in whose honor or by whose authority it is issued (Mt 22 20; Mk 12 16; Lk 20 24). (2) The accusation on the cross of Jesus (Mk 15 26; Lk 23 38). According to Rom custom an inscription bearing the charge or ground of a criminal's condemnation was fixed to the cross on which he was crucified. The use of such an inscription at the crucifixion of Jesus is mentioned by all four evangelists. The fullest description is that of Mark, "the superscription of his accusation" (ἡ ἐπιγραφἡ τῆs alrlas ἀυτοῦ, hē epigraphē tēs aitias autoū) (15 26). Matthew calls it more briefly "his accusation" (τὴν alrlaν αὐτοῦ, tēn aitian autoū) (27 38), while Luke styles it merely "a superscription" (epigraphē) (23 38). In the Fourth Gospel it is called a "title" (τίτλον, titlon) (Jn 19 19). The text of the superscription is given by the four evangelists in varying terms and with various degrees of fulness. Russell Benjamin Miller

SUPERSTITION, sū-pēr-stish'un, SUPERSTITIOUS, sū-pēr-stish'us (δεισιδαιμονία, deisidaimonía, "fearing demons"): The Bib. use of these words is limited to that of the former in Acts 25 19 AV, and of the latter in Acts 17 22. In the former reference, Festus speaks of the Jews' "superstition" (RV "religion"), thus artfully dodging an avowal of his own convictions "respecting the Heb faith." In Acts 17 22 AV Paul tactfully refers to the Athenians as being "too superstitious" (RV "too religious"), thus using the term correctly from both their and his point of view. They were truly too "religious" with their superstitions.

LEONARD W. DOOLAN
SUPH, soof (TTO, sūph; πλησίον τῆs ἐρυθρᾶs [θαλάσσηs], plēsion tēs eruthrás [thalássēs]; AV Red Sea): As the verse stands, the place where Moses addressed the children of Israel is indicated as "beyond the Jordan in the wilderness, in the Arabah over against Suph" (Dt 1 1). AV, following LXX, takes the name as a contraction of yām sūph (see Red Sea). The abbreviation is not found elsewhere. The name of the sea was not derived from that of a city; so we need not look in that direction. Knobel suggested Nakb eṣ-Ṣafā, a pass about 25 miles W.S.W. of the Dead Sea. But it is "unsuitably situated; nor does the name agree phonetically (for agrees with \(\frac{\mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}}\), not with \(\frac{\mathbf{D}}{\mathbf{D}}\))" (Driver, "Dt," ICC, 4). No identification is possible.

W. EWING

SUPHAH, soō'fā (πτρηο, sūphāh, for πτρηος της, wāhēbh b'sūphāh; LXX reads τῆν Ζωὼβ ἐφλόγισε, tên Zōōb ephlógise; AV Rea Sea): Suphah is the region in which Vaheb is situated (Nu 21 14). It is probably identical with Suph of Dt 1 1. Tristram (Land of Moob, 50 f) suggested identification with Ghōr eṣ-Ṣāfiyeh, a small oasis E. of the mud flats of Eṣ-Sēbkhah, S. of the Dead Sea; but "the sibilants do not correspond, and Ṣāfiyeh is a specifically Arab. term (Wetzstein in Delitzsch, Gené, 586, n. 2) which does not seem to be a likely explanation of Suphah' (Gray, "Nu," ICC, 285 f). This, and other questions of identification, must wait for solution until a more thorough exploration of the whole district has been accomplished.

SUPPER, sup'er. See Meals.

SUPPER, LORD'S. See LORD'S SUPPER.

SUPPLY, su-plī': Phil 4 19 for πληρόω, plērόō; 1 Cor 16 17; Phil 2 30 for ἀναπληρόω, anaplērόō; 2 Cor 9 12 (AV); 11 9 for προσαναπληρόω, prosana-plēróō. All three vbs. mean "to fill," the 3d containing the additional connotation "fill up to a certain point." Eph 4 16; Phil 1 19 for the noun ἐπιχορηγία, epichorēgia, lit. "an additional supply." But no special force of "additional" seems to be contained in the passages. In 2 Cor 9 10a; Gal 3 5; Col 2 9; 2 Pet 1 5.11, we have ἐπιχορηγέω, epichorēgēō, "to furnish besides," i.e. fully supply; in 2 Cor 9 10b; 1 Pet 4 11 the simple chorēgēō, "to furnish."

SUR, sûr (B, 'Aσσούρ, Assoúr, A, Σούρ, Soúr): Those that dwelt in Sur are mentioned along with the inhabitants of Sidon, Tyre, Ocina, etc, as dreading the approach of Holofernes and the Assyr army (Jth 2 28). The names run from N. to S., and Sur immediately follows Tyre (modern Sūr), with which, therefore, it can hardly be identified. No probable identification has been suggested. See also Jerusalem.

SURE, shoor, SURELY, shoor'li: In modern Eng. is used chiefly in the phrases "to be sure" or "to make sure," and as a simple adjective it is usually either archaic or exceedingly colloquial. The adjectival use, however, is common (chiefly for 'Tok', 'āman, "to confirm," and its derivatives) in EV, where modern Eng. would prefer "secure" or "certain" (1 S 2 35; Sir 40 25; Acts 13 34, etc). "To be sure that" is also fairly common in AV, and occasionally (as in Dt 12 23, "Be sure that thou eat not the blood," for PIT, hāzak, "to be firm") it has rather more emphasis than in modern Eng. But usually the phrase is a mere periphrasis for some word meaning "to know" (cf RV Ex 3 19; Lk 10 11; Rom 2 2, etc). In Prov 6 3, AV has "Make sure thy friend" for Tot, rāhabh, "be boisterous," "beset," RV "importune." The sense is "Force him to pay his debt."

Surely in EV is used almost always to qualify an entire phrase as in Com 28 16 "Surely Ich is

Surely in EV is used almost always to qualify an entire phrase, as in Gen 28 16, "Surely Jeh is in this place." In modern Eng. "surely" used in this way suggests that the statement is being argued and is therefore slightly doubtful, but in Elizabethan Eng. the purpose is to exclude all doubt ("beyond question"). With this force AV uses "surely" to translate almost any emphatic form, and RV has conformed to AV's use, and such changes as have been made by RV (Mt 26 73; Lk 4 23; Rev 22 20, etc) are merely to preserve uniformity of rendition. The most common use of "surely" in this sense is to translate a vb. when emphasized by its own part. (absolute inf. in Heb), as "Thou shalt

surely die" (Gen 2 17) for "dying thou shalt die" (cf Gen 22 17 for the Heb construction). In this sense "surely" is sometimes varied by "of a surety" (Gen 15 13, etc) without the slightest difference in meaning (cf Gen 9 5 and 26 9). In addition, in meaning (ci Gen 3 3 and 20 3). In addition, "surely" is used occasionally as a simple advb. where modern Eng. would prefer "securely" or "certainly" (cf Prov 10 9 and AV Lk 1 1, "surely believed," RV "fulfilled," RVm "fully established").

Surety, besides its use in "of a surety" appears in the OT to translate any, 'ārabh, "to be surety," and in He 7 22 for ἔγγνος, έgguos, "guarantor," "giver of security." Modern Eng. prefers "security," as does even AV in Acts 17 9. "Suretiship" (ARV "suretyship") in Prov 11 15 for ΣΣΤ, tāka', "to strike [hands]." See STRIKE; SURETY.
BURTON SCOTT EASTON

SURETY, shoor'ti: This word is used in three

different connections or groups:

(1) As a derivative of the word "sure" it means "of a certainty" or "surely."—In Gen 15 13 the infinitive absolute of the vb. is used to give emphasis to the idea of the vb. and is rendered "of a surety." In Gen 18 13 the Heb'omnām is trd "of a surety." In Gen 26 9 'akh is similarly rendered, and has the force of our "indeed." In Acts 12 11 ἀληθῶς, alēthôs, is trd in AV "of a surety," but better in RV "of a truth."

(2) In the sense of security or pledge for a person. This means that one person may become security for another, that such a one will do a certain thing at a time in the future. Judah was "surety" to his father Jacob that Benjamin would safely return from Egypt (Gen 43 9). He pledged his life that the younger brother would return safely. He tells Joseph (Gen 44 32) how he had become surety for Benjamin, and offers to become Joseph's slave for the sake of his brother. Job says (Job 17 3), "Give now a pledge, be surety for me with thyself; who is there that will strike hands with me?" The striking of hands refers to the action or gesture by which the surety or pledge was publicly manifested and thus ratified. Job here beseeches God to become surety for him, to pledge him that some time in the future He will cause Job's innocence to be made known and be acknowledged by God Himself. In Isa 38 14 Hezekiah says, "O Lord, I am oppressed, be thou my surety." He wishes God to give him a pledge of some kind, to go security for him in such a way that he will surely be saved out of his sickness and distress. Jesus is called "the surety $[\xi\gamma\gamma\nu\sigmas,\ \epsilon ggu\sigma s]$ of a better covenant" (He 7 22). Jesus is the pledge or surety that through Him we may obtain the assurance and certainty that a more excellent covenant has been established by God, and are assured also of the truth of the promises connected with it.

(3) It is used to describe the practice of going security for another by striking hands with that person and becoming responsible for money or any object loaned.—The Book of Prov unhesitatingly condemns the practice. No mention is made of it in the Mosaic Law, as if the custom were then practically unknown. The Book of Prov makes no distinction between a stranger and a neighbor; the person who does such a thing is likened unto an animal caught in a trap. He is exhorted to sleep no more until he has got out of the trap, or freed himself from this obligation (Prov 6 1-5). The wisdom of such advice has been abundantly verified by experience. It does not necessarily certain special cases, where the practice may be justified. The international relationships of the Jews in the period of the monarchy, together with the unsettled condition of the country (Neh 5 3) and people, needed such commercial strictness.

Their trade was mostly in the hands of the Phoenicians and other foreigners, and the pressure of taxation for the payment of foreign tribute, etc, was heavy (Neh 5 4 f). Prov 11 15; 17 18 declare one "void of understanding" who thus goes security for another. Prov 20 16 seems to contain an exclamation of contemptuous rebuke for the man who goes security. Prov 22 26; 27 13 contain like admonitions. See DEBT; PLEDGE; SECURITY; JAMES JOSIAH REEVE STRIKE.

SURNAME, sûr'nām (Τζὸ, kānāh; ἐπικαλεῖν, epikalein): A word derived from the Fr., meaning "an additional name"; in modern Eng. always the family name of a person. Indeed, the spelling "surname" in AV 1 Macc 1 10; 2 2; 6 43 may be due to a confusion with "sire's name." But the custom of family names was entirely unknown among the Hebrews. The word is used twice in AV of the OT, viz. Isa 44 5; 45 4. The Heb word means "to give flattering or honorary titles." In the former passage foreigners are so envious of the prosperity of the Jews that they are anxious the prosperity of the Jews that they are anxious to be surnamed by the name of Israel, i.e. to be enrolled as members of the Jewish nation. In the latter case Jeh gives Cyrus an honorary title, viz. "servant of Jeh," and thus appoints him to be His instrument in the restoration of His people. The same word is rendered in Job 32 21, AV "give flattering titles." Elihu declares his intention to remain the situation without four or fever. He examine the situation without fear or favor. will not allow such high-sounding titles as "Your Worship" or "My Lord" to stand in his way. He will not be overawed by Job's social position. In the NT the word is used in the case of Peter—Simon whose surname is Peter (Acts 10 5.32; 11 13); of Mark—John whose surname was Mark (Acts 12 12. 25; **15** 37); of Judas—surnamed Iscariot (Lk **22** 3); of Barsabbas—who was surnamed Justus (Acts 1 23); and of Judas—surnamed Barsabbas (Acts 15 It was a widespread custom in the ancient world to give honorary and symbolical titles. Our Lord surnamed Simon Peter (Mk 3 16), and James and John Boanerges (Mk 3 17). Acts 15 37 AV has "surname" for the simple "call" (so RV).

T. Lewis SUSA, sū'sa, soo'sa (Ad Est 11 3). See Shu-

SUSANCHITES, sū-san'kīts (שׁרְשֵׁנְכֵרָאׁ shūshanekhāyē'). See Shushanchites.

SUSANNA, sū-zan'a, THE HISTORY OF:

Name Canonicity and Position Contents Fact or Fiction?

Date

6. Original Language

This novelette has, in the LXX, the bare title

"Susanna" (Σουσάννα, Sousánna, from Heb Τοῦν ὑ, shōshannāh, "lily"). So also in the seignated "Ορασις α, Horasis a (Vision I); see Bel and the Dragon, I. In the Harklensian Syr (Ball's W₂) its title is "The Book of Little [or the child?] Daniel."

Sus was with the other Additions included in the Bible Canon of the Gr. Syrian and Lat churches. Julius Africanus (c 230 AD) was the first to dispute the right of Sus to a place in the Canon, owing to its improbable character. Origen replied to him, strongly maintaining its historicity (see Schürer, GJV4, III, 455; HJP, II, 3, p. 186, where the references are given). In the LXX, Syro-Hexapla and Vulg, Sus is ch 14 of Dnl, but in @ (AB Q) it opens Dnl, preceding ch 1, a position implied in AV and RV which are based on @, formerly believed to be the true

LXX. Yet it is probable that even in @ the original place agreed with that in the true LXX (Swete's 87); so Roth (Kautzsch, Die Apok., 172) and Driver (Comm. on Dnl, Cambridge Bible, xviii). See Bel and the Dragon.

The story of Sus is thus told in Θ (Theodotion's version), and therefore in EV which follows it.

Susanna was the beautiful and devout

3. Contents wife of Joakim who resided in Babylon in the early years of the exile, and owned a fine park which was open to his fellowexiles (vs 1-4). Two of these last were elders and judges who, though held in high esteem, suffered impure thoughts toward Susanna to enter their minds. One day, meeting in the park, they divulged to each other their lustful passion toward this beautiful woman, and resolved together to seize the first opportunity to waylay her in the park and to overpower her (vs 5-15). A joint attempt was made upon Susanna, who resisted, notwithstanding threats of false accusation (vs 22-26). The elders make a false charge, both in private and in public, and she is accordingly condemned to death (vs 27-41). On the way to execution she is met by Daniel (=judge "of God") who has the case reopened, and by a system of cross-examination of the two elders succeeds in convincing the people that Susanna is innocent of the charge brought against her. She is acquitted, but her accusers are put to death.

against her. She is acquitted, but her accusers are put to death.

The story told in LXX (87) is essentially the same, though varying somewhat in details. Vs 1-4 seem to have been prefixed for clearness by 9, for in ver 7 of LXX Susanna is introduced for the first time: "These seeing a woman of beautiful appearance called Susanna, the wife of one of the Israelites," etc. The original text began therefore with ver 5, though in a slightly different form. LXX omits vs 15-18 which tell of the two elders concealing themselves and watching as Susanna entered the park and took her bath. There is not a word in LXX concerning the threats of the elders to defame Susanna in the event of her refusing what they desired (vs 20 ff); this omission makes the LXX form of the story obscure, suggesting that this section has fallen out by error. Nor does the LXX mention the crying out of Susanna and the elders (ver 24). The trial took place in the house, according to 9 (and EV) (ver 28), but, according to LXX, in the synagogue (ver 28). In LXX (ver 30) it is said that the number of Susanna's relatives, servants and servant-maids present at the trial was 500; 9 is silent on this. LXX (ver 35) makes Susanna pray to God before her condemnation, but 9 (EV, vs 42-44) after. According to LXX the young man whom the elders falsely said they found with Susanna escaped unobserved because masked; 9 says he got away because the elders had not strength to hold him (ver 39). LXX is silent about the two maids who, according to 9 (ver 36), accompanied Susanna to the bath. 9 does not speak of the angel who according to LXX imparted to Daniel the wisdom he displayed (but cf 9, ver 50); but on the other hand he adds the words ascribed to Daniel (ver 51, EV), though he leaves out the words imputed to him by LXX (=even elders may lie). LXX omits the words of the people addressed to Daniel; "What mean these words which thou hast spoken?" (ver 47, 9, EV). According to 6 (ver 50) the people entreated Daniel to act as judge among them; LXX omits the words

It is quite evident that the story is a fabrication and that it came to be attached to Dnl on account of the part played in it by Daniel

4. Fact or the judge. (1) The form of the Fiction? story differs in LXX, θ and the various Syr recensions, showing that it was a floating legend, told in manifold ways. (2) No confirmation of what is here narrated has been discovered in written or epigraphic sources. (3) The grounds on which Susanna was condemned are

trivial and wholly inadequate. (4) The conduct of the judge, Daniel, is unnatural and arbitrary.

Though, however, the story is fictitious, it rests in part or wholly on older sources. (1) Ewald (Geschichte³, IV, 386) believed that it was suggested by the Bab legend in which two old men are seduced by the goddess of love (cf Koran 2 96). (2) Brüll (Das apokryphische Sus-Buch, 1877), followed by Ball (Speaker's Apoc, II, 323-31), Marshall and R. H. Charles, came to the following conclusions: (a) That the first half of the story rests on a tradition regarding two elders (Ahab and Zedekiah) who seduced certain women by persuading them that they would thus become the mother of the Messiah. This tradition has its origin probably in Jer 29 21–23, where it is said that Jeh would sorely punish Ahab and Zedekiah because they had "committed villany in Israel," having 'committed adultery with their neighbours' wives' (AV). We can trace the above story amid many variations in the writings of Origen and Jerome and in sundry rabbinical works. (b) The trial scene is believed to have a wholly different origin. It is said to have arisen about 100-96 BC, when Simon ben Shetach was president of the Sanhedrin. His son was falsely accused of a capital offence and was condemned to death. On the way to execution the accusers admitted that he was innocent of the crime; yet at his own request the son is executed in order that the father's hands might be strengthened in the. inauguration of new reforms in the administration of justice. The Pharisees and Sadducees differed as to the punishment to be meted out to false witnesses where the death sentence was involved. The first party advocated a stricter examination of witnesses, and a severer penalty if their testimony could be proved false. The Sadducee party took up a more moderate position on both points. Sus has been held to be a kind of tract setting forth by example the views of the Pharisee party. If this opinion of the origin of Sus be accepted, this tract was written by a Palestinian Jew, a position rendered probable by other considerations.

If, as the Gr, Lat and Syr churches held and hold, Sus forms an integral part of Dnl, the date of this last book (see Daniel) is the date of Sus.

5. Date

But there is conclusive evidence that the three "Additions" circulated independently, though we have no means of fixing the date with any certainty. Perhaps this piece arose during the struggles between the Pharisees and Sadducees about 94-89 BC; see preceding section. In that case 90 BC would be a suitable date. On the date of Theodotion's tr see Daniel; Bell and the Dragon; Text and Versions.

Our materials for judging of the language in which the author wrote are slender, and no great probability can at present be reached.

6. Original The following scholars argue for a Language Gr original: Fritzsche, De Wette, Keil, Herzfeld, Graf, Holtzmann. The following are some of the grounds: (1) There are several paronomasias or word-plays, as in vs 54 f, σχίνον, schinon ["under a mastick tree"] . . . σχίσοι, schisei ("will cut"); vs 58 f, πρίνον, prinon ["under a holm tree"] πρίσαι, prisai ("to cut"). But this last word (prisai) is absent from the true LXX, though it occurs in θ (Swete's text, ver 59, has kataprisē from the same root). If the word-play in vs 58 f is due to a tr based on LXX, the first example (vs 54 f), found in LXX and θ, is as likely to be the work of the translator of those verses from the Heb. (2) It is said that no trace of a Heb original has been discovered; but up to a few years ago the same statement could have been made of Sir.

There is a growing opinion that the author wrote in Heb (or Aram.?); so Ball, J. T. Marshall, R. H. Charles. (1) The writer was almost certainly a

Palestinian Jew, and he would be far more likely to write in his own language, esp. as he seems to have belonged to the Pharisaic party, who were ardent nationalists (see preceding section, at end).
(2) There is a goodly number of Hebraisms, rather more than one would expect had the writer composed in Hellenistic Gr.

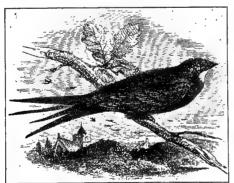
For versions and literature see Bel and the Dragon; Daniel; the Oxford Apoc, ed by R. H. Charles, 638 ff.

T. Witton Davies

SUSI, sū'sī, soo'sī (סוֹסָר, ṣūṣī): Father of Gaddi, one of the spies, who represented the tribe of Manasseh (Nu 13 11). See Gray, HPN, 92.

SWADDLE, swod'l, SWADDLING-BAND, swod'ling-band (vb. קֿתַל, hāthal, "enwrap," "swaddle" [Ezk 16 4], noun πρηπ, hǎthullāh, "swaddling-band" [Job 38 9]; vb. σπαργανόω, "swaddling-band" [Job 38 9]; vb. σπαργανόω, sparganόō, "to wrap in swaddling clothes" [Lk 2 7.12], noun σπάργανα, spárgana (pl.), "swaddling clothes" [Wisd 7 4]. AV also has "swaddle" [Lam 2 22] for ΠΡΌ, tāphah, lit. "to extend." But the word means "to common the literature of the summon the sum the word means "to carry on the outstretched palms of the hands" [cf DTDD, tippuhīm, "dandled in the hands," Lam 2 20], whence RV's "to dandle"): "To swaddle" and "to swathe" are really the same word, both forms going back to an AS form swethel, "a bandage," but "swaddle" has become the technical term for the wrapping of an infant in the Orient or elsewhere. The oriental swaddlingclothes consist of a square of cloth and two or more bandages. The child is laid on the cloth diagonally and the corners are folded over the feet and body and under the head, the bandages then being tied so as to hold the cloth in position. This device forms the clothing of the child until it is about a year old, and its omission (Ezk 16 4) would be a token that the child had been abandoned. The mention of darkness as a "swaddling-band" at the birth of the sea (Job 38 9) is only a poetic way of saying that the sea, at its creation, was covered with clouds and darkness, and to find any idea of restraint involved BURTON SCOTT EASTON is fanciful.

SWALLOW, swal'ō (פרסּד; στρουθός, strouthós, in Prov and Pss, χελιδών, chelidôn, in Isa; Lat Hirundo rustica): A small long-winged bird of



Swift (Cypselus apus).

exhaustless flight, belonging to the family Hirundinidae. Deror means the bird of freedom, and as the swallow is of tireless wing, it has been settled upon as fitting the requirements of the text. In the passages where 'āghūr is trd "swallow," there is a mistake, that word referring to the crane. There is also a word, \$\vec{u}\vec{s}\$ or \$\vec{s}\vec{s}\$, that means a rushing sound, that is incorrectly trd "swallow," when it should be "swift" (Cypselus apus).

These birds are near relatives and so alike on the wing as to be indistinguishable to any save a close observer. Yet the Hebrews knew and made a difference. The swallow is a trifle larger and different in color. It remains all the year, while in numerous instances the switt migrates and is a regular sign of returning spring. The swallow is of long and treless flight. The swift is so much faster that the sound of its wings can be heard when passing. The swallow plasters a mud nest under eaves, on towers, belfries, and close to human habitations. The swifts are less intimate, building in deserted places, under bridges and on rocky crevices. The swallow sutter constantly a rather sweet low note; the swifts chatter harshly and incessantly at their nests. These differences are observable to the most careless people. Scientists separate the birds on account of anatomical structure also. Despite this, the birds are confused in most of our tre.

"Like a swallow or a crane, so did I chatter;
I did moan as a dove; mine eyes fail with looking upward:
O Lord, I am oppressed, be thou my surety."

upward:
O Lord, I am oppressed, be thou my surety"
(Isa 38 14).

Here 'āghūr is trd "swallow" and sūs "crane," which is clearly interchanging words, as the Arab. for "swift" is sus, the same as the Heb. The line should read, "swift and crane." And another reason for changing swallow to swift, in this passage, lies in the fact that of the two birds the swift is the incessant and raucous chatterer, and this was the idea in the mind of Hezekiah when he sang his Trouble Song. Another incorrect reference is found in Jer 8 7: "Yea, the stork in the heavens knoweth her appointed times; and the turtle-dove and the swallow and the crane observe the time of their coming; but my people know not the law of Few swallows migrate. Returning swifts are one of the first signs of spring.

"As the sparrow in her wandering, as the swallow in her flying, So the curse that is causeless alighteth not" (Prov 26 2).

This reference might apply to either, remembering always that the swift took its name from its exceptional flight, it being able to cover over 80 miles an hour. However, the swallow is credited with 800 miles in a night.

Yea, the sparrow hath found her a house, And the swallow a nest for herself, where she may lay her young, Even thine altars, O Jeh of hosts, My King, and my God" (Ps 84 3).

Here is one instance, at least, where the swallow is at home and the tr correct. The swift might possibly have built in the temple: the swallow was GENE STRATTON-PORTER sure to be there.

SWAN, swon (Γράν, tinshemeth, "chameleon," "tree-toad," "water-hen," "owl"; κύκνος, kûknos; Lat cygnus; AS swan and swon): Mentioned only in old VSS and RVm in Lev 11 18: "the swan, and the pelican, and the gier eagle," and in Dt 14 16 (LXX πορφυρίων, porphuriōn="water-hen"; Vulg ibis). In RV this is rightly changed to "the horned owl, and the pelican, and the vulture." A bird of the duck family wrongly placed among the showing the duck family wrongly placed among the abominations in old VSS of the Bible, now changed to horned owl.

White and gray swans spend their winter migratory season on the waters of the Holy Land. They are among the most ancient birds of history; always have been used for food; when young and tender, of fine flesh and delicious flavor; so there is no possibility that they were ever rightfully placed among the birds unsuitable for food. Their feeding habits are aquatic, their food in no way objectionable.

GENE STRATTON-PORTER SWEARING, swâr'ing. See OATH; PERJURY; CRIMES; PUNISHMENTS.

SWEAT, swet (75, $z\bar{e}$ ' $\bar{a}h$ [Gen 3 19], 57, yeza' [Ezk 44 18]; $\bar{i}\delta\rho\dot{a}s$, hidros [2 Macc 2 26; Lk 22 44]): "In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread" (Gen 3 19). Somewhat difficult is the

passage, which RV renders: "But the priests the Levites, the sons of Zadok . . . shall have linen tires upon their heads, and shall have linen breeches upon their loins; they shall not gird themselves with anything that causeth sweat," lit. "they shall not gird themselves with sweat" (Ezk 44 15.18). The idea is evidently that profuse perspiration would make their ministrations unpleasant. The rule was of special importance in the sultry climate of Pal.

Luke, the physician, describing the agony of the Lord in Gethsemane, says: "His sweat became as it were great drops $[\theta \rho b \mu \beta o]$. His sweat became as it were great drops $[\theta \rho b \mu \beta o]$, thrombol of blood falling down upon the ground" (Lk 22 44, RV, following * AB, etc, notes in m: "Many ancient authorities omit vs 43.44"). There are two difficulties of interpretation in this program as $[\theta h]$. pretation in this passage, apart from the difficulty which the physiological explanation of the phewhich the physiological explanation of the phenomenon presents: (1) the word (θρόμβος, thrómbos) tr⁴ "drop" means lit. "a clot of blood," "a lump," "a curd," and is nowhere else used in the sense of drop. (2) It has been generally accepted that the sweat of the brow of Jesus had become bloody in appearance and in character, a symptom called in ancient medicine αἰματώδης ἰδρώς, haimatödēs hidrōs, "bloody sweat." It must, however, be observed that this tr would make the Gr particle ώσει, hōsei, superfluous, by which, not the identity of the sweat with drops of blood, but a certain similarity or comparison must be intended. Ch. Th. Kuinoel, in his Lat comm. on the historical books of the NT (Leipzig, 1809, II, 654), has given all known parallel instances in history and legend, which compared that under cartain results. which seem to prove that under certain psychological or physiological conditions, though rarely, haimatodes hidros has occurred.

Olshausen in his Comm., II, 469, thinks that the following points of comparison might have been in the mind of Luke: (1) the sweat may have appeared on the forehead of Jesus in heavy drops; (2) these may have dropped visibly to the ground, just as drops of blood fall from a wound; (3) in addition, possibly a reddish color may have been noticeable, owing to an exudation of the arteries, though the latter is not directly expressed in the words of the evangelist. See also Dr. Stroud, On the Physical Cause of the Death of Christ, 183; Bynaeus, De morte Christi, II, 33.

Bynaeus, De morte Christi, II, 33.

The people of Pal in Gr-Rom times were generally provided with handkerchiefs, used esp. to wipe off the perspiration. The fashion was derived from Rome, whence the name of these napkins became σουδάρου, soudárion, Lat sudarium. The late legend of 8t. Berenice or 8t. Veronica, who presented her handkerchief to the Saviour on His way to be crucified, and who found, when it had been returned to her by the Lord, that His features had been imprinted upon the cloth, is a reminiscence of this use. These handkerchiefs were frequently used to tie up small bundles of certain possessions, money, etc (Lk 19 20). As a rule the dead had their faces covered with one, or had it tied around the head (In 11 44: 20 7). In Ephesus the handkerchiefs of 8t. Paul were carried to the sick, and achieved miraculous cures (Acts 19 12).

The vb. ιδρόω, hidriö, "to sweat," is found in a rather difficult passage of the Didache (i.6), which is introduced as a quotation, the source of which, however, we do not know: "Let thy alms sweat into [in?] thy hands, until thou knowest to whom thou givest." The context seems to show that we have here a free repetition of the arguments of Sir 12 1 ff. so that the meaning would be: "In giving charity, do not give indiscriminately or thoughtlessly, but consider carefully so that no one who is unworthy receive your benefaction." Still it is not impossible that the text is corrupt in the passage.

H. L. E. Luering

SWEET CANE, swet kan. See Reed.

SWEET INCENSE. See Spices.

SWELL, swel (, , çābhāh): In the ordeal of the Water of Jealousy described in Nu 5 11-31 (P) the effect on the unfaithful wife of the drinking of the holy water was to cause the thigh to fall away (RV) or rot (AV) and the abdomen to "swell."

This ceremonial was a direct appeal to the judgment of God, for there was nothing in the holy water (taken from the laver) or the dust of the temple which was mixed with it to produce this In the Talmudic tract Sotah there are given many rabbinical opinions and particulars as to the procedure in later times. Apparently from the passage in Nu, the judgment speedily followed the appeal, but according to Sōtāh, iii.4, it might be postponed even for four years, and in v.1, it is said to have produced the same effect on the adulterer as on the unfaithful wife. We have no details as to the nature or permanency of the swelling.

"Swell" as the tr of another word, $b\bar{a}\varsigma\bar{e}k$, is used in the sense of blistering of the feet from long tramping. Both in Dt 8 4 and Neh 9 21 it is said that in spite of their long wilderness marches the feet of the Israelites did not swell. This was a token of Divine protection. See Swollen.

ALEX. MACALISTER SWELLING, swel'ing: The vb. $\neg \$, $g\bar{a}'\bar{a}h$, means "rise up" (Ezk 47 5, etc), so that the noun $ga'\bar{a}w\bar{a}h$ (Ps 46 3) means "arising." The "swellga'ăwāh (Ps 46 3) means "arising." The "swelling" of the sea that shakes the mountains is a perfectly good tr, and "pride" (so ARVm) is beside the mark. In Jer 12 5; 49 19 || 50 44; Zec 11 3; is found the phrase grān haryardēn, "exaltation of the Jordan," which AV translates "pride of Jordan" in Zec and "swelling of Jordan" in Jer (RV has "pride" throughout, with "swelling" in m of Jer). What is described is a place, with a mass of vegetation, easily burned (Zec 11 1-3), a lair of lions (Jer 49 19; Zec 11 3), and a particularly dangerous place for human beings (Jer 12 5). The luxuriant thicket of the Jordan bank is evidently meant, which could well be spoken of as "Jordan's pride" (OHL, "majesty of the Jordan"), and "swelling" is quite impossible. is quite impossible.

In the NT "swelling" is used in 2 Cor 12 20 for φυσίωσις, phusίδεις, "puffing up," "blatant self-conceit," and 2 Pet 2 18 || Jude ver 16 for ὑπέρογκος, hupérogkos, "overgrown," "solemnly υπέρογκος, hupérogkos, inane." BURTON SCOTT EASTON

SWIFT. See SWALLOW.

SWIFT BEASTS (בְּלְבֶּלְהוֹלְה, kirkūrōth [Isa 66 20]): AV and ERV "swift beasts," ERVm and ARV "dromedaries." In Mic 1 13 (בְּלָבֶל, rekhesh) a horse is meant, RV "swift steed." See CAMEL; Horse.

SWINE, swin (חַדִּר, hăzīr; cf Arab. בּיֹנְיֵע, khinzîr; vs, hús, LXX and NT; cf Gr σνs, sús, and Lat sūs; adj. veios, húeios, as subst., LXX; χοιροs, choiros, LXX and NT): In both ancient and modern times domestic swine have been little kept in Pal, but wild swine are well known as inhabitants of the thickets of the Hûleh, the Jordan valley, the Dead Sea, and some of the mountains. The species is Sus scrofa, the wild pig of Europe, North Africa and Western Asia.

In the OT the swine is mentioned in Lev 11 7 and Dt 14 8 as an unclean animal: "And the swine; because he parteth the hoof, and is clovenfooted, but cheweth not the cud, he is unclean unto you." In Isa 65 4 and 66 3.17 the eating of swine's flesh and the offering of oblations of swine's blood are referred to as abominations. LXX also refers to swine in three passages where these animals are not mentioned in the Heb and EV. In 2 S 17 8 where EV has "as a bear robbed of her whelps in the field," LXX adds (tr) "and as a savage boar in the plain." In 1 K 21 19 (LXX 20 19), where EV has "in the place where dogs licked the blood of Naboth," LXX has "where the swine and the dogs licked"; similarly in 1 K 22 38. In 1 Macc 1 47 there is reference to a decree of Antiochus ordering the sacrifice of swine. In 2 Macc 6 and 7 there are accounts of the torture and death of Eleazar, an aged scribe, and of a mother and her seven sons for refusing to taste swine's flesh. Swine, the property of Gentiles, are mentioned in the account of the Gadarene demoniac (Mt 8 30.31.32; Mk 5 11.12.13.14.16; Lk 8 32.33), and in the parable of the Prodigal Son (Lk 15 15.16).

Figurative: We find the following figurative references to swine:

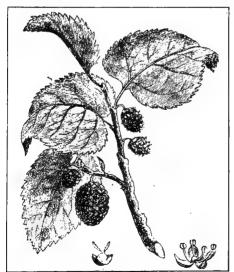
"The boar out of the wood doth ravage it,
And the wild beasts of the field feed on it" (i.e. on the
"vine out of Egypt") (Ps 80 13);
"As a ring of gold in a swine's snout,
So is a fair woman that is without discretion"
(Prov 11 22);
"The Carmonians [AV Carmanians, perhaps of Kirman
or Carmania, in Southwestern Persia] raging in
wrath shall go forth as the wild boars of the wood"
(2 Esd 15 30);
"The dog turning to his own vomit again, and the
sow that had washed to wallowing in the mire"
(2 Pet 2 22; cf Prov 26 11).

ALFRED ELY DAY

ALFRED ELY DAY SWOLLEN, swōl"n (πίμπρασθαι, pimprasihai, only in Acts 28 6): The Melitans expected to see Paul poisoned by the viper's bite. RV and AV translate it "swollen," but the word is used by certain medical writers in the sense of inflammation; see Nicander, Therica, 306; Hesiod, Theogonia, 856, expressing thereby the burning up by a thunderbolt. Swelling accompanies the local lesion of snake-bite and often large purpuric exudation of blood, as well as paralysis, esp. of the lower

SWORD, sord. See Armor, III, 5.

SYCAMINE, sik'a-mīn, TREE (συκάμινος, sukáminos [Lk 17 6]): This is generally accepted as the black mulberry tree (Morus nigra; N.O.

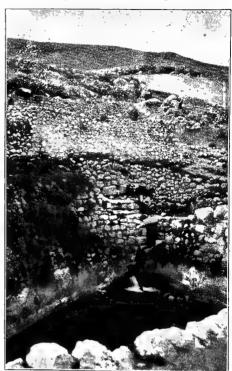


Sycamine or Black Mulberry.

Urticaceae), known in Arab. as tât shâmî, "the Damascus mulberry," a fine tree which grows to the height of 30 ft. It produces the dark blood-red mulberry juice referred to in 1 Mace 6 34 (μόρον, móron), "the blood of . . . mulberries," which was shown to the elephants of the Syrians. The white mulberry, M. alba, has white and less juicy fruit, and it is cultivated largely for the sake of its leaves with which the silkworms of the Lebanon are fed. E. W. G. MASTERMAN

SYCAMORE, sik'a-mör. See Sycomore.

SYCHAR, sī'kär (Συχάρ, Suchār): Mentioned only once, in connection with the visit of Jesus to Jacob's Well (Jn 4 5). He was passing through



Fountain at 'Askar.

Samaria on His way to Galilee, "so he cometh to a city of Samaria, called Sychar, near to the parcel of ground that Jacob gave to his son Joseph: and Jacob's well was there." Jerome thought the name was a clerical error for Sychem (Ep. 86). Onom he is content to translate Eusebius, placing Sychar E. of Neapolis. It is now generally admitted that the text is correct. Some have held, however, that Sychar is only another name for Shechem that Sychar is only another name for snechem ("Sychem"). It is suggested, e.g., that it is a nick-name applied in contempt by the Jews, being either shikkōr, "drunken," or sheker, "falsehood." Others think the form has arisen through change of m to r in pronunciation; as l to r in Beliar. These theories may safely be set aside. The evidence that Sychar was a distinct place E. of Shechem may be described as overwhelming. It is carefully and perspicuously marshaled by G. A. Smith (HGHL, shows that it was not a specially well-known place: "a city of Samaria called Sychar." No one familiar with Pal would have written "a city of Samaria called Sychar." It is mentioned only because of its nearness to the well.

As to the position of the well, there is general agreement (see Jacob's Well). It is on the right of the road where it bends from the plain of Makhneh into the pass of Shechem. Fully half a mile off, on the edge of the plain, is the village of 'Askar, on the lower slope of Ebal. A little to the W. is the

traditional tomb of Joseph. This is the district E. of Shechem usually identified with Jacob's "parcel of ground." Many have sought to find Sychar in the modern 'Askar. There are two difficulties. The first is the initial letter 'ain in the modern name. But G. A. Smith has shown that such a change as this, although unusual, is not impossible. The second is the presence of the copious spring, 'Ain 'Askar, which would make it unnecessary for the villagers to carry water from Jacob's Well. This cannot easily be explained away. One could understand a special journey at times, if any peculiar value attached to the water in the well; but from it, evidently, the woman drew her ordinary supplies (ver 15). This difficulty would probably in any case be fatal to the claim of the village at 'Ain 'Askar to represent the ancient Sychar. But Professor R. S. A. Macalister has shown reason to believe that the village is not older than Arab times (*PEFS*, 1907, 92 ff). He examined the mound Telul Balāta, nearly ½ mile S.W. of 'Askar, and just W. of Joseph's tomb. There he found evidence of occupation from the days of the Heb monarchy down to the time of Christ. Here there is no spring; and it is only ½ mile distant from Jacob's Well—nearer therefore to the well than to 'Askar. In other respects the site is suitable, so that perhaps here we may locate the Sychar of the Gospel. The name may easily have migrated to 'Askar when the village fell into decay.

W. Ewing

SYCHEM, sī'kem (Συχέμ, Suchém): In this form the name of Shechem appears in Acts 7 16 AV, in the report of Stephen's speech. AV is a tran-scription from the Gr; RV in accordance with its practice, to give uniformity in the Eng., follows the Heb form of the name given in the OT.

SYCOMORE, sik'ō-mōr, TREE (つつつじ, shikmāh, Aram. ฟัวฺวฺาซั, shīkɨmā', pl. שוֹיִקְיִּישׁ, shikmām; in LXX wrongly tr⁴ by συκάμινος, sukāminos, "the mulberry"; see Sycamine [1 K 10 27; 1 Ch 27 28; 2 Ch 1 15; 9 27; Isa 9 10; Am 7 14]; קמות, shikmoth [Ps 78 47]; סינוס אוּקמות, sukomōraia (Lk 19 4)): The sycomore-fig, Ficus sycomorus (N.O. Urticaceae), known in Arab. as Jummeiz, is one of the finest of the lowland trees of Pal, and attains still greater proportions in Lower Egypt. It is evident from 1 K 10 27; 2 Ch 1 15 that it was once abundant, and at a later period it was so plentiful in the neighborhood of what is now Haifa as to give the name Sykaminon to the town which once stood near there. It is a tree which cannot flourish in the cooler mountain heights; it cannot stand frost (Ps 78 47). It was one of the distinguishing marks of Lower, as contrasted with Upper, Galilee that the sycomore could flourish It is highly improbable that sycomores could ever have flourished near Tekoa (cf Am 7 14) but it is quite possible that the town or individual inhabitants may have held lands in the Jordan valley or in the Shephelah on which these trees grew. Villages in Pal today not infrequently possess estates at considerable distances; the village of Silwân (Siloam), for example, possesses and cultivates extensive fertile lands halfway to the Dead Sea. The sycomore produces small, rounded figs, about an inch long, which grow upon tortuous, leafless twigs springing from the trunk or the older branches; they are more or less tasteless. It would appear that in ancient times some treatment was adopted, such as piercing the apex of the fruit to hasten the ripening. Amos was a "nipper" (O22, bōlēs) of sycomore figs (Am 7 14). The tree not uncommonly attains a height of 50 ft., with an enormous trunk; in many parts, esp. where, as near the coast,

the tree grows out of sandy soil, the branching roots stand out of the ground for some distance. timber is of fair quality and was much valued in ancient times (1 K 10 27; 2 Ch 1 15; 9 27; Isa 9 10). Mummy cases and many of the best preserved wooden utensils of ancient Egyp life



Sycomore (Ficus sycomorus).

are made of it. This tree must be distinguished from the Eng. sycamore, Acer pseudo-platanus (N.O. Spindaceae), the "false plane tree," a kind of maple.

E. W. G. MASTERMAN

SYENE, sī-ē'nė. See SEVENEH.

SYMEON, sim' č-on (Συμεών, Sumeôn): RV in Lk 3 30; Acts 13 1; 15 14 for AV "Simeon" (q.v.). The persons are:

(1) An ancestor of Jesus (Lk 3 30).(2) Symeon, called Niger, one of the prophets and teachers in the church at Antioch (Acts 13 1).

(3) For Simon Peter, see Peter; of Acts 15 14. See Simeon, (4), (5), (6).

SYNAGOGUE, sin'a-gog:

Name
Origin
Spread of Synagogues
The Building
(1) The Site
(2) The Structure
(3) The Furniture
The Officials
(1) The Elders
(2) The Ruler
(3) The Servant (or Servants)
(4) Delegate of the Congregation
(5) The Interpreter
(6) The Almoners
The Service

(5) The Almoners
(6) The Almoners
The Service
(1) Recitation of the shema'
(2) Prayers
(3) Reading of the Law and the Prophets
(4) The Sermon
(5) The Benediction

Synagogue, Gr συναγωγή, sunagōgē, "gathering" (Acts 13 43), "gathering-place" (Lk 7 5), was the name applied to the Jewish place of worship in later Judaism in and outside of Pal. Proseuché, "a place of prayer" (Acts 16 13), was probably more of the nature of an inclosure,

1. Name marking off the sacred spot from the profane foot, than of a roofed building like a synagogue. Sabbateion in Ant, XV, i, 6, 2, most probably also meant synagogue. In the Mish we find for synagogue bēth ha-k*neṣeth, in the Tgs and Talm bē-kh*nīshtā', or simply k*nīshtā'. The oldest Christian meetings and meeting-places were modeled on the pattern of the synagogues, and in Christian-

335).
That the synagogue was, in the time of Our Lord, one of the most important religious institutions of the Jews is clear from the fact that

Palestinian Aram. the word $k^e n \bar{\imath} s h t \bar{a}'$ is used for

the Christian church (cf Zahn, Tatian's Diatessaron,

2. Origin it was thought to have been instituted by Moses (CAp, ii, 17; Philo, De Vita Moses, iii.27; cf Tg Jer to Ex 18 20). It must have come into being during the Bab exile. At that time the more devout Jews, far from their native land, having no sanctuary or altar, no doubt felt drawn from time to time, esp. on Sabbath and feast days, to gather round those who were specially pious and God-fearing, in order to listen to the word of God and engage in some kind of worship. such meetings were not uncommon is made probable by Ezk 14 1; 20 1. This would furnish a basis for the institution of the synagogue. the exile the synagogue remained and even developed as a counterpoise to the absolute sacerdotalism of the temple, and must have been felt absolutely necessary for the Jews of the Dispersion. Though at first it was meant only for the exposition of the Law, it was natural that in the course of time prayers and preaching should be added to the service. Thus these meetings, which at first were only held on Sabbaths and feast days, came also to be held on other days, and at the same hours with the services in the temple. The essential aim, however, of the synagogue was not prayer, but instruction in the Law for all classes of the people. Philo calls the synagogues "houses of instruction, where the philosophy of the fathers and all manner of virtues were taught" (cf Mt 4 23; Mk 1 21; 6 2; Lk 4 15.33; 6 6; 13 10; Jn 6 59; 18 20; CAp, ii, 17).

In Pal the synagogues were scattered all over the country, all the larger towns having one or more (e.g. Nazareth, Mt 13 54; Capernaum, 3. Spread Mt 12 9). In Jerus, in spite of the

of Syna-

fact that the Temple was there, there

were many synagogues, and all parts of the Diaspora were represented by particular synagogues (Acts 6 9). Also in heathen lands, wherever there was a certain number of Jews, they had their own synagogue: e.g. Damascus (Acts 9 2), Salamis (13 5), Antioch of Pisidia (13 14), Thessalonica (17 1), Corinth (18 4), Alexandria (Philo, Leg Ad Cai, xx), Rome (ib, xxiii). The papyrus finds of recent years contain many references to Jewish synagogues in Egypt, from the time of Euergetes (247–221 BC) onward. According to Philo (Quod omnis probus liber sit, xii, et al.) the Essenes had their own synagogues, and, from 'Ābhōth 3 10, it seems that "the people of the land," i.e. the masses, esp. in the country, who were far removed from the influence of the scribes, and were even opposed to their narrow interpretation of the

Law, had their own synagogues.
(1) The site.—There is no evidence that in Pal the synagogues were always required to be built upon high ground, or at least that they should overlook all other houses (cf PEFS, July, 1878, 126), though we read in the Talm that this was one of the requirements (Tōş Mehillāh, ed Zunz, 4 227;

Shabbāth 11a). From Acts 16 13 it does not follow that synagogues were intentionally built outside the city, and near water for the sake of ceremonial washing (cf Monatsschr. für Gesch. und Wissensch. des Judenthums, 1889, 167–70;

HJP, II, 370).
(2) The structure.—Of the style of the architecture we have no positive records. From the description in the Talm of the synagogue at Alexandria (Tōş Sukkāh, ed Zunz, 198 20; Sukkāh 51b) one imagines the synagogues to have been modeled on the pattern of the temple or of the temple court. the excavations in Pal we find that in the building the stone of the country was used. On the lintels of the doors were different forms of ornamentation, e.g. seven-branched candlesticks, an open flower between two paschal lambs, or vine leaves with bunches of grapes, or, as in Capernaum, a pot of manna between two representations of Aaron's rod. The inside plan "is generally that of two double colonnades, which seem to have formed the body of the synagogue, the aisles E. and W. being probably used as passages. The intercolumnar distance is very small, never greater than 9½ ft." (Edersheim). Because of a certain adaptation of the corner columns at the northern end, Edersheim supposes that a woman's gallery was once erected there. It does not appear, however, from the OT or NT or the oldest Jewish tradition that there was any special gallery for women. It should be noted, as against this conclusion, that in De Vita Contemplativa, attributed by some to Philo, a certain passage (sec. iii) seems to imply the existence of such a

(3) The furniture.—We only know that there was a movable ark in which the rolls of the Law and the Prophets were kept. It was called 'ărōn ha-kōdhesh, but chiefly tēbhāh (Meghillāh 3 1, Nedhārīm 5 5; Ta'šnīth 2 1.2), and it stood facing the entrance. According to Ta'šnīth 15a it was taken out and carried in a procession on fast days. In front of the ark, and facing the congregation, were the 'chief seats' (see Chief Sēats) for the rulers of the synagogue and the learned men (Mt 23 6). From Neh 8 4 and 9 4 it appears that the bēmah (Jerus Meghillāh 3 1), a platform from which the Law was read, although it is not mentioned in the NT, was of ancient date, and in use in the time of Christ.

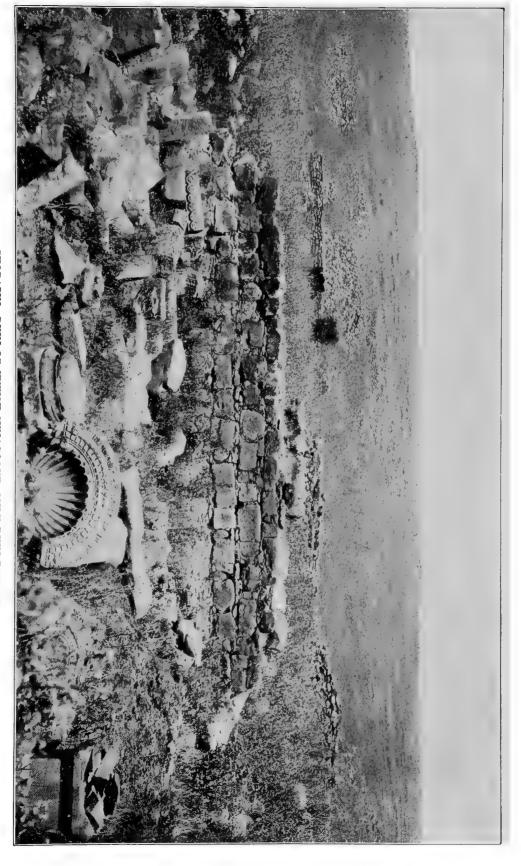
(1) The elders.—These officials (Lk 7 3) formed the local tribunal, and in purely Jewish localities acted as a Committee of Management of the affairs of the synagogue (cf Officials Berākhōih 4 7; Nedhārīm 5 5; Meghillāh 3 1). To them belonged, most

lāh 3 1). To them belonged, most probably, among other things, the power to excommunicate (cf Ezr 10 8; Lk 6 22; Jn 9 22; 12 42; 16 2; 'Ēdhuyōth 5 6; Ta'anīth 3 8; Middōth 2 2).

(2) The ruler.—Gr archisundāgōgos (Mk 5 35; Lk 6 41 40; 12 14; Act 18 8 17) Hab gōzi ha kernetk

(2) The ruler.—Gr archisunágōgos (Mk 5 35; Lk 8 41.49; 13 14; Acts 18 8.17), Heb rö'sh ha-k*neseth (Ṣōtāh 77.8). In some synagogues there were several rulers (Mk 5 22; Acts 13 15). They were most probably chosen from among the elders. It was the ruler's business to control the synagogue services, as for instance to decide who was to be called upon to read from the Law and the Prophets (Yōmā' 7 1) and to preach (Acts 13 15; cf Lk 13 14); he had to look after the discussions, and generally to keep order.

(3) The servant (or servants).—Gr hupērétēs; Talm hazzān (Lk 4 20; Yōmā' 7 1; Ṣōtāh 7 7.8). He had to see to the lighting of the synagogue and to keep the building clean. He it was who wielded the scourge when punishment had to be meted out to anyone in the synagogue (Mt 10 17; 23 34; Mk 13 9; Acts 22 19; cf Makkōth 16). From Shabbāth 1 3 it seems that the hazzān was also an elementary teacher (see Education).



CHORAZIN—RUIN OF JEWISH SYNAGOGUE, ONLY RUIN EXTANT

(4) The delegate of the congregation.—Heb shelā h çibbūr ($R\bar{o}$ 'sh ha-shānāh 4 9; $B^{\circ}r\bar{a}kh\bar{o}th$ 5 5). This office was not permanent, but one was chosen at each meeting by the ruler to fill it, and he conducted the prayers. According to Meghillah 4 5, he who was asked to read the Scriptures was also expected to read the prayers. He had to be a man of good character.

(5) The interpreter.—Heb methorgeman. It was his duty to translate into Aram. the passages of the Law and the Prophets which were read in Heb (M^eghillāh 3 3; cf 1 Cor 14 28). This also was probably not a permanent office, but was filled at each meeting by one chosen by the ruler.

(6) The almoners.—(Demā'ī 3 1; Ķiddūshīn 4 5). Alms for the poor were collected in the synagogue (cf Mt 6 2). According to $P\vec{e}'\vec{a}h$ 8 7, the collecting was to be done by at least two persons, and the

distributing by at least three.

(1) The recitation of the "shema"."-At least ten persons had to be present for regular worship (M^{e_-}

ghillāh 4 3; Ṣanhedhrīn 1 6). were special services on Saturdays and 6. The Service feast days. In order to keep the synagogue services uniform with those of the temple, both were held at the same hours. The order of service was as follows: the recitation of the shema', i.e. a confession of God's unity, consisting of the passages Dt 6 4-9; 11 13-21; Nu 15 37-41 (B*rā-khōth 2 2; Tāmīdh 5 1). Before and after the recitation of these passages "blessings" were said in connection with the passages ($B^{e}r\bar{a}kh\bar{o}th$ 1 4). This formed a very important part of the liturgy. It was believed to have been ordered by Moses (cf Ant, IV, viii, 13).

(2) Prayers.—The most important prayers were the Shemoneh 'esrēh, "Eighteen Eulogies," a cycle of eighteen prayers, also called "The Prayer" (Berākhōth 4 3; Ta'anīth 2 2). Like the shema' they are very old.

The following is the first of the eighteen: "Blessed art Thou, the Lord our God, and the God of our fathers, the God of Abraham, the God of Isaac, and the God of Jacob: the great, the mighty and the terrible God, the most high God Who showest mercy and kindness, Who createst all things, Who rememberest the pious deeds of the patriarchs, and wilt in love bring a redeemer to their children's children for Thy Name's sake; O King, Helper, Saviour and Shield! Blessed art Thou, O Lord, the Shield of Abraham."

The prayers of the delegate were met with a

response of Amen from the congregation.

(3) The reading of the Law and the Prophets.-After prayers the pārāshāh, i.e. the pericope from the Law for that Sabbath, was read, and the interpreter tr^d verse by verse into Aram. (M^eghillāh 3 3). The whole Pent was divided into 154 pericopes, so that in the course of 3 years it was read through in order. After the reading of the Law came the Haphtārāh, the pericope from the Prophets for that Sabbath, which the interpreter did not necessarily translate verse by verse, but in paragraphs of 3 verses (Meghillāh, loc. cit.).

(4) The sermon.—After the reading from the Law and the Prophets followed the sermon, which was originally a casuistical exposition of the Law, but which in process of time assumed a more devotional character. Anyone in the congregation might be asked by the ruler to preach, or might ask the ruler

for permission to preach.

The following example of an old (1st cent. AD) rabbinic sermon, based on the words, "He hath clothed me with the garments of salvation" (Isa 61 10, a verse in the chapter from which Jesus took His text when addressing the synagogue of Nazareth), will serve as an illustration of contemporary Jewish preaching:

"Seven garments the Holy One—blessed be He!—has put on, and will put on from the time the world was created until the hour when He will punish the wicked Edom (i.e. Rom empire). When He created the world,

He clothed Himself in honor and majesty, as it is said (Ps 104 1): 'Thou art clothed in honor and majesty,' Whenever He forgave the sins of Israel, He clothed Himself in white, for we read (Dnl 7 9): 'His raiment was white as snow.' When He punishes the peoples of the world, He puts on the garments of vengeance, as it is said (Isa 59 17): 'He put on garments of vengeance, as it is said (Isa 59 17): 'He put on garments of vengeance for clothing, and was clad with zeal as a cloke.' The sixth garment He will put on when the Messiah comes; then He will clothe Himself in a garment of righteousness, for it is said (Isb): 'He put on righteousness as a breatplate, and an helmet of salvation upon His head.' The seventh garment He will put on when He punishes Edom; then He will clothe Himself in 'adhôm, i.e. 'red,' for it is said (Isa 63 2): 'Wherefore art Thou red in Thine apparel?' But the garment which He will put upon the Messiah, this will shine afar, from one end of the earth to the other, for it is said (Isa 61 10): 'As a bridegroom decketh himself with a garland.' And the Israelites will partake of His light, and will say: 'Blessed is the hour when the Messiah shall come! Blessed the womb out of which He shall come! Blessed the eye that is honored with a sight of Him! For the opening of His lips is blessing and peace; 'The thoughts of His heart are confidence and cheerfulness;

ness;
The speech of His tongue is pardon and forgiveness;
His prayer is the sweet incense of offerings;
His petitions are holiness and purity.
Ohow blessed is Israel, for whom such has been prepared!
For it is said (Ps 31 19): "How great is Thy goodness,
which thou hast laid up for them that fear thee""

(Peşiktā', ed Buber).

(5) The benediction.—After the sermon the benediction was pronounced (by a priest), and the congregation answered Amen (Berākhōth 5 4; Sōtāh 7 2.3).

LITERATURE.—L. Zunz, Die gottesdienstlichen Vorträge der Juden, 2d ed; Herzfeld, Geschichte des Volkes Israel, III, 129-37, 183-226; Hausrath, Neutestamentliche Zeitgesch., 2d ed, 73-80; HJP, II, 357-86; GJV; II, 497-544; Edersheim, Life and Times of Jesus the Messiah, 5th ed, I, 431-50; Oesterly and Box, "The Religion and Worship of the Synagogue," Church and Synagogue, IX, no. 2, April, 1907, p. 46; W. Bacher, art. "Synagogue" in HDB; Strack, art. "Synagogen." in RE, 3d ed, XIX.

PAUL LEVERTOFF

SYNAGOGUE OF LIBERTINES. See LIBER-TINES.

SYNAGOGUE OF SATAN. See SATAN, SYNA-GOGUE OF.

SYNAGOGUE, THE GREAT: A college or assembly of learned men, originating with Ezra, to whom Jewish tradition assigns an important share in the formation of the OT Canon, and many legal enactments (see Canon of the OT). of its latest members is said to have been Simon the Just (c 200 BC). The oldest notice of the Great Synagogue is in the tract of the Mish, Pirkē 'Ābhōth (c 200 AD); this is supplemented by an oftenquoted passage in another tract of the Mish, Bābhā' $Bathr\bar{a}$ ' (14b), on the Canon, and by later traditions. It tells against the reliableness of these traditions that they are late, and are mixed up with much that is self-evidently unhistorical, while no corroboration is found in Ezr or Neh, in the Apoc, or in Jos. On this account, since the exhaustive discussion by Kuenen on the subject (Over de Mannen der Groote Synagoge), most scholars have been disposed to throw over the tradition altogether, regarding it as a distorted remembrance of the great convocation described in Neh 8-10 (so W. R. Smith, Driver, etc; cf art. by Selbie in *HDB* in support of total rejection). This probably is an excess of skepticism. The convocation in Neh has no points of resemblance to the kind of assembly recalled in this tradition; and while fantastic details may be unreal, it is difficult to believe that declarations so circumstantial and definite have no foundation at all in actual history. The direct connection with Ezra may be discounted, though possibly—indeed it is likely-somebody associated with Ezra in his undeniable labors on the Canon may have furnished the germ from which the institution in question was developed (see the careful discussion in C. H. H. Wright, *Eccl*, 1–10, and Excursus III, "The Men of the Great Synagogue").

For the rabbinical quotations and further important details, see C. Taylor's Sayings of the Jewish Fathers, 11 f and 110 f.

James Orr

SYNOPTIC, si-nop'tik, GOSPELS. See Gos-PELS, SYNOPTIC.

SYNTYCHE, sin'ti-kē (Συντύχη, Suntúchē, lit. "fortunate" [Phil 4 2]): A Christian woman in the church at Philippi. She and Euodia, who had some quarrel or cause of difference between them, are mentioned by name by Paul, and are besought separately: "I beseech Euodia, and I beseech Syntyche" (AV) to be reconciled to one another, to be "of the same mind in the Lord." The apostle also entreats an unnamed Christian at Philippi, whom he terms "true yokefellow," to "help these women, for they labored with me in the gospel." What he means is that he asks the true yokefellow to help Euodia and Syntyche, each of whom had labored

This refers to the visit which he, in company with Silas and Luke and Timothy, paid to Philippi (Acts 16 12 ff), and which resulted in the gospel being introduced to that city and the church being formed there. Euodia and Syntyche had been among the first converts and had proved helpful in carrying on the work. The word used for "labored" signifies "they joined with me in my struggle," and probably refers to something more than ordinary labor, for those were critical times of danger and suffering, which the apostle and his companions and fellow-workers then encountered at Philippi.

That workers so enthusiastic and so honored should have quarreled, was very sad. Paul, therefore, entreats them to be reconciled. Doubtless his request was given heed to, esp. in view of his promised visit to Philippi. See Euodia; Yoke-Fellow. John Rutherfurd

SYNZYGUS, sin'zi-gus (σύνζυγε, súnzuge): In Phil 4 3 it is rendered "yokefellow." WHm (Σ 6ν-ζυγε, Súnzuge), Thayer, Lex. NT, 594 (Σ 6 ζ 1νγε, Súzuge), and others, take it as a proper name in this passage. See Yokefellow.

SYRACUSE, sir'a-kūs, sir-a-kūs' (Συράκουσαι, Surákousai; Lat Syracusae, Ital. Siracusa): Situated on the east coast of Sicily, about midway between Catania and the southeastern extremity of the island.

The design of the present work scarcely permits more than a passing allusion to Syracuse, the most brilliant Gr colony on the shores of the Western Mediterranean, where Paul halted three days, on Mediterranean Medita to Rome (Acts 28 12). The his way from Melita to Rome (Acts 28 12). The original Corinthian colony founded in 734 BC (Thucydides vi.3) was confined to the islet Ortygia, which separates the Great Harbor from the sea. Later the city spread over the promontory lying northward of Ortygia and the harbor.

Syracuse assumed a preëminent position in the affairs of Sicily under the rule of the tyrants Gelon (485–478 BC; cf Herodotus vii.154–55) and Hieron (478–467 BC). It flourished greatly after the establishment of popular government in 466 BC (Diodorus xi.68-72). The Syracusans successfully withstood the famous siege by the Athenians in 414 BC, the narrative of which is the most thrilling part of the work of Thucydides (vi, vii)

Dionysius took advantage of the fear inspired by the Carthaginians to elevate himself to despotic power in 405 BC, and he was followed, after a reign of 38 years, by his son of the same name. Although democratic government was restored by Timoleon after a period of civil dissensions in 344 BC (Plutarch, *Timoleon*), popular rule was not of long duration.

The most famous of the later rulers was the wise Hieron (275-216 BC), who was the steady ally of the Romans. His grandson and successor Hieronymus deserted the alliance of Rome for that of Carthage, which led to the celebrated siege of the city by the Romans under Marcellus and its fall in 212 (Livy xxiv.21-33). Henceforth Syracuse was the capital of the Rom province of Sicily. Cicero calls it "the greatest of Greek cities and the most beautiful of all cities" (Cicero Verr. iv.52).

GEORGE H. ALLEN SYRIA, sir'i-a (Συρία, Suria [Mt 4 24; Lk 2 2]):

Name and Its Origin Other Designations

Name and Its Origin
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The name does not occur in the MT noi

The name does not occur in the MT nor the Pesh of the OT, but is found in the LXX, in the Pesh of the NT and in the Mish. In the 1. Name LXX it represents "Aram" in all its

combinations, as Aram-zobah, etc. The name itself first appears in and Its Origin Herodotus vii.63, where he says that

"Syrians" and "Assyrians" were the Gr and barbarian designations of the same people. Otherwise he is quite vague in his use of the term. Xenophon is clearer when he (Anab. vii.8, 25) distinguishes between Syria and Phoenicia. Syria is undoubtedly an extension of the name "Suri," the ancient Bab designation of a district in North Mesopotamia, but later embracing regions beyond the Euphrates to the N. and W., as far as the Taurus. Under the Seleucidae, Syria was regarded as coextensive with their kingdom, and the name shrank with its dimensions. Strabo, Pliny and Ptolemy give its boundaries as the Taurus Mountains, the Euphrates, the Syro-Arabian desert and the Mediterranean, and the territory within these limits is still politically designated Syria, though popularly Pal is generally named separately.

med separately. Homer (*Iliad* ii.785) and Hesiod (*Theog.* 304) call the inhabitants of the district "Arimoi,

which of the cuneiform "Arimu" or "Aramu" for Aramaeans. The earliest Assyr name was "Martu," which 2. Other Designa-

tions Hommel regards as a contraction of "Amartu," the land of the "Amurru" or Amorites. In Egyp records the country is named "Ruten" or "Luten," and divided into "Lower" and "Upper," the former denoting Pal and the latter Syria proper.

(1) The maritime plain.—Syria, within the boundaries given, consists of a series of belts of low and high land running N. and S., parallel to the Mediterranean. The first of these is the maritime plain. It consists of a

broad strip of sand dunes covered by short grass and low bushes, followed by a series of low undulating hills and wide valleys which gradually rise to a series of low undulating hills and wide valleys which gradually rise to a series of low undulating hills and wide valleys which gradually rise to a series of the first high to dispose the first high the first high the first high gradually rise to a series of Alexandretta, but farther S. almost disappears, being represented only by the broader valleys and the smaller plains occupied by such towns as Latakia, Tripolis and Beirtt. S. of the last named the maritime belt is continuous, being interrupted only where the Ladder of Tyre and Mt. Carmel descend abruptly into the sea. In the Plain of Akka it has a breadth of 8 miles, and from Carmel southward it again broadens out. till beyond Caesarea it has an average of 10 miles. Within the sand dunes the soil is a rich alluvium and readily yields to cultivation. In ancient times it was covered with palm trees, which, being thence introduced into Greece, were from their place of origin named phoinikes.

(2) First mountain belt.—From the maritime plain we rise to the first mountain belt. It begins with the Amanus, a branch of the Taurus in the N. Under that name it ceases with the Orontes valley, but is continued in the Nusciviyeh range (Mt. Cassius, 5,750 ft.), till the Eleutherus valley is reached, and thence rising again in Lebanon (average 5,000 ft.), Jebel Sunnin (8,780 ft.), it continues to the Leontes or Quasmiyeh. The range then breaks down into the rounded hills of Upper Gallee (3,500 ft.), extends through the table-land of Western Pal (2,500 ft.), and in the S. of Judaca broadens out into the arid Badiet et-Tth or Wilderness of Wandering.

(3) Second mountain belt.—Along with this may be considered the parallel mountain range. Beginning in the neighborhood of Riblah, the chain of Anti-Lebanon extends southward to Hermon (9,200 ft.), and thence stretches out into the plateau of the Jaulan and Hauran, where we me

- ward, with deep ravines piercing its sides, over Gilead, Moab and Edom.

 (4) Great central valley.—Between Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon lies the great valley of Coele-Syria. It is continued northward along the Orontes and thence stretches away eastward to the Euphrates, while southward it merges into the valleys of the Jordan and the Arabah. From the sources of the Orontes and Leontes at Baalbek (4,000 ft.) it falls away gently to the N.; but to the S. the descent is rapid. In Merj'Ayun it has sunk to 1,800 ft., at Lake Huleh it is +7 ft., at the Lake of Tiberias -682 ft., and at the Dead Sea -1,292 ft., and thence it rises again to the Gulf of Akabah. This great valley was caused by a line of fault or fracture of the earth's crust, with parallel and branching faults. In ancient times the whole valley formed an arm of the sea, and till the Glacial period at the end of the Tertiary (Pleistocene) Age, a lake extended along the whole Jordan valley as far as the Huleh. We can thus understand that the great plain and adjoining valleys consist mainly of alluvial deposits with terraces of gravel and sand on the inclosing slopes. See Lebanon; Natural Features; Palestine; Phoenicia.
- (5) The eastern belt.—To the E. of the Anti-Lebanon belt there is a narrow stretch of cultivated land which in some places attains a breadth of several miles, but this is always determined by the distance to which the eastern streams from Anti-Lebanon flow. Around Damascus the Abana (Barada) and neighboring streams have made the district an earthly paradise, but they soon lose themselves in the salt marshes about 10 miles E. of the city. Elsewhere the fruitful strip gradually falls away into the sands and rocks of the Syrian desert, barren alike of vegetable and animal
- (6) Rivers.—The mountain ranges determine the course of the rivers and their length. The streams flowing westward are naturally short and little more than summer torrents. Those flowing to the desert are of the same character, the only one of importance being the Abana, to which Damascus owes its existence. Only the great central valley permits the formation of larger rivers, and there we find the Orontes and Leontes rising within a few feet of each other beside Baalbek, and draining Coele-Syria to the N. and S., till breaking through the mountains they reach the sea. The Jordan is the only other stream of any size. In ancient, as also in modern times, the direction of these streams determined the direction of the great trade route from Mesopotamia to Egypt through Coele-Syria and across Pal, as also the position of the larger

towns, but, not being themselves navigable, they did not form a means of internal communication.

(7) Nature of the soil.—The variation in altitude both above and below the sea-level is naturally conducive to a great variety of climate, while the nature of the disintegrating rocks and the alluvial soil render great productivity possible. Both of the mountain belts in their whole length consist chiefly of cretaceous limestone, mixed with friable limestone with basaltic intrusions and volcanic products. The limestone is highly porous, and during the rainy season absorbs the moisture which forms reservoirs and feeds the numerous springs on both the eastern and western slopes. The rocks too are soft and penetrable and can easily be turned into orchard land, a fact that explains how much that now appears as barren wastes was productive in ancient times as gardens and fruitful fields (Bab

Talm, $M^{e}gh$. **6**a). · (8) Flora.—The western valleys and the maritime plain have the flora of the Mediterranean, but the eastern slopes and the valleys facing the desert are poorer. On the southern coasts and in the deeper valleys the vegetation is tropical, and there we meet with the date-palm, the sugar-cane and the sycomore. Up to 1,600 ft., the products include the carob and the pine, after which the vine, the fig and the olive are met with amid great plantations of dwarf oak, till after 3,000 ft. is reached, then cypresses and cedars till the height of 6,200 ft., after which only Alpine plants are found. The once renowned "cedars of Lebanon" now exist only in the Kadisha and Baruk valleys. The walnut and mulberry are plentiful everywhere, and wheat, corn, barley, maize and lentils are widely cultivated. Pasture lands are to be found in the valleys and plains, and even during the dry season sheep, goats and cattle can glean sufficient pasturage among the low brushwood.

(9) Fauna.—The animal world is almost as varied. The fox, jackal, hyena, bear, wolf and hog are met nearly everywhere, and small tigers are sometimes seen (cf 2 K 14 9). The eagle, vulture, partridge and blue pigeon are plentiful, and gay birds chirp everywhere. The fish in the Jordan and its lakes are peculiar and interesting. There are in all 22 varieties, the largest being a kind of perch, the coracinus, which is known elsewhere also in the Nile (Jos, Ant, III, x, 8), and a peculiar old-world variety locally named 'Abu-musht.

(10) Minerals.—In both the eastern and the western mountain belts there are abundant supplies of mineral wealth. They consist chiefly of coal, iron, bitumen, asphalt and mineral oil, but they are mostly unworked. In the Jordan valley all the springs below the level of the Mediterranean are brackish, and many of them are also hot and sulphurous, the best known being those at Tiberias.

(11) Central position.—The country, being in virtue of its geographical configuration separated into small isolated districts, naturally tended to break up into a series of petty independent states. Still the central position between the Mesopotamian empires on the one hand and Egypt and Arabia on the other made it the highway through which the trade of the ancient world passed, gave it an importance far in excess of its size or productivity, and made it a subject of contention whenever East and West were ruled by different powers.
(1) Canaanitic Semites.—When history begins for

us in the 3d millennium BC, Syria was already occupied by a Sem population belonging to the Canaanitic wave of immi-

4. History gration, i.e. such as spoke dialects akin to Heb or Phoen. The Semites had been already settled for a considerable time, for a millennium earlier in Egypt we find Sem names for Syrian articles of commerce, as well as Semites depicted

on the Egyp monuments.

(2) Sargon of Agade.—Omitting as doubtful references to earlier relations between Babylonia and Syria, we may consider ourselves on solid ground in accepting the statements of the Omen Tablets which tell us that Sargon of Agade (2750 BC) four times visited the land of Martu and made the peoples of one accord. His son Naram-sin, while extending the empire in other directions, maintained his authority here also. Commercial relations were continued, and Babylonia claimed at least a supremacy over Martu, and at times made it effective.

(3) Babylonian supremacy.—Hammurabi and also his great-grandson Ammisatana designate themselves in inscriptions as kings of Martu, and it is very likely that other kings maintained the traditional limits of the empire. The long-continued supremacy of Babylon not only made itself felt in imposing place-names, but it made Assyrian the language of diplomacy, even between Syria and Egypt, as we see in the Am Tab.

(4) Hittite and Aramaean.—By the middle of the 2d millennium BC we find considerable change in the population. The Mitanni, a Hittite people, the remains of whose language are to be found in the still undeciphered inscriptions at Carchemish, Marash, Aleppo and Hamath, are now masters of North Syria. See HITTITES.

The great discoveries of Dr. H. Winckler at Boghaz-keui have furnished a most important contribution to our knowledge. The preliminary account may be found in OLZ, December 15, 1906, and the Mitteilungen der deutschen orient. Gesellschaft, no. 35, December, 1907.

Elsewhere the Aramaean wave has become the predominant Sem element of population, the Canaanitic now occupying the coast towns (Phoeni-

cians) and the Canaan of the OT.

(5) Hittites and Egyptians.—At this time Babylonia was subject to the Kassites, an alien race of kings, and when they fell, about 1100 BC, they gave place to a number of dynasties of short duration. This gave the Egyptians, freed from the Hyksos rule, the opportunity to lay claim to Syria, and accordingly we find the struggle to be between the Hittites and the Egyptians. Thothmes I, the Hittites and the Egyptians. Thothmes I, about 1600 BC, overran Syria as far as the Euphrates and brought the country into subjection. Thothmes III did the same, and he has left us on the walls of Karnak an account of his campaigns

and a list of the towns he conquered.

(6) Amarna period.—In the reign of Thothmes IV
the Hittites began to leave their mountains more and more and to press forward into Central Syria. The Am Tab show them to be the most serious opponents to the Egyp authority in Syria and Pal during the reign of Amenhotep IV (c 1380 BC), and before Seti I came to the throne the power of the Pharaohs had greatly diminished in Syria. Then the Egyp sphere only reached to Carmel, while a neutral zone extended thence to Kadesh, northward

of which all belonged to the Hittites.

(7) Rameses II.—Rameses II entered energetically into the war against Hatesar, king of the Hittites, and fought a battle near Kadesh. He claims a great victory, but the only result seems to have been that his authority was further extended into the neutral territory, and the sphere of Egyp influence extended across Syria from the Lycus (Dog River) to the S. of Damascus. The arrangement was confirmed by a treaty in which North Syria was formally recognized as the Hittite sphere of influence, and, on the part of the Assyrians who were soon to become the heirs of the Hittite pretensions, this treaty formed the basis of a claim against Egypt. About the year 1200 BC the

Hittites, weakened by this war, were further encroached upon by the movements of northern races, and the empire broke up into a number of

small separate independent states.

(8) Philistines.—Among the moving races that helped to weaken and break up the Hittite influence in Syria were the Pulusati (or Purusati), a people whose origin is not yet definitely settled. They whose origin is not yet definitely settled. They entered Syria from the N. and overcame all who met them, after which they encamped within the Egyp sphere of influence. Rameses III marched against them, and he claims a great victory. Later, however, we find them settled in Southeastern Pal under the name of Philis. Their settlement at Pal under the name of Philis. Their settlement at that time is in harmony with the Am Tab in which we find no trace of them, while in the 11th cent. BC they are there as the inveterate foes of Israel.

(9) Tiglath-pileser I.—Assyria was now slowly rising into power, but it had to settle with Babylon before it could do much in the W. Tiglath-pileser I, however, crossed the Euphrates, defeated the Hittite king of Carchemish, advanced to the coast of Arvad, hunted wild bulls in Lebanon and received gifts from the Pharaoh, who thus recognized him as the successor of the Hittites in North Syria.

(10) Aramaean states.—When the Hittite empire broke up, the Aramaeans in Central Syria, now liberated, set up a number of separate Aramaean states, which engaged in war with one another, except when they had to combine against a common enemy. Such states were established in Hamath, Hadrach, Zobah and Rehob. The exact position of Hadrach is still unknown, but Hamath was evidently met on its southern border by Rehob and Zobah, the former extending along the Biqa'a to the foot of Hermon, while the latter stretched along the eastern slopes of Anti-Lebanon and included Damascus, till Rezon broke away and there set up an independent kingdom, which soon rose to be the leading state; S.E. of Hermon were the two smaller Aramaean states of Geshur and

(11) Peaceful development.—For nearly three centuries now, Syria and Pal were, except on rare occasions, left in peace by both Mesopotamia and Egypt. In the 12th cent. BC Babylonia was wasted by the Elamite invasion, and thereafter a prolonged war was carried on between Assyria and Babylonia, and although a lengthened period of peace succeeded, it was wisely used by the peaceful rulers of Assyria for the strengthening of their kingdom internally. In Egypt the successors of Rameses III were engaged against the aggressive Theban hierarchy. During the XXIst Dynasty the throne was usurped by the high priests of Amen, while the XXIId were Lybian usurpers, and the three following dynasties Ethiopian conquerors.
(12) Shalmaneser II.—In the 9th cent. Asshur-

nazirpal crossed the Euphrates and overran the recently established state of Patin in the Plain of Antioch. He besieged its capital and planted a colony in its territory, but the arrangement was not final, for his successor, Shalmaneser II, had again to invade the territory and break up the kingdom into a number of small principalities. Then in 854 BC he advanced into Central Syria, but was met at Karkar by a strong confederacy consisting of Ben-hadad of Damascus and his Syrian allies including Ahab of Israel. He claims a victory, but made no advance for 5 years. He then made three unsuccessful expeditions against Damascus, but in 842 received tribute from Tyre, Sidon and Jehu of Israel, as recorded and depicted on the Black Obelisk. It was not till the year 797 that Ramman-nirari, after subduing the coast of Phoenicia, was able to reduce Mari'a of Damascus to obedience, at which time also he seems to have carried his conquests through Eastern Pal as far The Assyr power now suffered a period of decline, during which risings took place at Hadrach and Damascus, and Jeroboam II of Israel was able (2 K 14 25) to extend his boundaries northward to the old limits.

(13) Tiglath-pileser III.—It thus happened that Tiglath-pileser III (745–728) had to reconquer the whole of Syria. He captured Arpad after two years' warfare (742-740). Then he divided the territory of Hamath among his generals. At this juncture Ahaz of Judah implored his aid against Rezin of Damascus and Remaliah of Israel. Ahaz was relieved, but was made subject to Assyria. Damascus fell in 732 BC and a Great Court was held there, which the tributary princes of Syria, including Ahaz (2 K 16 10), attended. The Assyr empire now possessed the whole of Syria as far as the River of Egypt. Sibahe, however, encouraged revolt in what had been the Egyp sphere of influence, and insurrections took place in Phoenicia and Samaria.

(14) Shalmaneser IV and Sargon.—After some difficulty Shalmaneser IV compelled Tyre and Sidon to submit and to pay tribute. Samaria, too, was besieged, but was not taken till Sargon came to the throne in 722. Hamath and Carchemish again rose, but were finally reduced in 720 and 717 respectively. Again in 711 Sargon overran Pal and broke up a fresh confederacy consisting of Egypt, Moab, Edom, Judah and the Philis. 705 the Egyptians under Sibahe and their allies the Philis under Hanun of Gaza were defeated at Raphia.

The last three rulers of Assyria were in constant difficulties with Babylonia and a great part of the empire was also overrun by the Scythians (c 626 BC), and so nothing further was done in the W. save the annexation of the mainland possessions of

(15) Pharaoh-necoh and Nebuchadnezzar.—In 609 when Assyria was in the death grapple with Babylonia, Pharaoh-necoh took advantage of the situa-tion, invaded Syria, and, defeating Josiah en route, marched to Carchemish. In 605, however, he was there completely defeated by Nebuchadnezzar, and the whole of Syria became tributary to Babylonia. The former Syrian states now appear as Bab provinces, and revolts in Judah reduced it also to that position in 586 BC.

Under Pers rule these provinces remained as they were for a time, but ultimately "Ebir nari" or Syria was formed into a satrapy. The Gr conquest with the Ptolemies in Egypt and the Seleucidae in Babylon brought back some of the old rivalry between E. and W., and the same unsettled conditions. On the advent of Rome, Syria was separated from Babylonia and made into a province with Antioch as its capital, and then the Sem civilization which had continued practically untouched till the beginning of the Christian era was brought more and more into contact with the W. With the advent of Islam, Syria fell into Arab hands and Damascus became for a short time (661-750 AD) the capital of the new empire, but the central authority was soon removed to Babylonia. Thenceforward Syria sank to the level of a province of the caliphate, first Abbasside (750–1258), then Fatimite (1258–1517), and finally Ottoman. W. M. Christie Ottoman.

SYRIA-MAACHAH, sir'i-a-mā'a-ka. See Maa-CAH; SYRIA.

SYRIAC, sir'i-ak: In Dnl 2 4, for AV "Syriack" RV has "Syrian," and in m "Or, 'in Aramaic." See Aramaic Language; Languages of the OT.

SYRIAC VERSIONS:

- Analogy of Latin Vulgate
 The Designation "Peshito" ("Peshiţta")
 Syriac OT
 Syriac NT
 Old Syriac Texts
 (1) Curetonian
 (2) Tatian's Diatessaron
 (3) Sinatic Syriac
 (4) Relation to Peshito
 Probable Origin of Peshito
 History of Peshito
 Other Translations
 (1) The Philoxenian
 (2) The Harclean
 (3) The Jerusalem Syriac
 TTERATURE

LITERATURE

As in the account of the Lat VSS it was convenient to start from Jerome's Vulg, so the Syr VSS may be usefully approached from the Pesh, which is the Syr Vulg.

Not that we have any such full and clear knowledge of the circumstances under which the Pesh was produced and came into circulation. Whereas the authorship of the Lat Vulg has never been in dispute, almost every assertion regarding the authorship of the Pesh, and the time and place of its origin, is subject to question. The chief ground of analogy between the Vulg and the Pesh is that both came into existence as the result of a revision. This, indeed, has been strenuously denied, but since Dr. Hort in his Intro to Westcott and Hort's NT in the Original Gr, follolwing Griesbach and Hug at the beginning of the last century, maintained this view, it has gained many adherents. So far as the Gospels and other NT books are concerned, there is evidence in favor of this view which has been added to by recent discoveries; and fresh investigation in the field of Syr scholarship has raised it to a high degree of probability. The very designation. "Peshito," has given rise to dispute. It has been applied to the Syr as the version in common use, and regarded as equivalent to the Gr sown (koinž) and the Lat Vulg.

The word itself is a fem. form (peshtlethā'), meaning "simple," "easy to be understood." It seems to have been used to distinguish the version from others which are en-2. The Designation cumbered with marks and signs in "Peshito" the nature of an apparatus criticus. However this may be, the term as a designation of the version has not been found in any Syr author earlier than the 9th or 10th cent.

As regards the OT, the antiquity of the Version is admitted on all hands. The tradition, however, that part of it was tr¹ from Heb into Syr for the benefit of Hiram in the days of Solomon is a myth. That a tr was made by a priest named Assa, or Ezra, whom the king of Assyria sent to Samaria, to instruct the Assyr colonists mentioned in 2 K 17, is equally legendary. That the tr of the OT and NT was made in connection with the visit of Thaddaeus to Abgar at Edessa belongs also to unreliable tradition. St. Mark has even been credited in ancient Syr tradition with translating his own Gospel (written in Lat, according to this account) and the other books of the NT into Syr.

But what Theodore of Mopsuestia says of the OT is true of both: "These Scriptures were trd into the tongue of the Syrians by someone indeed at some time, but who on earth 3. Syriac this was has not been made known down to our day" (Nestle in HDB, IV, OT Professor Burkitt has made it probable that the tr of the OT was the work of Jews, of whom there was a colony in Edessa about the commencement of the Christian era (Early Eastern Christianity, 71 ff). The older view was that the translators were Christians, and that the work was done late in the 1st cent. or early in the 2d. The OT known to the early Syrian church was substantially that of the Palestinian Jews. It contained the same number of books but it arranged them in a different order. First there was the Pent, then Job, Josh, Jgs, 1 and 2 S, 1 and 2 K, 1 and 2 Ch, Pss, Prov, Eccl, Ruth, Cant, Est, Ezr, Neh, Isa followed by the Twelve Minor Prophets, Jer and Lam, Ezk, and lastly Dnl. Most of the apocryphal books of the OT are found

in the Syr, and the Book of Sir is held to have been trd from the Heb and not from the LXX

Of the NT, attempts at translation must have been made very early, and among the ancient VSS of NT Scripture the Syr in all likeli-

4. Syriac NT hood is the earliest. It was at Antioch, the capital of Syria, that the disciples of Christ were first called Christians. and it seemed natural that the first tr of the Chris-

tian Scriptures should have been made there. tendency of recent research, however, goes to show that Edessa, the literary capital, was more likely

the place.

If we could accept the somewhat obscure statement of Eusebius (HE, IV, xxii) that Hegesippus "made some quotations from the Gospel according to the Hebrews and from the Syr Gospel," we should have a reference to a Syr NT as early as 160-80 AD, the time of that Heb Christian writer. One thing is certain, that the earliest NT of the Syr church lacked not only the Antilegomena-2 Pet, 2 and 3 Jn, Jude, and Rev—but the whole of the Catholic Epp. and the Apocalypse. These were at a later date tr^d and received into the Syr Canon of the NT, but the quotations of the early Syrian Fathers take no notice of these NT books.

From the 5th cent., however, the Pesh containing both OT and NT has been used in its present form only as the national version of the Syr Scriptures. The tr of the NT is careful, faithful and literal, and the simplicity, directness and transparency of the style are admired by all Syr scholars and have earned for it the title of "Queen of the VSS."

It is in the Gospels, however, that the analogy between the Lat Vulg and the Syr Vulg can be established by evidence. If the Pesh

5. Old is the result of a revision as the Vulg was, then we may expect to find Old Syr texts answering to the Old Lat. Syriac Texts Such texts have actually been found.

Three such texts have been recovered, all showing divergences from the Pesh, and believed by competent scholars to be anterior to it. These are, to take them in the order of their recovery in modern times, (1) the Curetonian Syr, (2) the Syr of Tatian's *Diatessaron*, and (3) the Sinaitic Syr. They are known respectively as 🕏°, 🗷, 🕏°, the Pesh being €p.

(1) Curetonian Syriac.—The Curetonian consists of fragments of the Gospels brought in 1842 from the Nitrian Desert in Egypt, and now in the British The fragments were examined by Canon Cureton of Westminster and edited by him in 1858. The MS from which the fragments have come appears to belong to the 5th cent., but scholars believe the text itself to be as old as the 2d cent. In this recension the Gospel according to St. Matthew has the title Evangelion da-Mepharreshê, which will be explained in the next section.

(2) Tatian's "Diatessaron."—The Diatessaron of Tatian is the work which Eusebius ascribes to that heretic, calling it that "combination and collection of the Gospels, I know not how, to which he gave the title Diatessaron." It is the earliest harmony of the Four Gospels known to us. Its existence is amply attested in the church of Syria, but it had disappeared for centuries, and not a single copy of

the Syr work survives.

A commentary upon it by Ephraem the Syrian, surviving in an Armenian tr, was issued by the Mechitarist Fathers at Venice in 1836, and afterward trd into Lat. Since 1876 an Arab. tr of the Diatessaron itself has been discovered; and it has been ascertained that the Cod. Fuldensis of the Vulg represents the order and contents of the Diatessaron. A tr from the Arab. can now be read in Eng. in Dr.

J. Hamlyn Hill's The Earliest Life of Christ Ever

Compiled from the Four Gospels.

Although no copy of the Diatessaron has survived, the general features of Tatian's Syr work can be gathered from these materials. It is still a matter of dispute whether Tatian composed his Harmony out of a Syr version already made, or composed it first in Gr and then tr^d it into Syr. But the existence and widespread use of a Harmony, combining in one all four Gospels, from such an early period (172 AD), enables us to understand the title Evan-gelion da-Mepharreshê. It means "the Gospel of the Separated," and points to the existence of single Gospels, Mt, Mk, Lk, Jn, in a Syr tr, in contra-distinction to Tatian's Harmony. Theodoret, bishop of Cyrrhus in the 5th cent., tells how he found more than 200 copies of the *Diatessaron* held in honor in his diocese and how he collected them, and put them out of the way, associated as they were with the name of a heretic, and substituted for them the Gospels of the four evangelists in their separate forms.

(3) The Sinaitic Syriac.—In 1892 the discovery of the 3d text, known, from the place where it was found, as the Sin Syr, comprising the four Gospels nearly entire, heightened the interest in the subject and increased the available material. It is a palimpsest, and was found in the monastery of St. Catherine on Mt. Sinai by Mrs. Agnes S. Lewis and her sister Mrs. Margaret D. Gibson. The text has been carefully examined and many scholars regard it as representing the earliest tr into Syr, and reaching back into the 2d cent. Like the Curetonian, it is an example of the Evangelion da-Mepharreshê as distinguished from the Harmony of

(4) Relation to Peshito.—The discovery of these texts has raised many questions which it may require further discovery and further investigation to answer satisfactorily. It is natural to ask what is the relation of these three texts to the Pesh. are still scholars, foremost of whom is G. H. Gwilliam, the learned editor of the Oxford Peshito (Tetraevangelium sanctum, Clarendon Press, 1901), who maintain the priority of the Pesh and insist upon its claim to be the earliest monument of Syrian Christianity. But the progress of investigation into Syr Christian lit. points distinctly the other way. From an exhaustive study of the quotations in the earliest Syr Fathers, and, in particular, of the works of Ephraem Syrus, Professor Burkitt concludes that the Pesh did not exist in the 4th cent. He finds that Ephraem used the Diatessaron in the main as the source of his quotation, although "his voluminous writings contain some clear indications that he was aware of the existence of the separate Gospels, and he seems occasionally to have quoted from them" (Evangelion da-Mepharreshê, 186). Such quotations as are found in other extant remains of Syr lit. before the 5th cent. bear a greater resemblance to the readings of the Curetonian and the Sinaitic than to the readings of the Pesh. Internal and external evidence alike point to the later and revised character of the Pesh.

How and where and by whom was the revision

carried out? Dr. Hort, as we have seen, believed that the "revised" character of the 6. Probable Syr Vulg was a matter of certainty, Origin of and Dr. Westcott and he connected the authoritative revision which resulted Peshito in the Pesh with their own theory,

now widely adopted by textual critics, of a revision of the Gr text made at Antioch in the latter part of the 3d cent., or early in the 4th. The recent investigations of Professor Burkitt and other scholars have made it probable that the Pesh was the work of Rabbûla, bishop of Edessa, at the beginning of

the 5th cent. Of this revision, as of the revision which plays such an important part in the textual theory of Westcott and Hort, direct evidence is very scanty, in the former case altogether wanting. Dr. Burkitt, however, is able to quote words of Rabbûla's biographer to the effect that "by the wisdom of God that was in him he trd the NT from Gr into Syr because of its variations, exactly as it was." This may well be an account of the first publication of the Syr Vulg, the Old Syr texts then available having been brought by this revision into greater conformity with the Gr text current at Antioch in the beginning of the 5th cent. And Rabbûla was not content with the publication of his revision; he gave orders to the priests and the deacons to see that "in all the churches a copy of the Evangelion da-Mepharreshe shall be kept and read" (ib 161 ff, 177 f). It is very remarkable that before the time of Rabbûla, who ruled over the Syr-speaking churches from 411 to 435, there is no trace of the Pesh, and that after his time there is scarcely a vestige of any other text. He very likely acted in the manner of Theodoret somewhat later, pushing the newly made revision, which we have reason to suppose the Pesh to have been, into prominence, and making short work of other texts, of which only the Curetonian and the Sinaitic are known to have survived to modern times.

The Pesh had from the 5th cent. onward a wide circulation in the East, and was accepted and hon-ored by all the numerous sects of the

7. History greatly divided Syr Christianity. It of Peshito had a great missionary influence, and the Armenian and Georgian VSS, as

well as the Arab, and the Pers, owe not a little to the The famous Nestorian tablet of Sing-an-fu witnesses to the presence of the Syr Scriptures in the heart of China in the 7th cent. It was first brought to the West by Moses of Mindin, a noted Syrian ecclesiastic, who sought a patron for the work of printing it in vain in Rome and Venice, but found one in the Imperial Chancellor at Vienna in 1555-Albert Widmanstadt. He undertook the printing of the NT, and the emperor bore the cost of the special types which had to be cast for its issue in Syr. Immanuel Tremellius, the converted Jew whose scholarship was so valuable to the Eng. reformers and divines, made use of it, and the Eng. reformers and divines, made use of it, and in 1569 issued a Syr NT in Heb letters. In 1645 the editio princeps of the OT was prepared by Gabriel Sionita for the Paris Polyglot, and in 1657 the whole Pesh found a place in Walton's London Polyglot. For long the best edition of the Pesh was that of John Leusden and Karl Schaaf, and it is still quoted under the symbol Syr Schar, or Syr Sch. The critical ed of the Gospels recently issued by Mr. G. H. Gwilliam at the Clarendon Press is based upon some 50 MSS. Considering the revival of Syr scholarship, and the large company of workers engaged in this field, we may expect further contributions of a similar character to a new and complete critical edition of the Pesh.

(1) The Philoxenian.—Besides the Pesh there are

other trs which may briefly be mentioned. One of these is the Philoxenian, made by Philo-

8. Other xenus, bishop of Mabug (485-519) on Translations the Euphrates, from the Gr, with the help of his Chorepiscopus Polycarp. The Pss and portions of Isa are also found in this

version; and it is interesting as having contained the Antilegomena—2 Pet, 2 and 3 Jn, and Jude.

(2) The Harclean.—Another is the Harclean, which is a revision of the Philoxenian, undertaken by Thomas of Harkel in Mesopotamia, and carried out by him at Alexandria about 616, with the help of Gr MSS exhibiting western readings. The OT was undertaken at the same time by Paul of Tella.

The NT contains the whole of the books, except Rev. It is very literal in its renderings, and is supplied with an elaborate system of asterisks and daggers to indicate the variants found in the

(3) The Jerusalem Syriac.—Mention may also be made of a Syr version of the NT known as the Jerusalem or Palestinian Syr, believed to be independent, and not derived genealogically from those already mentioned. It exists in a Lectionary of the Gospels in the Vatican, but two fresh MSS of the Lectionary have been found on Mt. Sinai by Dr. Rendel Harris and Mrs. Lewis, with fragments of Acts and the Pauline Epp. The dialect employed deviates considerably from the ordinary Syr, and the Gr text underlying it has many peculiarities. It alone of Syr MSS has the pericope adulterae. In Mt 27 17 the robber is called Jesus Barabbas. Gregory describes 10 MSS (Textkritik, 523 f).

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T. NICOL SYRIAN, sir'i-an (AV SYRIACK), LANGUAGE. See SYRIAC.

SYRIANS, sir'i-anz (ΔηΚ, 'ărām; Σύροι, Súroi; Assyr Aramu, Arumu, Arimu):

Division of Aram
 A Semitic Race
 Syria and Israel
 Under Nabathaeans and Palmyrenes
 A Mixed Race, Semitic Type
 Religion

The terms "Syria" and "Syrians" are used in two senses in the Bible. In the OT they are uniformly "Aram," "Aramaean," while in the NT they are used in a wider and more indefinite sense (Mt 4 24; Acts 15 23; 18 18; Gal 1 21), and include all the dwellers of the land whether Aramaeans or not.

Aram was divided into several districts, comprising, in general, the region to the E. of the Jordan, but extending in the N. over

1. Division most of Northern Syria, or from the of Aram Orontes eastward, and Northern Mesopotamia. This latter division was

called Aram-naharaim-Aram of the two rivers, i.e. Tigris and Euphrates—and is the Nahrina of the Egyp inscriptions. It is also called Paddan-aram in the OT (Gen 25 20) or field of Aram (Hos 12 12). The most important of the divisions of Aram in OT times was Aram-dammesek, the Syria of Damascus. which sometimes dominated all of the other divisions lying to the S., such as Rehob, Tob, Zobah, and Maacah (2 S 10 8). Geshur was in this region and should be reckoned as an Aramaean district (2 S 15 8).

The Aramaeans were of Sem stock and closely akin to the Hebrews. Aram is called a son of

Shem (Gen 10 22), which means a descendant, for we find him afterward called a grandson of Nahor, the 2. A Semitic Race brother of Abraham (Gen 22 21). The Israelites were taught to say "A Syrian [Aramaean] ready to perish was my father" (Dt 26 5), and the kinship of the Hebrews and Aramaeans was further cemented by the marriage of Isaac with Rebekah, the sister of Laban the Syrian, and of Jacob with his daughters (Gen 24, 29). The period when the Aramaeans first appeared in Syria is uncertain, but was probably later than 2000 BC. When Abraham came from Haran, Damascus was already occupied (Gen 15 2), and this may have been the oldest settlement of the Aramaeans in

Syria proper, although it is not mentioned on the monuments until long after, in the time of Thothmes III of Egypt, about 1479 BC. The Syrians were generally hostile to the Hebrews and had wars with them from the time of David onward. David subdued them, although they were aided by the tribes from beyond the Euphrates (2 S 10), but after the division of the kingdom they often proved too strong for the northern Israelites.

In the days of Omri the Syrians of Damascus brought them into subjection, but Ahab recovered all the lost territory and Damascus 3. Syria seems to have been subordinate for

seems to have been subordinate for a time (1 K 20 34). The king of and Israel The king of Damascus afterward regained the supremacy, as appears from the Assyr records, for in the war of Shalmaneser II with the peoples of Syria we find them led by Ben-hadad of Damascus and, among his subject allies, Ahab, who furnished 2,000 chariots and 10,000 men. Ben-hadad succeeded in uniting most of the petty kingdoms of Syria together in opposition to Assyria, but could not hold them, and they fell, one after another, as well as Damascus itself, into the hands of the great world-power. Jeroboam II recovered the districts that had been taken from Israel by the Syrians (2 K 14 25), but this was only a temporary success, for Rezin extended his authority over all the East-Jordanic region as far as Elath on the Red Sea (2 K 16 6), and he and Pekah joined in an attack upon Judah, but failed on account of the Assyr advance (2 K 16 5-9). Damascus fell into the hands of Tiglath-pileser in 732 BC, and the power of the Syrians was completely broken.

The Aramaic peoples became prominent again under the Nabathaeans and Palmyrenes, both of whom were of this stock, as their

4. Under language is clearly Aramaic. The Nabathae- former established a kingdom extending from the Euphrates to the Red Palmyrenes Sea, their capital being Petra, and

Damascus was under their control in the reign of their king Aretas (el-Harith) (2 Cor 11 32). This kingdom was absorbed by Rome in the reign of Trajan. The Palmyrenes did not come into prominence until the 3d cent. AD, but became, for a short time, the leading power in Western Asia. In the weakness of Rome, under Gallienus, Odenathus and his still more distinguished wife, Zenobia, dominated all Syria, and the latter dared to dispute with Aurelian the empire of the East. With her fall in 272 AD the power of the Aramaeans was extinguished and never revived.

The Syrians in the broader sense have always been a mixed people, though of a prevailing Sem type.

The earliest layer of Sem population

5. A Mixed

Race of

Syria when the first Bab empire extended its authority over the land. Later

appear the Canaanites, Phoenicians,
Jebusites, Hivites and other tribes,
all of which are classed together as descendants of
Canaan in Gen 10, but their Sem character in
historic times is undoubted. The Hyksos who were
driven from Egypt to Pal and Syria were of the
same race, as would appear from the Egyp records.
The Aramaeans formed the next wave of Sem stock,
but there were others, like the Hitties, who were
not Sem, and the Philis, whose race affinity is doubtful. The Egyptians occupied the country for a

long period, but did not contribute much to the population. Some of the tribes brought in by the Assyrians may have been non-Sem, but most of them were evidently of cognate race (2 K 17 24), and the racial characteristics of the Syrians were not changed. When Alexander and his successors brought in the Gr and Macedonian elements there was a decided change in the city population, but little in the country districts, and although the Greeks had a powerful influence upon the civilization of the country the Sem type overcame the admixture of Gr blood and prevailed in the country as a whole. The Romans ruled the country for centuries and established a number of military colonies, but they did not affect the population even as much as the Greeks. When, in the 7th cent. AD, the Mohammedan conquest swept over Syria, it brought in another great wave of pure Sem stock with the numerous Arab settlers, who tended to obliterate any non-Sem elements that might have existed. The effects of the influx of Europeans in the time of the Crusades were not sufficient to produce any marked change, and the same may be said of all later invasions of Turks and Kurds.

The Syrians, while thus a mixed people to a large extent, have maintained the Sem type, but they have never, in all their history, been able to unite politically, and have always been divided, when independent. They have been, during the greater part of their history, under foreign domination, as they still are, under Turkish rule.

The religion of the Syrians in ancient times was undoubtedly similar to that of the Babylonians, as is shown by the names of their gods.

s snown by the names of their gods.

6. Religion The Aramaeans worshipped Hadad and Rimmon (2 K 5 18), sometimes joined as Hadadrimmon (Zec 12 11). Baal, or Bel, Ashtoreth, or Ishtar, were almost universally worshipped, and Nebu, Agli-bol, Melakh-bol, Ati and other deities are found in the Palmyrene inscriptions, showing the Bab influence in their cult. This was to be expected from the known prevalence of Bab

culture throughout Western Asia for centuries.

H. PORTER
SYROPHOENICIAN, si'ro-fe-nish'an, sir'ö(Συροφοίνισσα, Surophoinissa, Συροφοινίκισσα, Surophoinikissa; WH has variant Súra Phoinikissa; AV
Syrophenician): The woman from the borders of
Tyre and Sidon whose daughter Jesus healed is
described as "a Greek, a Syrophoenician by race"
(Mk 7 26), and again as "a Canaanitish woman"
(Mt 15 22). This seems to mean that she was
of Can. descent, a native of the Phoen seaboard,
Gr in religion, and probably also in speech. The
names Syria and Phoenicia are both applied to the
same region in Acts 21 2.3. Syrophoenician may
therefore denote simply an inhabitant of these
parts. According to Strabo (xvii.3), this district
was called Syrophoenicia to distinguish it from the
North African Lybophoenicia. W. Ewing

SYRTIS, sir'tis (σύρτις, súrtis): RV form for "quicksands" in Acts 27 17. These sandbanks, off the northern coast of Africa, have from early times been regarded as a source of danger to mariners. Virgil refers to them (Aen. iv. 40 f). In Paul's voyage, the ship, driven by a tempestuous wind, Euraquilo, was in peril of being cast upon them.

SYZYGUS, siz'i-gus. See Synzygus.

like a "tent," and the difficulty at once presents itself of how, in such a structure, "sagging" of the roof was to be prevented. Mr. J. Fergusson, in his art. "Temple" in Smith's DB, accordingly, advanced the other conception that the structure was essentially that of a tent, with ridge-pole, sloping roof, and other appurtenances of such an erection. He plausibly, though not with entire success, sought to show how this construction answered accurately to the measurements and other requirements of the text (e.g. the mention of "pins of the tabernacle," Ex 35 18). With slight modification this view here commends itself as having most in its favor.

To avoid the difficulty of the ordinary view, that the coverings, hanging down *outside* the framework, are unseen from within, except on the roof, it has sometimes been argued that the tapestry that she there argued that the tapestry covering hung down, not outside, but inside the tabernacle (Keil, Bähr, etc). It is generally felt that this arrangement is inadmissible. A newer and more ingenious theory is that propounded by A. R. S. Kennedy in his art. "Tabernacle" in HDB. At R. S. Reinedy in his art. Tabellate in HBB. It is that the "boards" constituting the framework of the tabernacle were, not solid planks, but really open "frames," through which the finely wrought covering could be seen from within. There is much that is fascinating in this theory, if the initial assumption of the flat roof is granted, but it cannot be regarded as being yet satisfactorily made out. Professor Kennedy argues from the excessive weight of the solid "boards." It might be replied: In a purely "ideal" structure such as he supposes this to be, what does the weight matter? The "boards," however, need not have been so thick or heavy as he represents.

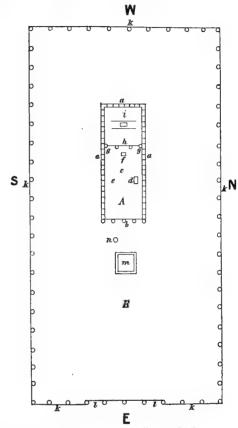
In the minuter details of construction yet greater diversity of opinion obtains, and imagination is often allowed a freedom of exercise incompatible

with the sober descriptions of the text.

The attempt at reconstruction of the tabernacle begins naturally with the "court" $(\hbar \bar{a} g \bar{e} r)$ or outer inclosure in which the taber-1. Inclosure nacle stood (see Court of Sanc-or Court TUARY). The description is given in Ex 27 9-18; 38 9-20. The court is to be conceived of as an inclosed space of 100

is to be conterved of as an inclosed space of 100 cubits (150 ft.) in length, and 50 cubits (75 ft.) in breadth, its sides formed (with special arrangement for the entrance) by "hangings" or curtains $(k^2l\bar{a}^*\bar{b}m)$ of "fine twined linen," 5 cubits $(7\frac{1}{2} \text{ ft.})$ in height, supported by pillars of brass (bronze) to cubits apart, to which the hangings were attached by "hooks" and "fillets" of silver. It thus conby "nooks" and "niets" of silver. It thus consisted of two squares of 50 cubits each, in the anterior of which (the easterly) stood the "altar of burnt-offering" (see Alpar), and the "laver" (see Laver), and in the posterior (the westerly) the tabernacle itself. From Ex 30 17-21 we learn that the laver—a large (bronze) vessel for the ablutions of the priests—stood between the altar and the tabernacle (ver 18). The pillars were 60 in number, 20 being reckoned to the longer sides (N. and S.), and 10 each to the shorter (E. and W.). The pillars and 10 each to the shorter (E. and W.). The pillars were set in "sockets" or bases ('edhen) of brass (bronze), and had "capitals" (AV and ERV "chapiters") overlaid with silver (38 17). The "fillets" are here, as usually, regarded as silver rods conare here, as usuary, regarded as sivel rous connecting the pillars; some, however, as Ewald,
Dillmann, Kennedy, take the "fillet" to be an ornamental band round the base of the capital. On
the eastern side was the "gate" or entrance. This
was formed by a "screen" (māṣākh) 20 cubits
(30 ft.) in breadth, likewise of fine twined linen, but distinguished from the other (white) hangings by being embroidered in "blue, and purple, and scarlet" (see East Gate). The hangings on either side of the "gate" were 15 cubits in breadth. The 10

pillars of the east side are distributed—4 to the entrance screen, 3 on either side to the hangings. The enumeration creates some difficulty till it is remembered that in the reckoning round the court no pillar is counted twice, and that the corner pillars and those on either side of the entrance



Ground Plan, according to Keil.

A, The Dwelling-Place
a, the framework; b, the pillars of the entrance; c, the holy place; d,
the table of shewbread; e, the candlestick; f, the altar of incense; g, the
veil and pillars; h, the Holy of Holies; i, the ark and mercy-seat.

B, The Court
le, the pillars of the court; l, the entrance curtain and pillars; m, the
altar of burnt offering; n, the laver.

had each to do a double duty. The reckoning is really by the 5-cubit spaces between the pillars. Mention is made (27 19; 38 20) of the "pins" of the court, as well as of the tabernacle, by means of which, in the former case, the pillars were held in place. These also were of brass (bronze).

In the inner of the two squares of the court was reared the tabernacle—a rectangular oblong structure, 30 cubits (45 ft.) long and 10 cubits (15 ft.) broad, 2. Strucdivided into two parts, a holy and a most holy (26 33). Attention has to ture, Divisions and Furniture be given here (1) to the coverings of the tabernacle, (2) to its framework and divisions, and (3) to its furniture.

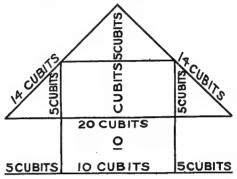
(Ex **26** 1-14; (1) Coverings of the tabernacle 36 8-19).—The wooden framework of the tabernacle to be afterward described had 3 coverings one, the immediate covering of the tabernacle or "dwelling," called by the same name, mishkān (26 1.6); a second, the "tent" covering of goats' hair; and a third, a protective covering of rams' and seal- (or porpoise-) skins, cast over the whole.

(a) The covering of the tabernacle proper (26 1-6) consisted of 10 curtains (yerī'ōth, lit. "breadth") of fine twined linen, beautifully woven with blue, and purple, and scarlet, and with figures of cherubim. The 10 curtains, each 28 cubits long and 4 cubits broad, were joined together in sets of 5 to form 2 large curtains, which again were fastened by 50 loops and clasps (AV "taches") of gold, so as to make a single great curtain 40 cubits (60 ft.) long, and 28 cubits (42 ft.) broad. (b) The "tent" covering (vs 7-13) was formed by 11 curtains of goats' hair, the length in this case being 30 cubits, and the breadth 4 cubits. These were joined in sets of 5 and 6 curtains, and as before the two divisions were coupled by 50 loops and clasps (this time of bronze), into one great curtain of 44 cubits (66 ft.) in length and 30 cubits (45 ft.) in breadth—an excess of 4 cubits in length and 2 in breadth over the fine tabernacle curtain. (c) Finally, for purposes of protection, coverings were ordered to be made (ver 14) for the "tent" of rams' skins dyed red, and of seal- or porpoise-skins (EV "badgers' skins"). The arrangement of the coverings is considered below.

(2) The framework of the tabernacle (Ex 26 15-37; 36 20-38) was, as ordinarily understood, composed of upright "boards" of acacia wood, forming 3 sides of the oblong structure, the front being closed by an embroidered "screen," depending from 5 pillars (26 36.37; see below). These ing from 5 pillars (26 36.37; see below). These boards, 48 in number (20 each for the north and south sides, and 8 for the west side), were 10 cubits (15 ft.) in height, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ cubits (2 ft. 3 in.) in breadth (the thickness is not given), and were overlaid with the thickness is not given), and were overlaid with gold. They were set by means of "tenons" (lit. "hands"), or projections at the foot, 2 for each board, in 96 silver "sockets," or bases ("a talent for a socket," 38 27). In the boards were "rings" of gold, through which were passed 3 horizontal "bars," to hold the parts together—the middle bar, apparently, on the long sides, extending from end to end (26 28), the upper and lower bars being divided in the center (5 bars in all on each side). The bars, like the boards, were overlaid with gold. Some obscurity rests on the arrangement at the back: 6 of the boards were of the usual breadth (= 9 cubits), but the 2 corner boards appear to have made up only a cubit between them (vs 22-24). made up only a cubit between them (vs 22-24). Notice has already been taken of the theory (Kennedy, art. "Tabernacle," *HDB*) that the so-called "boards" were not really such, but were open "frames," the 2 uprights of which, joined by crosspieces, are the "tenons" of the text. It seems unlikely, if this was meant, that it should not be more distinctly explained. The inclosure thus constructed was next divided into 2 apartments, separated by a "veil," which hung from 4 pillars overlaid with gold and resting in silver sockets. Like the tabernacle-covering, the veil was beautifully woven with blue, purple, and scarlet, and with figures of cherubim (vs 31.32; see Veil). The outer of these chambers, or "holy place," was, outer of these chambers, or "holy place," was, as usually computed, 20 cubits long by 10 broad; the inner, or "most holy place," was 10 cubits square. The "door of the tent" (ver 36) was formed, as already stated, by a "screen," embroidered with the above colors, and depending from 5 pillars in bronze sockets. Here also the hooks were of gold, and the pillars and their capitals overlaid with and the pillars and their capitals overlaid with gold (36 38).

Preference has already been expressed for Mr. Fergusson's idea that the tabernacle was not flat-roofed, the curtains being cast over it like drapery, but was tentike in shape, with ridge-pole, and a sloping roof, raising the total height to 15 cubits. Passing over the ridge pole, and descending at an angle, 14 cubits on either side, the inner curtain would extend 5 cubits beyond the walls of the tabernacle, making an awning of that

width N. and S., while the goats'-hair covering above it, 2 cubits wider, would hang below it a cubit on either side. The whole would be held in position by ropes secured by bronze tent-pins to the ground (27 19; 38 31). The scheme has obvious advantages in that it preserves the idea of a "tent," conforms to the principal measurements, removes the difficulty of "sagging" on the (flat) roof, and permits of the golden boards, bars and rings, on



Construction of Tabernacle, according to Fergusson.

the outside, and of the finely wrought tapestry, on the inside, being seen (Professor Kennedy provides for the latter by his "frames," through which the curtain would be visible). On the other hand, it is not to be concealed that the construction proposed presents several serious difficulties. The silence of the text about a ridge-pole, supporting pillars, and other requisites of Mr. Fergusson's scheme (his suggestion that "the middle bar" of 26 28 may be the ridge-pole is quite untenable), may be got over by assuming that these parts are taken for granted as understood in tent-construction. But this does not apply to other adjustments, esp. those connected with the back and front of the tabernacle. It was seen above that the inner covering was 40 cubits in length, while the tabernacle-structure was 30 cubits. How is this excess of 10 cubits in the tapestry-covering dealt with? Mr. Fergusson, dividing equally, supposes a porch of 5 cubits at the front, and a space of 5 cubits also behind, with hypothetical pillars. The text, however, is explicit that the veil dividing the holy from the most holy place was hung "under the clasps" (26 33), i.e. on this hypothesis, midway in the structure, or 15 cubits from either end. Either, then, (1) the idea must be abandoned that the holy place was twice the length of the Holy of Holies (20×10; it is to be observed that the text does not state the proportions, which are inferred from those of Solomon's Temple), or (2) Mr. Fergusson's arrangement must be given up, and the division of the curtain be moved back 5 cubits, depriving him of his curtain for the porch, and leaving 10 cubits to be disposed of in the rear. Another difficulty is connected with the porch itself. No clear indication of such a porch is given in the text, while the 5 pillars "for the screen" (ver 37) are most naturally taken to be, like the latter, at the immediate entrance of the tabernacle. Mr. Fergusson, on the other hand, finds it necessary to separate pillars and screen, and to place the pillars 5 cubi

The measurements in the above reckoning are internal. Dr. Kennedy disputes this, but the analogy of the temple is against his view.

(3) The furniture of the sanctuary is described in Ex 25 10-40 (ark, table of shewbread, candlestick); 30 1-10 (altar of incense); cf ch 37 for making. In the innermost shrine, the Holy of Holies, the sole object was the ark of the covenant, overlaid within and without with pure gold, with its molding and rings of gold, its staves overlaid with gold passed through the rings, and its lid or covering of solid gold—the propitiatory or mercy-seat—at either end of which, of one piece with it (25 19; 37 8), stood cherubim, with wings out-

TABERNACLE (SCHICK'S MODEL)

3. Settle-

Stretched over the mercy-seat and with faces turned toward it (for details see ARK OF COVENANT; MERCY-SEAT; CHERUBIM). This was the meeting-place of Jeh and His people through Moses (25 22). The ark contained only the two tables of stone, hence its name, "the ark of the testimony" (25 16.22). It is not always realized how small an object the ark was—only $2\frac{1}{2}$ cubits (3 ft. 9 in.) long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ cubits (2 ft. 3 in.) broad, and the same ($1\frac{1}{2}$ cubits) high.

The furniture of the outer chamber of the tabernacle consisted of (a) the table of shewbread; (b) the golden candlestick: (c) the altar of incense, or golden altar. These were placed, the table of shewbread on the north side (40 22), the candlestick on the south side (40 24), and the altar of incense in front of the veil, in the holy place.

(a) The table of shewbread was a small table of acacia wood, overlaid with gold, with a golden rim round the top, gold rings at the corners of its 4 feet, staves for the rings, and a "border" (at middle?) joining the legs, holding them together. Its dimensions were 2 cubits (3 ft.) long, 1 cubit (18 in.) broad, and 1½ cubits (2 ft. 3 in.) high. On it were placed 12 cakes, renewed each week, in 2 piles (cf Lev 24 5-9), together with dishes (for the bread), spoons (incense cups), flagons and bowls (for drink offerings), all of pure gold (see SHEWBREAD, TABLE OF).

(b) The candlestick or lampstand was the article on which most adornment was lavished. It was of pure gold, and consisted of a central stem (in 25 32–35 this specially receives the name "candlestick"), with 3 curved branches on either side, all elegantly wrought with cups of almond blossom, knops, and flowers (lilies?)—3 of this series to each branch and 4 to the central stem. Upon the 6 branches and the central stem were 7 lamps from which the light issued. Connected with the candlestick were snuffers and snuff-dishes for the wicks—all of gold. The candlestick was formed from a talent of pure gold (ver 38). See Candlestick

(c) The description of the altar of incense occurs (30 1–10) for some unexplained reason or displacement out of the place where it might be expected, but this is no reason for throwing doubt (with some) upon its existence. It was a small altar, overlaid with gold, a cubit (18 in.) square, and 2 cubits (3 ft.) high, with 4 horns. On it was burned sweet-smelling incense. It had the usual golden rim, golden rings, and gold-covered staves. See ALTAR OF INCENSE.

III. History.—We may fix 1220 BC as the approximate date of the introduction of the tabernacle. It was set up at Sinai on the

nacle. It was set up at Sinai on the

1. Removal 1st day of the 1st month of the 2d
from Sinai year (Ex 40 2.17), i.e. 14 days before
the celebration of the Passover on the
first anniversary of the exodus (see Chronology
of the OT, VII, VIII). When the people resumed their journey, the ark was wrapped in the
veil which had served to isolate the most holy
place (Nu 4 5). This and the two altars were
carried upon the shoulders of the children of
Kohath, a descendant of Levi, and were removed
under the personal supervision of the high priest
(Nu 3 31.32; 4 15). The rest of the dismem-

(Nu 3 31.32; 4 15). The rest of the dismembered structure was carried in six covered wagons, offered by the prince, each drawn by two oxen (Nu 7). Doubtless others were provided for the heavier materials (cf Keil). Before leaving Sinai the brazen altar had been dedicated, and utensils of gold and silver had been presented for use at the services. The tabernacle had been standing at Sinai during 50 days (Nu 10 11).

The journey lay along the "great and terrible wilderness" between Horeb in the heart of Arabia and Kadesh-barnea in the Negeb of Judah; of the 40 years occupied in the journey to Canaan, nearly 38 2. Sojourn at Kadesh were spent at Kadesh, a fact not always clearly recognized. The tabernacle stood here during 37 years (one year being occupied in a punitive journey southward to the shore of the Red Sea). During this whole time the ordinary sacrifices were not offered (Am 5 25), though it is possible that the appropriate seasons were nevertheless marked in more than merely chronological fashion. Few incidents are recorded as to these years, and little mention is made of the tabernacle throughout the whole journey except that the ark of the covenant preceded the host when on the march (Nu 10 33-36). It is the unusual that is recorded; the daily aspect of the tabernacle and the part it played in the life of the people were among the things recurrent and familiar.

When, at last, the Jordan was crossed, the first consideration, presumably, was to find a place on which to pitch the sacred tent, a place

hitherto uninhabited and free from

possible defilement by human graves. ment in Such a place was found in the neigh-Canaan borhood of Jericho, and came to be known as Gilgal (Josh 4 19; 5 10; 9 6; 10 6.43). Gilgal, however, was always regarded as a tempo-The tabernacle is not directly mentioned in connection with it. The question of a permanent location was the occasion of mutual jealousy among the tribes, and was at last settled by the removal of the tabernacle to Shiloh, in the territory of Ephraim, a place conveniently central for attendance of all adult males at the three yearly festivals, without the zone of war, and also of some strategic importance. During the lifetime of Joshua, therefore, the tabernacle was removed over the 20 miles. or less, which separated Shiloh among the hills from Gilgal in the lowlands (Josh 18 1; 19 51). While at Shiloh it seems to have acquired some accessories of a more permanent kind (1 S 1 9, etc.), which obtained for it the name "temple" (1 9; 3 3).

During the period of the Judges the nation lost the fervor of its earlier years and was in imminent danger of apostasy. The daily serv-

danger of apostasy. The daily serv4. Destruc- ices of the tabernacle were doubtless
observed after a perfunctory manner,
but they seem to have had little effect
upon the people, either to soften their
manners or raise their morals. In the early days

manners or raise their morals. In the early days of Samuel war broke out afresh with the Philis. At a council of war the unprecedented proposal was made to fetch the ark of the covenant from Shiloh (1 S 4 1 ff). Accompanied by the two sons of Eli—Hophni and Phinehas—it arrived in the camp and was welcomed by a shout which was heard in the hostile camp. It was no longer Jeh but the material ark that was the hope of Israel, so low had the people fallen. Eli himself, at that time high priest, must at least have acquiesced in this super-stition. It ended in disaster. The ark was taken by the Philis, its two guardians were slain, and Israel was helpless before its enemies. Though the Heb historians are silent about what followed, it is certain that Shiloh itself fell into the hands of the Philis. The very destruction of it accounts for the silence of the historians, for it would have been at the central sanctuary there, the center and home of what literary culture there was in Israel during this stormy period, that chronicles of events would be kept. Ps 78 60 ff no doubt has reference to this overthrow, and it is referred to in Jer 7 12. The tabernacle itself does not seem to have been taken by the Philis, as it is met with later at Nob.

For lack of a high priest of character, Samuel himself

For lack of a high priest of character, Samuel himself seems now to have become the head of religious worship. It is possible that the tabernacle may have been again removed to Gilgal, as it was there that Samuel appointed Saul to meet him in order to offer burnt offerings and pace offerings. The ark, however, restored by the Philis, remained at Kiriath-jearim nal administration were held, not only at Gilgal, but at other places, as Beth-el, Mizpah and Ramah (1 S 7 15-17), places which acquired a quasi-ecclesiastical sanctity. This delocalization of the sanctuary was no doubt revolutionary, but it is partly explained by the fact that even in the tabernacle there was now no ark before which to burn incense. Of the half-dozen places bearing the name of Ramah, this, which was Samuel's home, was the one near to Hebron, where to this day the foundations of what may have been Samuel's sacred inclosure may be seen at the modern Ramet-el-Khāltl.

We next hear of the tabernacle at Nob, with Ahimelech, a tool of Saul (probably the Ahijah of 1 S 14 3), as high priest (1 S 21 1 ff). This Nob was 4 miles to the N. of Jerus, and was moreover a high place, 30 ft. higher than Zion. It does not follow that the tabernacle was placed at the top of the hill. Here it remained a few years, till after the massacre by Saul of all the priests at Nob save one, Abiathar (1 S 22 11 ff) Subsequently, possibly by Saul himself, it was removed to Gibeon (1 Ch 16 39; 21 29). Gibeon was 6 miles from Jerus, and 7 from Beth-el, and may have been chosen for its strategic advantage as well as for the fact that it was already inhabited by priests, and was Saul's ancestral city.

This removal by Saul, if he was the author of it, was recognized afterward by David as a thing done,

with which he did not think it wise 7. Restora- to interfere (cf 1 Ch 16 40). On his tion of the capturing the fortress of Jebus (later Jerus), and building himself a "house" Ark there, David prepared a place for the

ark of God, and pitched a tent on Zion in imitation of the tabernacle at Gibeon (2 S 6 17 ff; 1 Ch He must also have provided an altar, for we read of burnt offerings and peace offerings being made there. Meanwhile the ark had been brought from Kiriath-jearim, where it had lain so long; it was restored in the presence of a concourse of people representing the whole nation, the soldiery and civilians delivering it to the priests (2 S 6 1 ff). On this journey Uzzah was smitten for touching the Arrived near Jerus, the ark was carried into the house of Obed-edom, a Levite, and remained there for 3 months. At the end of this time it was carried into David's tabernacle with all fitting solemnity and honor.

Hence it was that there were now two tabernacles the original one with its altar at Gibeon, and the new one with the original ark in Jerus,

8. The Two both under the protection of the king. Tabernacles Both, however, were soon to superseded by the building of a temple.

The altar at Gibeon continued in use till the time of Solomon. Of all the actual material of the tabernacle, the ark alone remained unchanged in the temple. The tabernacle itself, with its sacred vessels, was brought up to Jerus, and was pre-served, apparently, as a sacred relic in the temple (1 K 8 4). Thus, after a history of more than 200 years, the tabernacle ceases to appear in history.

IV. Symbolism.—Though the tabernacle was

historically the predecessor of the later temples, as a matter of fact, the veil was the only item actually retained throughout the series of temples. Nevertheless it is the tabernacle rather than the temple which has provided a substructure for much NT teaching. All the well-known allusions of the writer to the He, e.g. in chs 9 and 10, are to the tabernacle, rather than to any later temple.

In general the tabernacle is the symbol of God's dwelling with His people (Ex 25 8; cf 1 K 8 27), an idea in process of realization in more and more perfect forms till it reaches its completion in the incarnation of the Word ("The Word became flesh,

and dwelt [Gr "tabernacled"] among us," Jn 114; cf 2 Cor 5 1), in the church collectively (2 Cor 6 16) and in the individual believer (1 Cor 6 19) and finally in the eternal 1. NT glory (Rev 2 13 ff). In the Ep. to the He, the locus classicus of the taber-References nacle in Christian thought, the idea is more cosmical -the tabernacle in its holy and most holy divisions representing the earthly and the heavenly spheres of Christ's activity. The OT was but a shadow of the eternal substance, an indication of the true ideal (He 8 5; 10 1). The tabernacle in which Christ ministered was a tabernacle which the Lord pitched, and not man (8 2). He is the high priest of "the greater and more perfect tabernacle" "Christ entered not into a holy place made with hands, like in pattern to the true; but into heaven itself, now to appear before the face of God for us" (9 24). The symbolical significance of the tabernacle and its worship is not, however, confined to the Ep. to the He. It must be admitted that St. Paul does not give prominence to the tabernacle symbolism, and further, that his references are to things common to the tabernacle and the temple. But St. Paul speaks of "the laver of regeneration" (Tit 3 5 RVm), and of Christ, who "gave himself up for us, an offering and a sacrifice to God, for an odor of a sweet smell" (Eph 5 2). The significance which the synoptic writers give to the rending of the veil of the temple (Mt 27 51; Mk 15 38; Lk 23 45) shows how this symbolism entered deeply into their thought and was felt by them to have Divine attestation in this supernatural fact. The way into the holiest of all, as the writer to the He says, was now made manifest (9 8; **10** 19.20).

The suggestion which underlies all such NT references is not only that Christ, in His human manifestation, was both tabernacle and priest, altar and sacrifice, but also, and still more, that God ever has His dwelling among men, veiled no doubt from the unbelieving and insherer, but always manifest and accessible to the faithful and devout. As we have a great high priest who is now passed into the heavens, there to appear in our behalf in the true tabernacle, so we ourselves have permission and encouragement to enter into the holiest place of all on earth by the blood of the everlasting covenant. Of the hopes embodied in these two planes of thought, the earthly tabernacle was the symbol, and contained the prospect and foretaste of the higher communion. It is this which has given the tabernacle such an abiding hold on the imagination and veneration of the Christian church in all lands and languages.

The symbolism of the various parts of the tabernacle furniture is tolerably obvious, and is con-

sidered under the different headings.

3. Symbol- The ark of the covenant with its propitiatory was the symbol of God's ism of gracious meeting with His people on the ground of atonement (cf Rom Furniture

3 25; see Ark of the Covenant). The twelve cakes of shewbread denote the twelve tribes of Israel, and their presentation is at once an act of gratitude for that which is the support of life, and, symbolically, a dedication of the life thus supported; the candlestick speaks to the calling of Israel to be a people of light (cf Jesus in Mt 5 14-16); the rising incense symbolizes the act of prayer (cf Rev 5 8; 8 3).

prayer (ci kev o s; s s).

LITERATURE.—See the arts. on "Tabernacle" and "Temple" in Smith's DB, HDB, EB, The Temple BD, etc; also the comms. on Exodus (the Speaker's Pulpit Comm.. Keil's, Lange's, etc); Bähr, Symbolik d. Mosaischen Cultus; Keil, Archaeology, I, 98 ff (ET); Westcott, essay on "The General Significance of the Tabernacle." in his Hebrews; Brown, The Tabernacle (1899); W. S. Caldecott, The Tabernacle: Its History and Structure. See arts. in this Encyclopaedia on the special parts of the tabernacle; and see also Temple.

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JAMES ORR

B. IN CRITICISM

- CONSERVATIVE AND CRITICAL VIEWS
 ARGUMENTS IN SUPPORT OF THE CRITICAL THEORY
 EXAMINED
 Not Stated That the Temple Was Constructed
 after the Pattern of the Tabernacle
 No Trace of the Tabernacle in Pre-Solomonic

 - Times
 The Tabernacle Could Not Have Been Built as

 - The Tabernacie Could Not Have Been Built as Exodus Describes
 Biblical Account Contains Marks of Its Unhistorical Character
 Preëxilic Prophets Knew Nothing of Levitical System of Which the Tabernacle Was Said to Be the Center.

I. Conservative and Critical Views.—The conservative view of Scripture finds (1) that the tabernacle was constructed by Moses in the wilderness of Sinai; (2) that it was fashioned according to a pattern shown to him in the Mount; (3) that it was designed to be and was the center of sacrificial worship for the tribes in the wilderness; and (4) that centuries later the Solomonic Temple was constructed after it as a model. The critical (higher) view of Scripture says, (1) that the tabernacle never existed except on paper; (2) that it was a pure creation of priestly imagination sketched after or during the exile; (3) that it was meant to be a miniature sanctuary on the model of Solomon's Temple; (4) that it was represented as having been built in the wilderness for the purpose of legitimating the newly published PC or Levitical ritual still preserved in the middle books of the Pent; and (5) that the description of the tabernacle furnished in P (Ex 25-31; 36-40; Nu 2 2.17; 5 1-4; 14 44) conflicts with that given in E (Ex 33 7-11), both as to its character and its location.

The principal grounds on which it is proposed to set aside the conservative and put in its place

the critical theory are these:

II. Arguments in Support of the Critical Theory **Examined.**—(1) It is nowhere stated that Solomon's Temple was constructed after the pattern of the Mosaic tabernacle; hence it is reasonable to infer that the Mosaic tabernacle had no existence when or before the Solomonic Temple was built.

(2) No trace of the Mosaic tabernacle can be found in the pre-Solomonic period, whence it is

clear that no such tabernacle existed.

(3) The Mosaic tabernacle could not have been produced as Ex describes, and accordingly the story must be relegated to the limbo of romance.

(4) The Bib. account of the Mosaic tabernacle bears internal marks of its completely unhistorical

character.

(5) The preëxilic prophets knew nothing of the Levitical system of which the Mosaic tabernacle was the center, and hence the whole story must be set down as a sacred legend.

These assertions demand examination.

It is urged that nowhere is it stated that Solomon's Temple was fashioned after the pattern of the Mosaic

tabernacle. Wellhausen thinks (GI, ch i, 3, p. 44) that, had it been so, the 1. First narrators in K and Ch would have said so. "At least," he writes, "one Alleged Ground would have expected that in the report

concerning the building of the new sanctuary, casual mention would have been made of the old." And so there was—in 1 K 8 4 and 2 Ch 5 5. Of course, it is contended that "the tent of meeting" referred to in these passages was not the Mosaic tabernacle of Ex 25, but simply a provisional shelter for the ark—though in P the Mosaic tabernacle bears the same designation (Ex 27 21). Conceding, however, for the sake of argument, that the tent of the historical books was not the Mosaic tabernacle of Ex, and that this is nowhere spoken

of as the model on which Solomon's Temple was constructed, does it necessarily follow that because the narrators in K and Ch did not expressly state that Solomon's Temple was built after the pattern of the Mosaic tabernacle, therefore the Mosaic tabernacle had no existence when the narrators wrote? If it does, then the same logic will demonstrate the non-existence of Solomon's Temple before the exile, because when the writer of P was describing the Mosaic tabernacle he made no mention whatever about its being a miniature copy of Solomon's Temple. A reductio ad absurdum like this disposes of the first of the five pillars upon which the new theory rests.

It is alleged that no trace of the Mosaic tabernacle can be found in pre-Solomonic times. On the principle that silence about a person,

2. Second Alleged Ground

thing or event does not prove the nonexistence of the person or thing or the non-occurrence of the event, this 2d argument might fairly be laid aside as

irrelevant. Yet it will be more satisfactory to ask, if the assertion be true, why no trace of the tabernacle can be detected in the historical books in pre-Solomonic times. The answer is, that of course it is true, if the historical books be first "doctored," i.e. gone over and dressed to suit the theory, by removing from them every passage, sentence, clause and word that seems to indicate, presuppose or imply the existence of the tabernacle, and such bassage, sentence, clause and word assigned to a late R who inserted it into the original text to give color to his theory, and support to his fiction that the Mosaic tabernacle and its services originated in the wilderness. Could this theory be established on independent grounds, i.e. by evidence derived from other historical documents, without tampering with the sacred narrative, something might be said for its plausibility. But every scholar knows that not a particle of evidence has ever been, or is likely ever to be, adduced in its support beyond what critics themselves manufacture in the way described. That they do find traces of the Mosaic tabernacle in the historical books, they unconsciously and unintentionally allow by their efforts to explain such traces away, which moreover they can only do by denouncing these traces as spurious and subjecting them to a sort of surgical operation in order to excise them from the body of the text. But these so-called spurious traces are either true or they are not true. If they are true, whoever inserted them, then they attest the existence of the tabernacle, first at Shiloh, and afterward at Nob, later at Gibeon, and finally at Jerus; if they are not true, then some other things in the narrative must be written down as imagination, as, e.g. the conquest of the land, and its division among the tribes, the story of the altar on the E. of Jordan, the ministry of the youthful Samuel at Shiloh, and of Ahimelech at Nob

(1) The Mosaic tabernacle at Shiloh.—That the structure at Shiloh (1 S 1 3.9.19.24; 2 11.12; 3 3) was the Mosaic tabernacle everything recorded about it shows. It contained the ark of God, called also the ark of the covenant of God and the ark of the covenant of Jeh, or more fully the ark of the covenant of Jeh of Hosts, names, esp. the last, which for the ark associated with the tabernacle were not unknown in the period of the wandering. It had likewise a priesthood and a sacrificial worship of three parts—offering sacrifice (in the forecourt), burning incense (in the holy place), and wearing an ephod (in the Holy of Holies) -which at least bore a close resemblance to the cultus of the tabernacle, and in point of fact claimed to have been handed down from Aaron. Then Elkanah's pious custom of going up yearly from

Ramathaim-zophim to Shiloh to worship and to sacrifice unto Jeh of Hosts suggests that in his day Shiloh was regarded as the central high place and that the law of the three yearly feasts (Ex 23 14; Lev 23 1-18; Dt 16 16) was not unknown, though perhaps only partially observed; while the statement about "the women who did service at the door of the tent of meeting" as clearly points back to the similar female institution in connection with the tabernacle (Ex 38 8). To these considerations it is objected (a) that the Shiloh sanctuary was not the Mosaic tabernacle, which was a portable tent, but a solid structure with posts and doors, and (b) that even if it was not a solid structure but a tent, it could be left at any moment without the ark, in which case it could not have been the Mosaic tabernacle of which the ark was an "inseparable companion"; while (c) if it was the ancient "dwelling" of Jeh, it could not have been made the dormitory of Samuel. But (a) while it need not be denied that the Shiloh sanctuary possessed posts and doors—Jer 7 12 seems to admit that it was a structure which might be laid in ruinsyet this does not warrant the conclusion that the Mosaic tabernacle had no existence in Shiloh. It is surely not impossible or even improbable that, when the tabernacle had obtained a permanent location at Shiloh, and that for nearly 400 years (cf above under A, III, 1, 8 and see Chronology of the OT, VII, VIII), during the course of these centuries a porch with posts and doors may have been erected before the curtain that formed the entrance to the holy place, or that strong buildings may have been put up around it as houses for the priests and Levites, as treasurechambers, and such like—thus causing it to present the appearance of a palace or house with the tabernacle proper in its interior. Then (b) as to the impossibility of the ark being taken from the tabernacle, as was done when it was captured by the Philis, there is no doubt that there were occasions when it was not only legitimate, but expressly commanded to separate the ark from the tabernacle, though the war with the Philis was not one. In Nu 10 33, it is distinctly stated that the ark, by itself, went before the people when they marched through the wilderness; and there is ground for thinking that during the Benjamite war the ark was with Divine sanction temporarily removed from Shiloh to Beth-el (Jgs 20 26.27) and, when the campaign closed, brought back again to Shiloh (21 12). (c) As for the notion that the Shiloh sanctuary could not have been the Mosaic tabernacle because Samuel is said to have slept in it beside the ark of God, it should be enough to reply that the narrative does not say or imply that Samuel had converted either the holy place or the most holy into a private bednoty place of the most noty into a private bed-chamber, but merely that he lay down to sleep "in the temple of the Lord where the ark of God was," doubtless "in the court where cells were built for the priests and Levites to live in when serving at the sanctuary" (Keil). But even if it did mean that the youthful Samuel actually slept in the Holy of Holies, one fails to see how an abuse like that may not have occurred in a time so degenerate as that of Eli, or how, if it did, it would necessarily prove that the Shiloh shrine was not the Mosaic tabernacle.

(2) The Mosaic tabernacle at Nob.—That the sanctuary at Nob (1 S 21 1-6) was the Mosaic tabernacle may be inferred from the following circumstances: (a) that it had a high priest with 85 ordinary priests, a priest's ephod, and a table of shewbread; (b) that the eating of the shewbread was conditioned by the same law of ceremonial purity as prevailed in connection with the Mosaic tabernacle (Lev 15 18); and (c) that the Urim was employed there by the priest to ascertain the Divine will—all of which circumstances pertained to the Mosaic

tabernacle and to no other institution known among the Hebrews. If the statement (1 Ch 13 3) that the ark was not inquired at in the days of Saul calls for explanation, that explanation is obviously this, that during Saul's reign the ark was dissociated from the tabernacle, being lodged in the house of Abinadab at Kiriath-jearim, and was accordingly in large measure forgotten. The statement (1 S 14 18) that Saul in his war with the Philis commanded Ahijah, Eli's great-grandson, who was "the priest of the Lord in Shiloh, wearing an ephod" (ver 3) to fetch up the ark—if ver 18 should not rather be read according to the LXX. "Bring hither the ephod"—can only signify that on this particular occasion it was fetched from Kiriath-jearim at the end of 20 years and afterward returned thither. This, however, is not a likely supposition; and for the LXX reading it can be said that the phrase "Bring hither" was never employed for ascertaining the Divine will, but the ephod was; and that the Heb text in ver 18 seems corrupt, the last clause reading "for the ark of God was at that day and the sons of Israel," which is not extremely intelligible.

(3) The Mosaic tabernacle at Gibeon.—The last mention of the Mosaic tabernacle occurs in connection with the building of Solomon's Temple (1 K 8 4; 2 Ch 1 3; 5 3), when it is stated that the ark of the covenant and the tent of meeting, and all the holy vessels that were in the tent were solemnly fetched up into the house which Solomon had built. That what is here called the tabernacle of the congregation, or the tent of meeting, was not the Mosaic tabernacle has been maintained on the following grounds: (a) that had it been so, David, when he fetched up the ark from Obed-edom's house, would not have pitched for it a tent in the city of David, but would have lodged it in Gibeon; (b) that had the Gibeon shrine been the Mosaic tabernacle it would not have been called as it is in K, "a great high place"; (c) that had the Gibeon shrine been the Mosaic tabernacle, as he is reported to have done; and (d) that had the Gibeon shrine been the Mosaic tabernacle the brazen altar would not have been left behind at Gibeon but would also have been conveyed to Mt. Moriah.

But (a) if it was foolish and wrong for David not to lodge the ark in Gibeon, that would not make it certain that the Mosaic tabernacle was not at Gibeon. That it was either foolish or wrong, however, is not clear. David may have reckoned that if the house of Obed-edom had derived special blessing from the presence of the ark in it for three months, possibly it would be for the benefit of his (David's) house and kingdom to have the ark permanently in his capital. And in addition, David may have remembered that God had determined to choose out a place for His ark, and in answer to prayer David may have been directed to fetch the ark to Jerus. As good a supposition this, at any rate, as that of the critics.

to fetch the ark to Jerus. As good a supposition this, at any rate, as that of the critics.

(b) That the Gibeon shrine should have been styled "the great high place" (1 K 3 4) is hardly astonishing, when one calls to mind that it was the central sanctuary, as being the seat of the Mosaic tabernacle with its brazen altar. And may not the designation "high place," or bāmāh, have been affixed to it just because, through want of its altar, it had dwindled down into a mere shadow of the true sanctuary and become similar to the other "high places" or bāmāth?

(c) The casting of new vessels for Solomon's

(c) The casting of new vessels for Solomon's Temple needs no other explanation than this, that the new house was at least twice as spacious as the old, and that in any case it was fitting that the new house should have new furniture.

(d) That the brazen altar would not have been left behind at Gibeon when the Mosaic tabernacle was removed, may be met by the demand for proof that it was actually left behind. That it was left behind is a pure conjecture. That it was transplanted to Jerus and along with the other

tabernacle utensils laid up in a side chamber of the temple is as likely an assumption as any other (see 1 K 8 4).

It is maintained that the Mosaic tabernacle could not have been produced as Ex describes: (1) that the time was too short, (2) that the straight and (3) that the materials at their

Ground disposal were too scanty for the construction of so splendid a building as the Mosaic tabernacle. But (1) does any intelligent person believe that 9 months was too short a time for 600,000 able-bodied men, to say nothing of their women and children, to build a wooden house 30 cubits long, 10 high and 10 broad, with not as many articles in it as a well-to-do artisan's kitchen oftentimes contains? (2) Is it at all likely that they were so ill-qualified for the work as the objection asserts? The notion that the Israelites were a horde of savages or simply a tribe of wandering nomads does not accord with fact. They had been bondmen, it is true, in the land of Ham; but they and their fathers had lived there for 400 years; and it is simply incredible, as even Knobel puts it, "that they should not have learnt something of the mechanical arts." One would rather be disposed to hold that they must have had among them at the date of the Exodus a considerable number of skilled artisans. At least, archaeology has shown that if the escaped bondmen knew nothing of the arts and sciences, it was not because their quondam masters had not been able to instruct them. The monuments offer silent witness that every art required by the manufacturers existed at the moment in Egypt, as e.g. the arts of metal-working, wood-carving, leather-making, weaving and spinning. And surely no one will contend that the magnificent works of art, the temples and tombs, . palaces and pyramids, that are the world's wonder today, were the production always and exclusively of native Egyp, and never of Heb thought and labor! Nor (3) is the reasoning good, that whatever the Israelites might have been able to do in Egypt where abundant materials lay to hand, they were little likely to excel in handicrafts of any sort in a wilderness where such materials were wanting. Even Knobel could reply to this, that as the Israelites when they escaped from Egypt were not a horde of savages, so neither were they a tribe of beggars; that they had not entered on their expedition in the wilderness without preparation, or without taking with them their most valuable articles; that the quantities of gold, silver and precious stones employed in the building of the tabernacle were but trifles in comparison with other quantities of the same that have been found in possession of ancient oriental peoples; that a large portion of what was contributed had probably been obtained by despoiling the Egyptians before escaping from their toils and plundering the Amalekites whom they soon after defeated at Rephidim, and who, in all likelihood, at least if one may judge from the subsequent example of the Midianites, had come to the field of war be-decked with jewels and gold; and that the acacia wood, the linen, the blue, the purple and the scarlet with the goats', rams', and seal-skins might all have been found and prepared in the wilderness (cf Kurtz, Geschichte des alten Bundes, II, § 53). In short, so decisively has this argument, derived from the supposed deficiency of culture and resources on the part of the Israelites, been disposed of by writers of by no means too conservative pro-clivities, that one feels surprised to find it called up again by Benzinger in EB to do duty in support of the unhistorical character of the tabernacle narrative in Ex.

The Bib. account of the Mosaic tabernacle, it is further contended, bears internal marks of its completely unhistorical character, as e.g.

(1) that it represents the tabernacle as having been constructed on a 4. Fourth Alleged Ground model which had been supernaturally shown to Moses; (2) that it habitually

speaks of the south, north, and west sides of the tabernacle although no preceding order had been issued that the tent should be so placed; (3) that the brazen altar is described as made of timber overlaid with brass, upon which a huge fire constantly burned; (4) that, the tabernacle is depicted, not as a mere provisional shelter for the ark upon the march, but "as the only legitimate sanctuary for the church of the twelve tribes before Solomon' and (5) that the description of the tabernacle furnished in P (Ex 25-31; 36-40; Nu 2 2.17; 5 1-4; 14 44) conflicts with that given in E (Ex 33 7-11), both as to its character and its location.

But (1) why should the story of the tabernacle be a fiction, because Moses is reported to have made it according to a pattern showed to him in the Mount (Ex 25 40 [Heb 8 5])? No person says that the Temple of Solomon was a fiction, because David claimed that the pattern of it given to Solomon had been communicated to him (David) by Divine inspiration (1 Ch 28 19). Every critic also knows that Ezekiel wrote the book that goes by his name. Yet Ezekiel asserts that the temple described by him was beheld by him in a vision. Unless therefore the supernatural is ruled out of history altogether, it is open to reply that God could just as easily have revealed to Moses the pattern of the tabernacle as He afterward exhibited to Ezekiel the model of his temple. And even if God showed nothing to either one prophet or the other, the fact that Moses says he saw the pattern of the tabernacle no more proves that he did not write the account of it, than Ezekiel's stating that he beheld the model of his temple attests that Ezekiel never penned the description of it. The same argument that proves Moses did not write about the tabernacle also proves that Ezekiel could not have written about the vision-temple. Should it be urged that as Ezekiel's temple was purely visionary so also was Moses' tabernacle, the argument comes with small consistency and less force from those who say that Ezekiel's vision-temple was the model of a real temple that should afterward be built: since if Ezekiel's vision-temple was (or should have been, according to the critics) converted into a material sanctuary, no valid reason can be adduced why Moses' vision-tabernacle should not also have been translated into an actual building.

been translated into an actual building.

(2) How the fact that the tabernacle had three sides, south, north and west, shows it could not have been fashioned by Moses, is one of those mysteries which it takes a critical mind to understand. One naturally presumes that the tabernacle must have been located somewhere and oriented somehow; and, if it had four sides, it would assuredly suit as well to set them toward the four quarters of heaven as in any other way. But in so depicting the tabernacle, say the critics, the fiction writers who invented the story were actuated by a deep-laid design to make the Mosaic tabernacle look like the Temple of Solomon. Quite a harmless design, if it was really entertained! But the Books of K and Ch will be searched in vain for any indication that the Temple foundations were set to the four quarters of heaven. It is true that the 12 oxen who supported the molten sea in Solomon's Temple were so placed—4 looking to the N., 4 to the S., 4 to the E., and 4 to the W. (1 K 7 25); but this does not necessarily warrant the inference that the sides of the Temple were so placed. Hence on the well-known principle of modern criticism, that when a thing is not mentioned by a writer the thing does not exist, seeing that nothing is recorded about how the temple was placed, ought it not to be concluded that the whole story about the Temple is a myth? the Temple is a myth?

(3) As to the absurdity of representing a large fire as constantly burning upon a wooden altar

overlaid with a thin plate of brass, this would certainly have been all that the critics say-a fatal objection to receiving the story of the tabernacle as true. But if the story was invented, surely the inventor might have given Moses and his two skilled artisans, Bezalel and Oholiab, some credit for common sense, and not have made them do, or propose to do, anything so stupid as to try to keep a large fire burning upon an altar of wood. This certainly they did not do. An examination of Ex 27 1-8; 38 1-7 makes it clear that the altar proper upon which "the strong fire" burned was the earth or stone-filled (Ex 20 24 f) hollow which the wooden and brass frame inclosed.

(4) The fourth note of fancy—what Wellhausen calls "the chief matter"—that the tabernacle was designed for a central sanctuary to the church of the Twelve Tribes before the days of Solomon, but never really served in this capacity—is partly true and partly untrue. That it was meant to be a central sanctuary, until Jeh should select for Himself a place of permanent habitation, which He did in the days of Solomon, is exactly the impression a candid reader derives from Ex, and it is gratifying to learn from so competent a critic as Wellhausen that this impression is correct. that it really never served as a central sanctuary, it is impossible to admit, after having traced its existence from the days of Joshua onward to those of Solomon. That occasionally altars were erected and sacrifices offered at other places than the tabernacle—as by Gideon at Ophrah (Jgs 6 24–27) and by Samuel at Ramah (1 S 7 17)—is no proof that the tabernacle was not the central sanctuary. If it is, then by parity of reasoning the altar in Mt. Ebal (Dt 27 5) should prove that Jerus was not intended as a central sanctuary. But, if along-side of the Temple in Jerus, an altar in Ebal could be commanded, then also alongside of the tabernacle it might be legitimate to erect an altar and offer sacrifice for special needs. And exactly this is what was done. While the tabernacle was appointed for a central sanctuary the earlier legisla-tion was not revoked: "An altar of earth thou shalt make unto me, and shalt sacrifice thereon thy burnt-offerings, and thy peace-offerings, thy sheep, and thine oxen: in every place where I record my name I will come unto thee and I will bless thee" (Ex 20 24). It was still legitimate to offer sacrifice in any spot where Jeh was pleased to manifest Himself to His people. And even though it had not been, the existence of local shrines alongside of the tabernacle would no more warrant the conclusion that the tabernacle was never built than the failure of the Christian church to keep the Golden Rule would certify that the Sermon on the Mount was never preached.

Mount was never preached.

(5) With regard to the supposed want of harmony between the two descriptions of the tabernacle in P and E, much depends on whether the structures referred to in these documents were the same or different. (a) If different, i.e. if the tent in E (Ex 33 7-11) was Moses' tent (Kurtz, Keil, Kalisch, Ewald and others), or a preliminary tent erected by Moses (Hävernick, Lange, Kennedy, and A[I, 1], above), or possessed by the people from their forefathers (von Gerlach, Benzinger in EB), no reason can be found why the two descriptions should not have varied as to both the character of the tent and its location. The tent in E, which according to the supposition was purely provisional, a temporary sanctuary, may well have been a simple structure and pitched outside the camp; while the tent in P could just as easily have been an elaborate fabric with an ark, a priesthood and a complex sacrificial ritual and located in the midst of the camp. In this case no ground can arise for suggesting that they were contradictory of one another, or that P's tent was a fiction, a paper-tabernacle, while E's tent was a reality and the only tabernacle that ever existed in Israel. But (b) if on the other hand the tent in E was the same as the tent in P (Calvin, Mead in Lange, König, Eerdmans, Valeton and others), then the question may arise whether

or not any contradiction existed between them, and, if such contradiction did exist, whether this justifies the inference that P's tent was unhistorical, i.e. never took shape except in the writer's imagination.

shape except in the writer's imagination.

That the tent in E was not P's Mosaic tabernacle has been argued on the following grounds: (a) that the Mosaic tabernacle (assuming it to have been a reality and not a fiction) was not yet made; so that E's tent must have been either the tent of Moses or a provisional tent; (b) that nothing is said about a body of priests and Levites with an ark and a sacrificial ritual in connection with E's tent, but only of a non-Levitical attendant Joshua, and (c) that it was situated outside the camp, whereas P's tabernacle is always represented as in the midst of the camp.

The first of these grounds largely disappears when

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The first of these grounds largely disappears when Ex 33 7 is read as in RV: "Now Moses used to take the tent and to pitch it without the camp." The verbs, being in the imperfect, point to Moses' practice (Driver, Intro and Heb Tenses; of Ewald, Syntax, 348), which again may refer either to the past or to the future, either to what Moses was in the habit of doing with his own or the preliminary tent, or what he was to do with the tent about to be constructed. Which interpretation is the right one must be determined by the prior question which tent is intended. Against the idea of E's tent being Moses' private domicile stands the difficulty of seeing why it was not called his tent instead of the tent, and why Moses should be represented as never going into it except to hold communion with Jeh. If it was a provisional tent, struck up by Moses, why was no mention of its construction made? And if it was a sort of Israel, why does the narrative contain not the slightest intimation of any such thing?

On the other hand if E's tent was the same as P's, the

On the other hand if E's tent was the same as P's, the narrative does not require to be broken up; and Ex 33.7-11 quite naturally falls into its place as an explanation of how the promises of vs 3 and 5 were carried out

(see infra).

tion of how the promises of vs 3 and 5 were carried out (see infra).

The second supposed proof that E's tent was not P's but an earlier one, viz. that P's had a body of priests and Levites, an ark and a complex ritual, while E's had only Joshua as attendant and made no mention of ark, priests or sacrifices, loses force, unless it can be shown that there was absolute necessity that in this paragraph a full description of the tabernacle should be given. But obviously no such necessity existed, the object of the writer having been as above explained. Driver, after Wellhausen (GJ, 387), conjectures that in E's original document Ex 33 7-11 may have been preceded "by an account of the construction of the Tent of Meeting and of the ark," and that "when the narrative was combined with that of P this part of it (being superfluous by the side of chs 25-35) was probably omitted." As this however is only a conjecture, it is of no more (probably of less) value than the opinion that chs 25-35 including 33 7-11 proceeded from the same pen. The passage is that the absence from the paragraph relating to E's tent of the ark, priests and sacrifices is no valid proof that E's tent was not the Mosaic tabernacle.

The third argument against their identity is their different location—E's outside and P's inside the camp. But it may be argued (a) that the tr in RV distinctly relieves this difficulty. For if Moses used to take and pitch the tabernacle outside the camp, the natural implication is that the tabernacle was often, perhaps usually, inside the camp, as in P, and only from time to time

But it may be argued (a) that the tr in KV distinctly relieves this difficulty. For if Moses used to take and pitch the tabernacle was often, perhaps usually, inside the camp, as in P, and only from time to time pitched outside the camp, when Jeh was displeased with the people (Eerdmans, Valeton). Or (2) that "outside the camp" may signify away, at an equal distance from all the four camps ("over against the tent of meeting"—in AV "far off," after Josh 3 4—were the various tribes with their standards, i.e. the four camps, to be pitched; Nu 2 2); so that the tabernacle might easily be in the midst of all the camp and yet "outside" and "far off" from each camp separately, thus requiring every individual who sought the Lord to go out from his camp unto the tabernacle. Nu 11 26–30 may perhaps shed light upon the question. There it is stated that "there remained two men in the camp [who] had not gone out with Moses unto the Tent," and that Moses and the elders after leaving the tent, "gat [them] into the camp." Either the tent at this time was in the center of the square, around which the four camps were stationed, or it was outside. If it was outside, then the first of the foregoing explanations will hold good; if it was inside the camp, then the second suggestion must be adopted, viz. that while the camps were round about the tabernacle, the tabernacle stood in the midst of the camp, yet it was practically separated from the tents of the tribes by an open space and by the encampment of the Levites" (Pulpit Comm., in loc., cf Keil, in loc.). When one calls to mind that the tabernacle was separated from each side of the square probably, as in Josh 3 4, by 2.000 cubits (at 19–25 in. each =about \(\) of a mile), one has small difficulty in understanding how the tabernacle could be both outside the several camps and inside them all; how the two promises in Ex 33 (AV)—"I will not go up in the midst of thee" (ver 3) and "I will come up into

the midst of thee" (ver 5)—might be fulfilled; how Moses and the elders could go out from the camp (i.e. their several camps) to the tabernacle and after leaving the tabernacle return to the camp (i.e. their several camps); and how no insuperable difficulty in the shape of an insoluble contradiction exists between E's account and P's.

That the preëxilic prophets knew nothing about the Levitical system of which the tabernacle was the

5. Fifth strongest proof that the tabernacle had no existence in the wilderness and indeed never existed at all except on paper. The assertion about the igno-

paper. The assertion about the ignorance of the preëxilic prophets as to the sacrificial system of the PC has been so often made that it has come to be a "commonplace" and "stock-phrase" of modern criticism. In particular, Amos in the 8th cent. BC (5 25.26) and Jeremiah in the 7th cent. BC (7 21-23) are quoted as having publicly taught that no such sacrificial ritual as the tabernacle implied had been promulgated in the wilderness. But, if these prophets were aware that the Levitical Law had not been given by Moses, one would like to know, (1) how this interpretation of their language had been so long in being discovered: (2) how the critics themselves are not unanimous in accepting this interpretation—which they are not; (3) how Amos could represent Jeh as saying "I hate, I despise your feasts, and I will take no delight in your solemn assemblies. Yea, though ye offer me your burnt-offerings and meal-offerings, I will not accept them; neither will I regard the peace-offerings of your fat beasts" (5 21.22), if Jeh had never accepted and never enjoined them: (4) how Jeremiah could have been a party to putting forward Dt as a work of Moses if he knew that Jeh had never commanded sacrifices to be offered, which Dt does; and (5) how Jeremiah could have blamed Judah for committing spiritual adultery if Jeh had never ordered the people to offer sacrifice.

In reply to (1) it will scarcely do to answer that all previous interpreters of Am and Jer had failed to read the prophets' words as they stand (Am 5 25. 26; Jer 7 22), because the question would then arise why the middle books of the Pent should not also be read as they stand, as e.g. when they say, "The Lord spake unto Moses," and again "These [the legislative contents of the middle books] are the commandments, which Jeh commanded Moses for the children of Israel in mount Sinai" (Lev 27 34). As for (2) it is conveniently forgotten that Bohlen (Intro to Gen, I, 277) admitted that some of the Pent "might possibly have originated in the time of Moses," and when quoting Jer 7 22 never dreamt of putting forward an explanation different from the orthodox rendering of the same, and certainly did not cite it as a proof that the Law had no existence prior to the exile; that De Wette in his *Einleitung* (261, 262, 8th ed) stated that "the holy laws and institutions of the theocratic people had for their author Moses, who in giving them stood under Divine guidance"; that Knobel (Die Bücher Ex und Lev, xxii) explicitly declared that Moses must be regarded not only as the liberator and founder of his people, but also the originator of the peculiar Israelitish constitution and lawgiving, at least in its fundamental elements; that Ewald (*Die Propheten*, II, 123) regarded Jer 7 22 as making no announcement about the origin of the sacrificial cultus; and that Bleek (Intro to the OT) forgot to read the modern critical interpretation into the words of Amos and Jeremiah for the simple reason that to have done so would have stultified his wellknown view that many of the laws of the middle books of the Pent are of Mosaic origin. Nor is the difficulty (3) removed by holding that, if prior to

the days of Amos Jeh did accept the burnt offerings

and meal offerings of Israel, these were not sacrifices that had been appointed in the wilderness, because Jeh Himself appears to intimate (Am 5 25.26) that no such sacrifices or offerings had been made during the whole 40 years' wandering. Had this been the case, it is not easy to see why the post-exilic authors of the PC should have asserted the contrary, should have represented sacrifices as having been offered in the wilderness, as they have done (see Nu 16, 18). The obvious import of Jeh's language is either that the sacrificial worship which He had commanded had been largely neglected by the people, or that it had been so heartless and formal that it was no true worship at alltheir real worship being given to their idols—and that as certainly as the idolaters in the wilderness were excluded from Canaan, so the idolaters in Amos' day, unless they repented, would be carried away into exile. As to (4) Jeremiah's action in putting forward or helping to put forward Dt as a work of Moses when he knew that it represented Jeh as having commanded sacrifices to be offered both in the wilderness and in Canaan (Dt 12 6.11. 13), and must have been aware as well that JE had represented Jeh as commanding sacrifice at Sinai (Ex 20 24.25), no explanation can be offered that will clear the prophet from the charge of duplicity and insincerity, or prevent his classification with the very men who were a grief of mind to him and against whom a large part of his life was spent in contending, viz. the prophets that prophesied lies in the name of God. Nor does it mend matters to suggest (Cheyne) that when Jeremiah perceived that Dt, though floated into publicity under high patronage, did not take hold, he changed his mind, because in the first place if Jeremiah did so, he should, like an honest man, have washed his hands clear of Dt, which he did not; and in the second place, because had he done so he could not have been "the iron pillar and brazen wall" which Jeh had intended him to be and indeed had promised to make him against the princes, priests and people of the land (1 18). And, still further, (5) it passes comprehension how, if Jeh never commanded His people to offer sacrifice to Him, Jeremiah could have represented Jeh as enjoining him to pronounce a curse upon the inhabitants of Jerus because they transgressed the words of Jeh's covenant, which He had made with their fathers in the day when He brought them out of the land of Egypt, by running after other gods to serve them, setting up altars and burning incense unto Baal and even working lewdness in Jeh's house (Jer 11 1-15). It is urged in answer to this, that the offence complained of was not that the men of Judah did not offer sacrifices to Jeh, but that they offered them to Baal and polluted His temple with heathen rites—that what Jeh demanded from His worshippers was not the offering of sacrifice, but obedience to the moral law conjoined with abstinence from idolatry. But in that case, what was the use of a temple at all? And why should Jeh speak of it as "mine house," if sacrifices were not required to be offered in it (cf on this Kittel, The Scientific Study of the OT, 218)? Why idolatrous sacrifices were denounced was not merely because they were wrong in themselves, but also because they had supplanted the true sacrificial worship of Jeh. As already stated, it is not easy to perceive how Jeremiah could have said that Jeh had never commanded sacrifices to be offered to Him, when he (Jeremiah) must have known that the Book of the Covenant in JE (Ex 20 24.25) represented Jeh as expressly enjoining them. Had Jeremiah not read the Book of the Covenant with sufficient care? This is hardly likely in so earnest a prophet. Or will it be lawful to suggest that Jeremiah knew the

Book of the Covenant to be a fiction and the assumption of Divine authority for its enactments to be merely a rhetorical device? In this case his words might be true; only one cannot help regretting that he did not distinctly state that in his judgment the Book of the Covenant was a fraud.

It may now be added in confirmation of the preceding, that the various references to a tabernacle in the NT appear at least to imply that in the 1st Christian cent. the historicity of the Mosaic tabernacle was generally accepted. These references are Peter's exclamation on the Mount of Transfiguration (Mt 17 4; Mk 9 5: 1k 9 33); Stephen's statement in the council (Acts 7 44); the affirmations in He (chs 8, 9); and the voice which John heard out of heaven (Rev 21 3). It may be admitted that taken separately or unitedly these utterances do not amount to a conclusive demonstration that the tabernacle actually existed in the wilderness; but read in the light of OT declarations that such a tabernacle did exist, they have the force of a confirmation. If the language of Peter and that of John may fairly enough be regarded as figurative, even then their symbolism suggests, as its basis, what Stephen and the writer to the He affirm to have been a fact, viz. that their "fathers had the tabernacle . . . in the wilderness," and that, under the first covenant, "there was a tabernacle prepared."

Littrature.—I, critical: De Wette, Beitrdge; von Bohlen, Genesis; Georg, Jüdische Feste; Reuss, Geschichte heligen Schriften des AT; Graf, de Templo Silonensi; Kuenen, The Religion of Israel; Well-hausen, Prolegomena zur Geschichte Israels; HDB and EB, arts. "Tabernacle." II, conservative: Bredenkamp, Gesetz und Propheten; Kurtz, Geschichte des alten Bundes; Hävernick, Einleitung; Hengstenberg, Egypt and the Books of Moses; Riehm, Handwörterbuch, and Herzog, RE (ed 1; ed 3) is "critical"), arts. "Stiftshitte"; Baxter, Sanctuary and Saccifice; Bissell, The Pentateuch: Its Origin and Structure; Orr, The Problem of the OT; Whittelaw, OT Critics.

T. WHITELAW It may now be added in confirmation of the preceding,

TABERNACLE OF TESTIMONY (WITNESS) (Nu 9 15; 2 Ch 24 6, RV "the tent of the testimony"). See TABERNACLE.

TABERNACLES, FEAST OF. See FEASTS AND Fasts, I, A, 3.

TABITHA, tab'i-tha (Ταβειθά, Tabeithá). See DORCAS.

TABLE: "Table" is derived from the Lat tabula, meaning primarily "a board," but with a great variety of other significances, of which "writing-tablet" is the most important for the Bib. use of "table." So in Eng. "table" meant at first "any," surface" and, in particular, "a surface for writing, and further specialization was needed before "table" became the name of the familiar article of furniture ("object with a horizontal surface"), a meaning not possessed by tabula in Lat. After this specialization "table" in the sense of "a surface for writing" was replaced in later Eng. by the diminutive form "tablet" But "surface for writing" was still a common meaning of "table," and in this sense it common meaning of "table," and in this sense it represents ¬¬¬¬, lū°h (Ex 24 12, etc), a word of uncertain origin, πλάξ, plάx, "something flat" (2 Cor 3 3; He 9 4), δέλτος, dėltos, "a writing tablet" (1 Macc 8 22; 14 18.27.48), or πινακίδιον, pinakidion, "writing tablet" (Lk 1 63—a rather unusual word). ARV has kept the word in the familiar combination "tables of stone" (Ex 24 12, etc), but elsewhere (Prov 3 3; 7 3; Isa 30 8; Jer 17 1; Hab 2 2; Lk 1 63) has replaced "table" by "tablet," a change made by ERV only in Isa 30 8; Ik 1 63. See Tablet. Lk 1 63. See Tablet.

The table as an article of furniture is שׁלָתוֹן, shulhān, in the Heb and $\tau \rho \delta \pi \epsilon \zeta a$, $tr \delta pez a$, in the Gr. The only exceptions are Cant 1 12, בְּלֶבֶּב, mēṣabh, "something round," perhaps a "round table," perhaps a "cushion," perhaps a "festal procession," and Mk 7 4, AV κλίνη, klinē, "couch" (so RV), while Jn 13 28 and Jn 12 2, AV "at the table," and Tob 7 8, AV "on the table," represent only the general sense of the original. Of the two regu-

lar words, shulhān is properly "a piece of hide," and so "a leather mat," placed on the ground at meal time, but the word came to mean any "table," however elaborate (e.g. Ex 25 23-30). Trapeza means "having four feet."

2 K 4 10 seems to indicate that a table was a necessary article in even the simpler rooms. Curiously enough, however, apart from the table of shewbread there is no reference in the Bible to the form or construction of tables, but the simpler tables in Pal of the present day are very much lower than ours. The modern "tables of the money changers" (Mk 11 15 and ||'s) are small square trays on stands, and they doubtless had the same form in NT times. See Shewbread, Table of;

Money-changers.

To eat at a king's table (2 S 9 7, etc) is naturally to enjoy a position of great honor, and the privilege to enjoy a position of great honor, and the privilege is made by Christ typical of the highest reward (Lk 22 30). Usually "to eat at one's table" is meant quite literally, but in 1 K 18 19; Neh 5 17 (cf 1 K 10 5) it probably means "be fed at one's expense." On the other hand, the misery of eating the leavings of a table (Jgs 1 7; Mk 7 28; Lk 16 21) needs no comment. The phrase "table of the Lord [Jeh]" in Mal 1 7.12 AV (cf Ezk 41 22; 44 16 —Ezk 39 20 is quite different) means "the table altarl set before the Lord." but the same phrase [altar] set before the Lord," but the same phrase in 1 Cor 10 21 is used in a different sense and the origin of its use by St. Paul is obscure. Doubtless the language, if not the meaning, of Mal had its influence and may very well have been suggested to St. Paul as he wrote 1 Cor 10 18. On the other hand, light may be thrown on the passage by such a papyrus fragment as "Chareimon invites you to dine at the table $[klin\bar{e}]$ of the lord Serapis," a dine at the table [kinne] of the ford Serapis, a formal invitation to an idol-banquet (1 Cor 8 10; Pap. Oxyr. i.110; cf iii.523). This would explain St. Paul's "table of demons"—a phrase familiar to the Corinthians—and he wrote "table of the Lord" to correspond (cf, however, $Pirk\bar{e}$ "Abhōth, iii.4). "Table at which the Lord is Host," at any rate, is the meaning of the phrase. On the whole passage see the comms., esp. that of Lietzmann (fullest references). Probably Lk 22 30 has no bearing on 1 Cor 10 21. The meaning of Ps 69 22 (quoted in Rom 11 9), "Let their table before them become a snare," is very obscure ("let them be attacked while deadened in revelings"?), and perhaps was left intentionally regue. left intentionally vague.

BURTON SCOTT EASTON TABLE OF NATIONS:

1. The Table and Its Object
2. What It Includes and Excludes
3. Order of the Three Races
4. Extent of Each
5. Sons of Japheth
6. Sons and Descendants of Ham
7. Further Descendants of Ham
8. Sons of Shem
9. Further Descendants of Shem
10. Value of Table and Its Historical Notes
11. Further Arguments for Early Date of Table

This is the expression frequently used to indicate "the generations of the sons of Noah" contained in Gen 10. These occupy the whole 1. The chapter, and are supplemented by the Table and first 9 verses of ch 11, which explain how it came about that there were so Its Object

many languages in the world as known ews. The remainder of ch 11 traces the to the Hebrews. descent of Abram, and repeats a portion of the information contained in ch 10 on that account only. The whole is seemingly intended to lead up to the patriarch's birth.

Noah and his family being the only persons left alive after the Flood, the Table naturally begins with them, and it is from his three sons, Shem, Ham and Japheth, that the inhabitants of the earth, as known to the Hebrews, were descended. All others—the Mongolians of the Far East and Japan, the American Indians, both North

and South, the natives of Australia and New Zealand—were naturally 2. What It Includes omitted from the list. It may, of course, be argued that all the nations and Excludes not regarded as descended from Shem

and Japheth might be included among the descendants of Ham; but apart from the fact that this would give to Ham far more than his due share of the human race, it would class the Egyptians and Canaanites with the Mongolians, Indians, etc, which seems improbable. "The Table of Nations," in fact, excludes the races of which the Sem East was in ignorance, and which could not, therefore, be given according to their lands, tongues, families, and nations (Gen 10 5.20.31).

Notwithstanding that the sons of Noah are here (ver 1) and elsewhere mentioned in the order Shem, Ham and Japheth (5 32; 6 10), and Ham was 3. Order of apparently the youngest (see Ham), the the Three Table begins (ver 2) with Japheth, enumerates then the descendants of Ham (ver 21). This order in all probability indicates the importance of each race in the eyes of the Hebrews, who as Semites were naturally interested most in the descendants of Shem with whom the list ends. This enabled the compiler to continue the enumeration of Shem's descendants in 11 12 immediately after the verses dealing with the building of the Tower of Babel and the Confusion of Tongues.

The numbers of the descendants of each son of Noah, however, probably bear witness to the compiler's knowledge, rather than their individual importance in the system of the descendants only (7 sons and 7 grandsons), while Ham has no less than 29 descendants (4 sons, 23 grandsons, and 2 great-grandsons), and Shem the same (5 sons, 5 grandsons, 1 greatgrandson, and 20 remoter descendants to the 6th generation). Many of the descendants of Shem and Ham, however, are just as obscure as the descendants of Japheth. How far the relationship to the individual son of Noah is to be taken literally is uncertain. The earlier names are undoubtedly those of nations, while afterward we have, possibly, merely tribes, and in ch 11 the list develops into a genealogical list of individuals. Notwithstanding that the sons of Noah are here (ver 1)

It is difficult to trace a clear system in the enumeration of the names in the Table. immediate descendants of Japheth (10

2), Gomer, Magog, Tubal and Mesech, 5. Sons of we have the principal nations of Asia Japheth Minor, but Madai stands for the Medes on the extreme E., and Javan (the Ionians) for the Greeks (? and Romans) on the extreme W. (unless the Greeks of Asia Minor were meant). Gomer's descendants apparently located themselves northward of this tract, while the sons of Javan extended themselves along the Mediterranean coastlands westward, Tarshish standing, apparently, for Spain, Kittim being the Cyprians, and Rodanim the

Rhodians.

Coming to the immediate descendants of Ham (10 6), the writer begins with those on the S. and then goes northward in the following 6. Sons and order: Cush or Ethiopia, Mizraim or Descend- Egypt, Phut (better Put, RV) by the Red Sea, and lastly Canaan—the Holy ants of Land—afterward occupied by the Israelites. The sons of Cush, which fol-Ham low (10 7), are apparently nationalities of the Arabian coast, where Egyp influence was predomi-These, with the sons of Raamah, embrace the interior of Africa as known to the Hebrews, and the Arabian tract as far as Canaan, its extreme northern boundary. The reference to Babylonia (Nimrod) may be regarded as following not unnaturally here, and prominence is given to the district on account of its importance and romantic history from exceedingly early times. Nevertheless, this portion (10 8-12) reads like an

interpolation, as it not only records the foundation of the cities of Babylonia, but those of Assyria as well—the country mentioned lower down (ver 22) among the children of Shem.

The text then goes back to the W. again, and enumerates the sons of Mizraim or Egypt (10 13),

7. Further Descendants of Ham

mostly located on the southeastern and eastern shores of the Mediterranean. These include the "Libyans in the narrowest sense" (Lehabim), two districts regarded as Egyp (Naphtuhim and Pathrusim), the Casluhim

from whom came the Philistines, and the Caphtorim, probably not the Cappadocians of the Tgs, but the island of Crete, "because such a large island ought not to be wanting" (Dillmann). The more important settlements in the Canaanitish sphere of influence are referred to as the sons of Canaan (10 15)-Sidon, Heth (the Hittites), the Jebusites (who were in occupation of Jerus when the Israelites took it), the Amorites (whom Abraham found in Canaan), and others. Among the sons of Canaan are, likewise, the Girgashites, the Arkites and Sinites near Lebanon, the Arvadites of the coast, and the Hamathites, in whose capital, Hamath, many hieroglyphic inscriptions regarded as records of the Hittites or people of Heth have been found. It is possibly to this occupation of more or less outlying positions that the "spreading abroad" of the families of the Canaanites (10 18) refers. In 10 19 the writer has been careful to indicate "the border of the Canaanites," that being of importance in view of the historical narrative which was to follow; and here he was evidently on familiar ground.

In his final section—the nations descended from Shem (10 21)—the compiler again begins with the farthest situated—the Elamites

8. Sons of Shem the Farmest studied—the Elaimtes—after which we have Asshur (Assyria), to the N.W.; Arpachshad (? the Chaldaeans), to the W.; Lud (Lydia), N.W. of Assyria; and Aram (the Aramaean states), S. of Lud and W. of Assyria. The tribes or states mentioned as the sons of Aram (Uz, Hul, Gether and Mash), however, do not give the names with which we are familiar in the OT (Aram Naharaim, Aram Zobah, etc), and have evidently to be sought in different positions, indicating that they represent an earlier stage of their migrations. With regard to their positions, it has been suggested that Uz lay in the neighborhood of the Hauran and Damascus; Hul near the Sea of Galilee; and that Mash stands for Mons Masius. This last, however, may have been the land of Maš, W. of Babylonia.

Only one son is attributed to Arpachshad, namely, Shelah (shālah, shelah, 10 24), unidentified as a nationality. This name should, how-

ever, indicate some part of Babylonia, esp. if his son, Eber, was the ancestor 9. Further Descendesp. If his son, edge, was the large of the Hebrews, who were apparently migrants from Ur (Mugheur) (see Abraham; Ur of the Chaldes). ants of Shem

Though Peleg, "in whose days the land was divided, may not have been an important link in the chain, the explanatory phrase needs notice. It may refer to the period when the fertilizing watercourses of Babylonia—the "rivers of Babylon" (Ps 137 1) were first constructed (one of their names was pelegh), or to the time when Babylonia was divided into a number of small states, though this latter seems to be less likely. Alternative renderings for Selah, Eber and Peleg are "sending forth" (Bohlen), "crossing" (the Euphrates), and "separation" (of the Joktanites) (Bohlen), respectively.

The Bab geographical fragment 80–6–17, 504 has a group explained as Pulukku, perhaps a modified form of Peleg, followed by (Pulukku) §a ℓ birti, "Pulukku of the crossing," the last word being from the same root as

Eber. This probably indicates a city on one side of the river (? Euphrates), at a fordable point, and a later foundation bearing the same name on the other side.

Reu, Serug, and Nahor, however, are regarded generally as place-names, and Terah as a personal name (the father of Abram, Nahor and Haran). From this point onward the text (11 27) becomes the history of the Israelitish nation, beginning with these patriarchs.

Arguments for its early date.—There is hardly any doubt that we have in this ethnographical

10. Value of Table and Its Historical

section of Gen one of the most valuable records of its kind. Concerning the criticisms upon it which have been made, such things are unavoidable, and must be regarded as quite legiti-Notes mate, in view of the importance of the subject. The interpolated sections concerning Nimrod and the Tower of Babel are such

as would be expected in a record in which the compiler aimed at giving all the information which he could, and which he thought desirable for the complete understanding of his record. It may be regarded as possible that this information was given in view of the connection of Abraham with Babylonia. In his time there were probably larger cities than Babylon, and this would suggest that the building of the Bab capital may have been arrested. At the time of the captivity on the other hand. Babylon was the largest capital in the then known world, and the reference to its early abandonment would then have conveyed no lesson—seeing the extent of the city, the reader realized that it was only a short setback from which it had suffered, and its effects had long since ceased to be

Limits of its information.—For the early date

for Early Date of Table

of the Table also speaks the limited geographical knowledge displayed. Sargon of

11. Further Agadé warred both on the E. and

Arguments the W. of Babylonia, but he seems to have made no expeditions to the N., and certainly did not touch either Egypt or Ethiopia. This suggests

not only that the information available was later than his time, but also that it was obtained from merchants, travelers, envoys and ambassadors. The scantiness of the information about the North of Europe and Asia, and the absence of any reference to the Middle or the Far East, imply that communications were easiest on the W., the limit of trade in that direction being apparently Spain. If it could be proved that the Phoenicians came as far westward as Britain for their tin, that might fix the latest date of the compilation of the Table, as it must have been written before it became known that their ships went so far; but in that case, the date of their earliest journeys thither would need to be fixed. Noteworthy is the absence of any reference to the Iranians (Aryan Persians) on the E. These, however, may have been included with the Medes (Madai), or one of the unidentified names of the descendants of Japheth in Gen 10 2.3.

See Shem; Ham; Japheth, and the other special articles in this Encyclopaedia; also, for a great mass of information and theories by many scholars and specialists, Dillmann, Kurzgefasstes exegetisches Handbuch zum AT, "Die Genesis," Leipzig, 1882; W. Max Müller, Asien und Europa, Leipzig, 1893; and F. Hommel, Grundriss der Geographie und Geschichte des alten Orients, Munich, 1904.
T. G. PINCHES

TABLET, tab'let: A rigid flat sheet (plate, pad or slab) used to receive writing. Stone, clay, wood and perhaps bronze, gold and lead tablets, at least, are mentioned in the Bible. In the Old Eng. sense of "locket" the word is incorrectly used in AV also of what RV translates as "armlets," m "necklaces" (Ex 35 22; Nu 31 50) and "perfume boxes" (Isa **3** 20).

The technical Heb word for tablet, הַּהַ, $l\bar{u}^a h$, is generally ${\rm tr}^d$ in both AV and RV as "table." This is used for stone, wood or metal plates or tablets with or without writing. In Isa (30 8) where RV translates "tablet," it is contrasted with the "roll" and probably means the wood or waxed tablet. In Hab (2 2, ARV "tablet," AV and ERV "table") it perhaps refers to a metal tablet to be erected on a wall, but more likely it refers to the wooden tablet. It is also used in Prov (3 3; 7 3, ARV "tablet," AV and ERV "table") and in Jer (17 1) figuratively of the writing upon the tablets of the heart, the word being rendered in LXX by the same word (pláx) used by St. Paul (2 Cor 3 3, "tables" in AV and RV) in the same figure. In other cases (Ex 24 12, etc) it is used of the tablets of stone containing the

The word אָפָּרוֹן , gillāyōn (Isa 8 1), which is tr⁴ in RV "tablet" and in AV "roll," is elsewhere (3 23) tr⁴ "mirror," and is thought to mean a blank polished surface for writing, particularly because in later use it means the blank margin of a roll. But see ROLL.

The clay tablet is referred to in Ezk (4 1, EV "tile"), and its use there for a map of the city has been strikingly illustrated in modern excavation by a tablet map discovered at Nippur (Hilprecht, Explorations, 518). Jeremiah (32 14, RV "deeds," AV "evidences") may also refer to clay tablets, but not surely, since roll deeds were also kept in earthen jars. Job (19 24) is thought by some to refer to the writing on leaden tablets, such as were in very common use in antiquity and in the Middle Ages for the writing of charms and esp. curses, but more hold that inscriptions filled with lead are meant here. The plate of pure gold (Ex 28 36; Lev 8 9), engraved like the gravings of a signet, which was on Aaron's miter, may also be properly described as a tablet, recalling the silver treaty between the Hittites and Egyptians and the gold plate on which Queen Helena of Adiabene (Yōmā' 37a; Jew Enc, VI, 334) had engraved a passage from the Pent (Nu 5 19-22). Bronze tablets (δέλτος, déltos) are several times referred to in 1 Macc (8 22; 14 18.27.48).

"Daleth" (daleth or deleth), the Sem (Phoen) original from which the generic Gr word for tablet (deltos) is derived (Gardthausen, p. 124, n. 1), is perhaps not found strictly in this meaning in the OT. The word is used, however, of two kinds of written documents and in such a way as to suggest that one is the original of, and the other derived from, the "daleth"-tablet. In Dt 6 9 and 11 20 it is enjoined that the laws of Jeh shall be written upon the gates of the houses, and in each case the "daleths" or doors are meant, since the door-posts are also mentioned, and in 1 S 21 13, where David "scrabbles," it is expressly said to be upon the "doors" ("daleths") of the gate. This practice of writing upon house doors and city gates corresponds to the modern posting of notices on church doors and scoring of tallies on a door by the rural innkeeper; and the name seems to have passed from this great door tablet to the portable tablet. On the other hand Jeremiah (36 23) uses "daleths" (EV "leaves") for the columns of a roll, obviously transferring the term from the panel form of the folding tablets.

Πινακίs, pinakis, or πινακίδιον, pinakidion, is found in Ezk 9 2.11 in the version of Symmachus in place of the "writer's inkhorn," and pinakidion, in Lk 1 63, of the (wooden) tablet on which Zacharias wrote the name of John. Puxion is used several

times by LXX as the tr for $l\bar{u}^a h$, and once (Cant 5 14) for ivory tablets. Sanis is used as the tr of "daleth" or $l\bar{u}^a h$ 2 or 3 t in LXX and still oftener in the other VSS. The commonest Gr term both in the NT (2 Cor 3 3; He 9 4) and in the Gr OT is $\pi \lambda d\xi$, pláx, oftenest used of the tables of stone. This, like plátos, which is also used for $l\bar{u}^a h$ in LXX, is not recognized in the modern textbooks (Thompson, Gardthausen, Birt).

LITERATURE.—Gardthausen, Griechische Palaeog., Leipzig, I (1911), 123-32; cf pp. 24-45. See also literature under Writing.

E. C. RICHARDSON

TABOR, tā'bēr, tā'bôr (ΤὶΤς), tābhōr; B, Θαχχειά, Thachcheiá, A, Θαβάρ, Thabōr): One of the towns in the territory of Zebulun, given to the Merarite Levites (1 Ch 6 77). The || list in Josh 21 24 f contains no name like this. There is no indication of its position. Some have thought that it may correspond to Daberath in the territory of Issachar (ver 28), now represented by Debūriyeh on the western slope of Mt. Tabor; others that it may be the mountain itself; and yet others that it may be a city on the mountain, which probably was occupied from very early times. There is a Tabor mentioned as on the border of Issachar (Josh 19 22); but that is almost certainly the mountain. It has been suggested that Tabor in 1 Ch 6 17 may be a contraction of Chisloth-tabor (Josh 19 12), the modern Iksāl, 3 miles W. of the mountain. No certainty is possible.

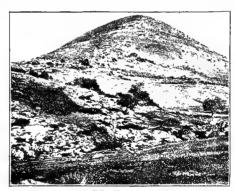
TABOR, MOUNT (פור tābhōr, το 'Ιταβόριον, har tābhōr; κρος Θαβάρ, όros Thabōr, το 'Ιταβόριον, tό Itabūrion): This mountain seems to be named as on the border of Issachar (Josh 19 22). It is possibly identical with the mountain to which Zebulun and Issachar were to call the peoples (Dt 33 19). Standing on the boundary between the tribes, they would claim equal rights in the sanctuary on the top. The passage seems to indicate that it was a place of pilgrimage. The worshippers, bringing with them the "abundance of the sea" and the "treasures of the sand," would be a source of confoit to the local authorities. The mountain can be no other than Jebel et-Tūr, an isolated and shapely height, rising at the northeast corner of the Plain of Esdraelon, about 5 miles W. of Nazareth. The mountain has retained its sacred character, and is still a place of pilgrimage, only the rites being changed. The present writer has mingled with great interest among the crowds that assemble there from all parts at the Feast of the Transfiguration.

It was on the summit and slopes of this mountain that Deborah and Barak gathered their forces; and hence they swept down to battle with Sisera in the great plain (Jgs 4 6.12.14). Here probably the brothers of Gideon were murdered by Zeba and Zalmunna (8 18). Moore ("Jgs," ICC, ad loc.) thinks the scene of the slaughter must have been much farther S. He does not see what the brothers of Gideon were doing so far N. of their home in Abiezer. There is, however, no reason for placing Ophrah so far to the S. as he does; and in any case the men were probably captured and taken to Tabor as prisoners. Jos (Ant, VII, ii, 3) says it was in one of Solomon's administrative districts (cf 1 K 4 17). Such a prominent and commanding position must always have invited fortification. In the time of Antiochus the Great, 218 BC, we find a fortress here, which that king took by stratagem, Atabyrion by name (Polyb. v. 70, 6). It was recovered by the Jews, and was held by them under Jannaeus, 105–70 BC (Ant, XIII, xv, 4). The place fell to the Romans at the conquest under Pompey; and not far from the mountain Alexander,

son of Aristobulus II, suffered defeat at the hands of Gabinius, proconsul of Syria, 53 BC (Ant, XIV, iv, 3; BJ, I, viii, 7). Jos, who commanded in Galilee at the outbreak of the Jewish war, recognized the importance of the position, and built a wall round the summit. After the disaster to Jewish arms at Jotapata, where Jos himself was taken prisoner, many fugitives took refuge here. Placidus the Rom general did not attempt an assault upon the fortress. Its defenders were by a feint drawn into the plain, where they were defeated, and the city surrendered.

A tradition which can be traced to the 4th cent. AD places the scene of the Transfiguration on this mountain. Allusion has been made above to the sacred character of the place. To this, and to the striking appearance of the mountain, the rise of the tradition may have been due. Passing centuries have seen a succession of churches and monasteries erected on the mountain. The scene of the Transfiguration was laid at the southeastern end of the summit, and here a church was built, probably by Tancred. Hard by was also shown the place where Melchizedek met Abraham returning from the pursuit of Chedorlaomer. The mountain shared to the full the vicissitudes of the country's stormy history. In 1113 AD the Arabs from Damascus plundered the monasteries and murdered the monks. An unsuccessful attack was made by Saladin in 1183, but 4 years later, after the rout of the Crusaders at Hattin, he devastated the place. Twenty-five years after that it was fortified by el-Melck el-'Adel, brother of Saladin, and the Crusaders failed in an attempt to take it in 1217. In 1218, however, the Saracens threw down the defences. Sultan Bibars in 1263 ordered the destruction of the Church of the Transfiguration, and for a time the mountain was deserted. The Feast of the Transfiguration, however, continued to be celebrated by the monks from Nazareth. During the last quarter of the 19th cent. much building was done by the Lat and Gr churches, who have now large and substantial monasteries and churches. They have also excavated the ruins of many of the old ecclesiastical buildings. The remains now to be seen present features of every period, from Jewish times to our own.

Mt. Tabor rises to a height of 1,843 ft. above the sea, and forms the most striking feature of the landscape. Seen from the S. it presents the shape of a hemisphere; from the W. that of a sugar loaf. Its rounded top and steep sides are covered with thick brushwood. It is about half a century since the oak forest disappeared; but solitary



Mt. Tabor

survivors here and there show what the trees must have been. A low neck connects the mountain with the uplands to the N. It is cut off from Jebel ed-Duhy on the S. by a fertile vale, which breaks down into Wâdy el-Būreh, and thence to the Jordan. A zigzag path on the N.W. leads to the top, whence most interesting and comprehensive views are obtained. Southward, over Little Hermon, with Endor and Nain on its side, and Shunem at its western base, we catch a glimpse of Mt. Gilboa. Away across the plain the eye runs along the hills on the northern boundary of Samaria, past Taanach and Megiddo to Carmel by the sea,

and the oak forest that runs northward from the gorge of the Kishon. A little to the N. of W., 5 miles of broken upland, we can see the higher houses of Nazareth gleaming white in the sun. Eastward lies the hollow of the Jordan, and beyond it the wall of Gilead and the steep cliffs E. of the Sea of Galilee, broken by glens and watercourses, and esp. by the great chasm of the Yarmūk. The mountains of Zebulun and Naphtali seem to culminate in the shining mass of Great Hermon, rising far in the northern sky. Standing here one realizes how aptly the two mountains may be associated in the Psalmist's thought, although Hermon be mighty and Tabor humble (Ps 89 12). Tabor is referred to by Jeremiah (46 18), and Hosea alludes to some ensnaring worship practised on the mountain **(5** 1).

The present writer spent some weeks on Mt. Tabor, and as the result of careful observation and consideration concluded that the scene of the Transfiguration cannot be laid here. The place would appear to have been occupied at that time; and the remoteness and quiet which Jesus evidently sought could hardly have been found here. See Transfiguration. Mount of.

W. Ewing FIGURATION, MOUNT OF.

TABOR, OAK (AV PLAIN) OF (אֵלוֹן תָּבוֹר), ēlon tābhor; ἡ δρυς Θαβώρ, hē drús Thabor): A place mentioned only in Samuel's directions to Saul after his anointing (1 S 10 3). It lay between the city where the two met and Gibeah whither Saul was returning. Ewald and Thenius thought it might be identical with the palm tree of Deborah, but there is nothing to support this conjecture. Others have thought we might read "oak of Deborah," as signifying the place where Rachel's nurse was buried (Gen 35 8). The truth is that nothing whatever is now known of the site.

W. Ewing TABRET, tab'ret, TIMBREL, tim'brel. See Music, III, 3, (1).

TABRIMMON, tab-rim'on, tab'ri-mon (בְּרַמֵּלוֹן), tabhrimmon, "Rimmon is good"; Β, Ταβερεμά, Ταberema, Α, Ταβενραημά, Ταbenraēma): The son of Hezion and father of BEN-HADAD (q.v.) (1 K 15 18, AV "Tabrimon").

TACHES, tach'iz. See Clasps.

TACHMONITE, tak'mō-nīt. See Tahchemo-NITE.

TACKLING, tak'ling. See Ships and Boats, II, 2, (2).

TADMOR, tad'mor, tad'mor (つゆつで): A city built by Solomon in the wilderness (2 Ch 8 4), the Rom Palmyra. Tadmor is the native name and is found on inscriptions. It occurs also in the Krē of 1 K 9 18, where the Kethibh or consonants read "Tamar" (cf Ezk 47 19; 48 28). It is famous in Arabian as well as in Heb lit., and enters Rom history in connection with Zenobia and Longinus. The inscriptions, which belong for the most part to the latter period (266-73 AD), have been published by Dawkins and Wood and also by M. Waddington and the Duc de Luynes. Popular works on the subject are An Account of Palmyra and Zenobia by W. Wright, and The Last Days and Fall of Palmyra by W. Ware. See TAMAR.

THOMAS HUNTER WEIR TAHAN, tā'han, TAHANITES, tā'han-īts () To taḥan, מַחֲלֵּה, taḥanī): The name of two Ephraimites who lived toward the end of the exodus of the Israelites (c 1415 BC).

(1) The head of one of the families of the tribe of Ephraim (Nu **26** 35).
(2) The son of Telah and father of Ladan, also

of the tribe of Ephraim (1 Ch 7 25 f).

TAHAPANES, ta-hap'a-nēz (סְּקְּלָּהָהָה, taḥpan $h\bar{e}s$). See Tahpanhes.

TAHASH, tā'hash (DDD, tahash; Tóxos, Tóchos; AV Thahash): A son of Nahor by his concubine Reumah (Gen 22 24). The word The means a kind of leather or skin, and perhaps the animal yielding it, probably the "dugong" (cf Brown, yielding it, probably the "dugong" (cf Brown, Briggs, and Driver). Tahash has been identified by Winckler with Tihis (Egypt), located on the Orontes, N. of Kadesh.

TAHATH, tā'hath (ኮኮው, taḥath, "below"): A wilderness station of the Israelites (Nu 33 26.27), between Makheloth and Terah. See Wanderings OF ISRAEL.

TAHATH:

(1) A Kohathite Levite (1 Ch 6 24).

(2) The name is mentioned twice among the sons of Ephraim (1 Ch 7 20); two families may be meant, or perhaps the name has been accidentally repeated.

TAHCHEMONITE, ta-kē'mō-nīt, tä'kē-mon-īt (מַּחְכְּמִנִי , taḥkemōnī): Name of a family to which Jashobeam, the chief captain in David's army, belonged (2 S 23 8; 1 Ch 11 11). In 1 Ch it is "Hachmonite."

TAHPANHES, tä'pan-hēz, tä-pan'hēz (usually in the OT DRIPTE, tahpanhēs; LXX Taфvás, Taphnás; Coptic, Taphnes): The various spellings of the Heb text are fairly well indicated in AV by Tahapanes (Jer 2 16); Tahpanhes (Jer 43 7-9; 44 1; 46 14); Tehaphnehes (Ezk 30 18), while an Egyp queen (XXIst Dynasty) is named Tahpenes (I K 11 19.20). T. was a city on the eastern frontier of Lower Egypt, represented today by Tell Defenneh, a desert mound lying some 20 miles S.W. from Pelusium (Bib. "Sin") and a little N. of the modern Al-Kantarah ("the bridge"), marking the old caravan route from Egypt to Pal, Mesopotamia and Assyria. Its Egyp name is unknown, but it was called $\Delta a \phi \nu a l$, Daphnai, by the Greeks, and by the modern Arabs Def'neh. The site is now desolate, but it was a fertile district when watered by the Pelusiac branch of the Nile (of Isa 19 6.7). T. was so powerful that Jeremiah can say that it, with Memphis, has "broken the crown" of Israel's head (2 16), and Ezekiel can speak of its "daughter". "daughters" (colonies or suburban towns), and names it with Heliopolis and Bubastis when the "yokes [LXX "sceptres"] of Egypt" shall be broken by Jeh (30 18). In a later passage Jeremiah describes the flight of the Jews from their ruined capital to T. after the death of Gedaliah (43 1-7) and prophesies that Nebuchadnezzar shall invade Egypt and punish it, establishing his throne upon the brick pavement (AV "kiln") which is at the entry of Pharaoh's royal palace at T. (43 8-11). He calls T. as a witness to the desolation of the cities of Judah (44 1), but prophesies an equal destruction of T. and other Egyp cities (probably occupied by fugitive Jews) when Nebuchadnezzar shall smite them (46 14).

This invasion of Egypt by Nebuchadnezzar was for a long time strenuously denied (e.g. as late as 1889 by Kuenen, *Historisch-critisch Onderzoek*, 265–318); but since the discovery and publication (1878) of fragments of Nebuchadnezzar's annals in which he affirms his invasion

of Egypt in his 37th year (568-567 BC), most scholars have agreed that the predictions of Jeremiah (43 9-13; 44 30) uttered shortly after 586 BC and of Ezekie (29 19) uttered in 570 BC were fulfilled, "at least in their general sense" (Driver, Authority and Archaeology, 116). Three cuneiform inscriptions of Nebuchadnezzar were found by Arabs probably on or near this site. The excavation of T. in 1886 by W. M. Flinders Petrie made it "highly probable that the large oblong platform of brickwork close to the palace fort built at this spot by Psammetichus I, c 664 BC, and now called Kasr Bint el-Yehudi, 'the castle of the Jew's daughter,' is identical with the quadrangle 'which is at the entry of Pharaoh's house in T.' in which Jeremiah was commanded to bury the stones as a token that Nebuchadnezzar would spread his pavilion over them when he led his army into Egypt' (ib, 117). Jos explicitly mentions that Nebuchadnezzar when he captured T., carried off a Jewish contingent from that city (Ant. IX, vii). Dr. Petrie found that while a small fort had existed here since the Rameside era (cf. Herod. ii. 17), yet the town was practically founded by Psammetichus I, continued prosperous for a century or more, but dwindled to a small village in Ptolemaic times. Many sealings of wine jars stamped with the cartouches of Psammetichus I and Amosis were found in situ. T. being the nearest Egyp town to Pal, Jeremiah and the other Jewish refugees would naturally flee there (43 7). It is not at all unlikely that Nebuchadnezzar's invasion of these refugees.

The pottery found at T. "shows on the whole more evidence of Greeks than Egyptians in the place. . . . Esp. between 607–587 BC a constant intercourse with the Gr settlers must have been going on and a wider intercourse than even a Gr colony in Pal would have produced. The whole circumstances were such as to give the best possible opportunity for the permeation of Gr words and Gr ideas among the upper classes of the Jewish exiles" (Petrie, Nebesheh and Defenneh, 1888, 50). This was, however, only one of many places where the Greeks and Hebrews met freely in this century (see e.g. Durry, *Hist of Greece*, II, 126–80; Cobern, Daniel, 301-7). A large foreign traffic is shown at T. in which no doubt the Jews took part. Discoveries from the 6th cent. BC included some very finely painted pottery, "full of archaic spirit and beauty," many amulets and much rich jewelry and bronze and iron weapons, a piece of scale armor, thousands of arrow heads, and three seals of a Syrian type. One of the few inscriptions prays the blessing of Neit upon "all beautiful souls." There was also dug up a vast number of minute weights evidently used for weighing precious metals, showing that the manufacture of jewelry was carried on here on a large scale. One of the most pathetic and suggestive "finds" from this century, which witnessed the Bab captivity, consisted of certain curious figures of captives, carved in limestone, with their legs bent backward from their knees and their ankles and elbows bound together (Petrie, op. cit., chs ix-xii).

Campen M. Cobern

TAHPENES, tä/pe-nēz, tä-pē'nēz (Ομρως, tahpenēs; LXX Θεκεμ[e]ινα, Thekem[e]ιπα): Queen of Egypt, the sister of Hadad's wife and the foster-mether of his son Genubath (1 K 11 19 f). See Pharaoh.

ፕሬዝጽደል, tä/rễ-a, ta-rẽ/a (፻ጋቪፑ), taḥrē²'): Son of Micah, a descendant of Gibeon (1 Ch 9 41; in 8 35 "Tarea").

TAHTIM-HODSHI, tä-tim-hod'shī. See Kadesh on Orontes.

TAIL, tāl (הְלֵּבֶּׁ , 'alyāh; בְּבָּרָ, zānābh; οὐρά, ourá): The broad tail of the Syrian sheep, wrongly rendered "rump" (q.v.) in AV, is mentioned as one of the portions of sacrifice which was burned on the altar as a sweet savor to God (Ex 29 22). The 2d Heb word is used of the tails of serpents (Ex 4 4), of foxes, which Samson tied together in his cruel sport, in order to destroy the cornfields of the Philis by means of attached firebrands (Jgs 15 4,

etc). The following seems to be an allusion to this incident: "Fear not, neither let thy heart be faint, because of these two tails of smoking firebrands, for the fierce anger of Rezin and Syria, and of the son of Remaliah" (Isa 7 4).

the fierce anger of recommendation. Remaliah" (Isa 7 4).

Figurative: "Tail" = inferiority, as opposed to "head" = superiority, leadership. "Jeh will make thee the head, and not the tail; and thou shalt be above only, and thou shalt not be beneath; if thou shalt hearken unto the commandments of Jeh" (Dt 28 13; cf also ver 44).

In the NT we find oura used of the apocalyptic animals, scorpions, horses, and the dragon (Rev 9 10.19; 12 4).

H. L. E. LUERING

TAKE, tāk: Most of the very numerous examples of this word are still in good use and only a few call for special attention. "To take" in the sense of "capture" is still common, but when a person or living animal is in point, modern Eng. usually adds "prisoner" or "captive." EV not infrequently has this addition (Gen 14 14, etc.), but more commonly "take" is used without it (Josh 10 39; Job 5 13; Sir 23 21; Jn 7 30, etc). An occa-Job 5 13; Sir 23 21; Jn 7 30, etc). An occasional obscurity is thus caused, as in Gen 27 3, "take me venison" for "hunt venison for me." "To take advice" (2 Ch 25 17; AV Jgs 19 30, RV "counsel") is "to reflect," not "to consult others" (cf 1 K 12 28; but contrast 2 K 6 8, etc). "To take knowledge of" is "to learn thoroughly," "investigate" (1 S 23 23, etc), as is "to take notice of" (2 S 3 36). "To take an oath of" (Gen 50 25, etc) is "to exact an oath of." "To be taken with a disease" in AV Mt 4 24; Lk 4 38 is "to suffer with" (RV "be holden with"), but in 1 Macc 9 55; 2 Macc 9 21 (AV and RV), the con-1 Mace 9 55; 2 Mace 9 21 (AV and RV), the con-I mace 9 35; 2 mace 9 21 (AV and RV), the context gives the force "be attacked by," as in modern Eng. Cf AV Lk 8 37 (RV "holden"); Mic 4 9 (RV "take hold of"). "Take" occurs in the sense "overtake" in AV Gen 19 19 (RV "overtake"); Sir 36 26. "Take away" has sometimes a more forcible signature. "Take away" has sometimes a more forcible significance than in modern Eng., as in AV Lev 6.2, "a thing taken away by violence" (RV "robbery"); Dnl 11 12, AV "He hath taken away the multitude," where the meaning is "swept away" (cf RVm "carried away"; RV "shall be lifted up" is inappropriate here). So in "lest he take thee away with his stroke" (AV Job 36 18), "take away" means simply "slay." (The text here is intensely obscure, and PV has followed a different interrepretation) simply "slay." (The text here is intensely obscure, and RV has followed a different interpretation.) So "to be taken away" may mean simply "to die," as in Ezk 33 6; Wisd 14 15; Sir 16 9; 19 3; Mk 2 20, although in 1 Cor 5 2 it means "to be expelled." "To take away judgment" or "right" (Job 27 2; 34 5; Acts 8 33) is "to refuse it," but in Zeph 3 15 EV means "the sentence against thee "take up" for "get" (so RV), perhaps with the connotation "on credit." "Take up" is also used frequently for "utter solemnly" (Nu 23 7; Isa 14 4, quently for "utter solemnly" (Nu 23 7; Isa 14 4, etc), a use due to the Heb "lift up," "exalt" (NT), nāsā"). For "take up" in the sense of "lift" (physically), cf Isa 40 15; Acts 7 43; AV 21 15. "Take care" in Tob 5 20; 1 Cor 9 9 AV (RV "to care") means "be anxious about," "have in mind." And the very obscure "scurrility in the matter of giving and taking" (Sir 41 19) is explained by the Heb to mean "refusing the gift for which thou art besought." The following phrases are archaic, but hardly need explanation: "Take which thou art desought." The following phrases are archaic, but hardly need explanation: "Take indignation" (Neh 4 1); "take wrong" (1 Cor 6 7); "take up in the lips" (Ezk 36 3; AV Ps 16 4, "take . . . into my lips," RV "take upon my lips"); and in AV "take to record" (Acts 20 26, RV "testify unto"); "take shame" (Mic 2 6 AV).

Burton Scott Easton

TALE, tāl (תְּלֶנֶת , tōkhen, בִּוּחְלֵּנֶת , mithkōneth, ¬϶ρος, nispār, λήρος, lēros): In AV of the OT (with one exception, Ps 90 9) "tale" (in the sing.) means number. "Tell" often has the same meaning, e.g. "I may tell [i.e. reckon] all my bones" (Ps 22 17). When Moses requested permission to go three days' journey into the wilderness to sacrifice to Jeh, Pharaoh replied by demanding the full "tale" of bricks from the Israelites although the full "tale" of bricks from the Israelites although they were compelled to provide themselves with straw (Ex 5 8.18; see also 1 S 18 27; 1 Ch 9 28). In Ps 90 9, "as a tale that is told" is a doubtful rendering (see Games). The LXX and Vulg render "as a spider's web." The literal and perhaps accurate tr is "as a sigh" (Driver, in the Parallel Psalter, gives "as a murmur"). The word used in this ps means "to whisper," or "speak sotto voce," as a devout believer repeats to himself the words of a favorite hymn or passage (Ps 1 2). a favorite hymn or passage (Ps 1 2).

The disciples considered the account given by

the women in regard to the resurrection as "idle tales" (AV, RV "idle talk"), lit. "nonsensical talk" (Lk 24 11).

In talebearer the word has another meaning, viz. "slanderous talk or gossip." The word occurs 5 t in Prov (11 13; 18 8 AV; 20 19; 26 20.22 AV) and once in Lev (19 16). The word used in Lev and also in Prov 20 19 means a person who gads about from house to house hawking malicious gossip (cf Tom 5 13). From the same root comes the Heb word for "merchant." In Ezk 22 9 for AV "men that carry tales" RV gives "slanderous men," as Doeg (1 S 22 9.22); Ziba (2 S 16 3; 19 27); and a certain maid-servant (2 S 17 17). See SLANDER. T. Lewis

TALENT, tal'ent (קֿבָּר, kikkār; τάλαντον, talanton): A weight composed of 60 manehs (EV "pounds") equal to about 120 pounds troy and 96 pounds avoirdupois, or 672,500 grains, of the Phoen standard. See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES. When used in the monetary sense the talent might be either of silver or gold, and the value varied ac-cording to the standard, but is probably to be taken on the Phoen, which would give about £410, or \$2,050, for the silver talent and £6,150, or

\$30,750, for the gold. See Money.

Figurative: "Talent," like "pound," is used metaphorically in the NT for mental and spiritual

attainments or gifts (Mt 25 15-28).

TALITHA CUMI, ta-lē'tha kōō'mē (ταλιθὰ κοῦμι, talithá koûmi): Derived from the Aram. (אָרָיִרָּאַ קרמי, $taly^\epsilon th\bar{a}'$ $k\bar{u}m\bar{\iota}$, "damsel, arise"), which in the NT MSS is transliterated variously (WH, Taleibà κούμ, Taleithá koúm, otherwise Ταλιθά κοῦμι, Talithá koumi). We have no data for determining how far Jesus employed the Aram. language, but Mark (5 41) notes its use in this tender incident, and there is strong probability that Aram. was used normally, if not exclusively, by Christ. There is, however, no ground for attributing any magical significance to the use of the Aram. words in connection with this

TALMAI, tal'mī, tal'mā-ī (תַּלְמֵר , talmay):

(1) A clan, possibly of Aramaean origin, generally reputed to be of gigantic height; resident in Hebron at the time of the Heb conquest and driven thence by Caleb (Nu 13 22; Josh 15 14; Jgs 1 10).

(2) A son of Ammihur (or Ammihud), king of Geshur, a small Aramaean kingdom, and a contemporary of David, to whom he gave his daughter Maacah in marriage. When Absalom fled from David after the assassination of Amnon he took refuge with Talmai at Geshur (2 S 3 3; 13 37; 1 Ch 3 2).

TALMON, tal'mon (מַלְמוֹדְ, talmon): One of the porters in connection with the temple-service (1 Ch 9 17; Ezr 2 42; Neh 7 45; 11 19; 12 25).

TALMUD, tal'mud (תַּלְמַרָּד, talmūdh):

- I. PRELIMINARY REMARKS AND VERBAL EXPLANA-

- II. IMPORTANCE OF THE TALMUD

 III. IMPORTANCE OF THE TALMUD

 III. THE TRADITIONAL LAW UNTIL THE COMPOSITION
 OF THE MISHNA

 IV. DIVISION AND CONTENTS OF THE MISHNA (AND
 THE TALMUD)

 1. Zerā'in, "Seeds"
 2. Mō'sāh, "Feasts"
 3. Nāshīm, "Women"
 4. Nezīķīn, "Damages"
 5. Kōdhāshīm, "Sacred Things"
 6. Ţehārōth, "Clean Things"
 V. THE PALESTINIAN TALMUD
 VI. THE BABYLONIAN TALMUD
 VII. Treatises after the 4th sēdher
- - 1. Treatises after the 4th sedher 2. Seven Little Treatises

LITERATURE

The present writer is, for brevity's sake, under necessity to refer to his Einleitung in den Talmud, 4th ed, Leipzig, 1908. It is quoted here as Intro.

There are very few books which are mentioned so often and yet are so little known as the Talmud. It is perhaps true that nobody can now be found, who, as did the Capuchin monk Henricus Seynensis, thinks that "Talmud" is the name of a rabbi. Yet a great deal of ignorance on this subject still prevails in many circles. Many are afraid to inform themselves, as this may be too difficult or too tedious; others (the anti-Semites) do not want correct information to be spread on this subject, because this would interfere seriously with their use of the Talm as a means for their agitation against the Jews.

I. Preliminary Remarks and Verbal Explanations.—(1) מְשְׁכָּה, Mishnāh, "the oral doctrine and the study of it" (from shānāh, "to repeat," "to learn," "to teach"), esp. (a) the whole of the oral law which had come into existence up to the end of the 2d cent. AD; (b) the whole of the teaching of one of the rabbis living during the first two cen-

one of the rabbis itving during the first two centuries AD (tannā', pl. tannā'īm); (c) a single tenet; (d) a collection of such tenets; (e) above all, the collection made by Rabbi Jehūdāh (or Judah) ha-Nāsī'.

(2) אַרְיָבָּה, Gemārā', "the matter that is learned" (from gemar, "to accomplish," "to learn"), denotes since the 9th cent. the collection of the discussions of the Amoraim, i.e. of the rabbis teaching from about 200 to 500 AD.

(3) הַלְּמִדּה, Talmūdh, "the studying" or "the teaching," was in older times used for the discussions of the Amoraim; now it means the Mish with the discussions thereupon.

(4) הַּלֶּכָה, Hălākhāh (from hālakh, "to go"): (a) the life as far as it is ruled by the Law; (b) a statutory precept.
(5) אָרָה, Haggādhāh (from higgādh, "to tell"),

the non-halakhic exegesis.

II. Importance of the Talmud.—Commonly the Talm is declared to be the Jewish code of Law. But this is not the case, even for the traditional or "orthodox" Jews. Really the Talm is the source whence the Jewish Law is to be derived. Whosoever wants to show what the Jewish Law says about a certain case (point, question) has to compare at first the Shulhān 'ārūkh with its comm., then the other codices (Maimonides, Alphasi, etc) and the Responsa, and finally the Talmudic discussions; but he is not allowed to give a decisive sentence on the authority of the Talm alone (see *Intro*, 116, 117; David Hoffmann, Der Schulchan-Aruch, 2d ed, Berlin, 1894, 38, 39). On the other hand, no decision is valid if it is against the yield of the Talmudic discussion. The liberal (Reformed) Jews say that the Talm, though it is interesting and, as a Jewish work of antiquity, ever venerable, has in

itself no authority for faith and life.

For both Christians and Jews the Talm is of value for the following reasons: (1) on account of the language, Heb being used in many parts of the Talm (esp. in Haggadic pieces), Palestinian Aram. in the Palestinian Talm, Eastern Aram. in the Bab Talm (cf "Literature," [7], below). The Talm also contains words of Bab and Pers origin; (2) for also contains words of Bad and rers origin; (2) for folklore, history, geography, natural and medical science, jurisprudence, archaeology and the understanding of the OT (see "Literature," [6], below, and Intro, 159-75). For Christians esp. the Talm contains very much which may help the understanding of the NT (see "Literature." [12]. understanding of the NT (see "Literature," [12], below)

III. The Traditional Law until the Composition of the Mishna.—The Law found in the Torah of Moses was the only written law which the Jews possessed after their return from the Bab exile. This law was neither complete nor sufficient for all times. On account of the ever-changing conditions of life new ordinances became necessary. made these we do not know. An authority to do this must have existed; but the claim made by many that after the days of Ezra there existed a college of 120 men called the "Great Synagogue" cannot be proved. Entirely untenable also is the claim of the traditionally orthodox Jews, that ever since the days of Moses there had been in existence, side by side with the written Law, also an oral Law, with all necessary explanations and supplements to the written Law.

What was added to the Pentateuchal Torah was for a long time handed down orally, as can be plainly seen from Jos and Philo. The increase of such material made it necessary to arrange it. An arrangement according to subject-matter can be traced back to the 1st cent. AD; very old, perhaps even older, is also the formal adjustment of this material to the Pentateuchal Law, the form of

Exegesis (Midr). Cf Intro, 19-21.

A comprehensive collection of traditional laws was made by Rabbi Akiba c 110-35 AD, if not by an earlier scholar. His work formed the basis of that of Rabbi Mē'īr, and this again was the basis of the ed of the Mish by Rabbi Jehūdāh ha-Nāsī'. In this Mish, the Mish par excellence, the anonymous portions generally, although not always, reproduce the views of Rabbi Me'ir. See TIBERIAS.

The predecessors of Rabbi (as R. Jehūdāh ha-Nāsī', the "prince" or the "saint," is usually called), as far as we know, did not put into written form their collections; indeed it has been denied by many, esp. by German and French rabbis of the Middle Ages, that Rabbi put into written form the Mish which he Probably the fact of the matter is that the traditional Law was not allowed to be used in written form for the purposes of instruction and in decisions on matters of the Law, but that written collections of a private character, collections of notes, to use a modern term, existed already at an early period (see Intro, 10 ff).

IV. Division and Contents of the Mishna (and the Talmud).—The Mish (as also the Talm) is divided into six "orders" (şedhārīm) or chief parts, the names of which indicate their chief contents, viz. Zerā īm, Agriculture; Mō ēdh, Feasts; Nāshīm, Women; Nezīķīn, Civil and Criminal Law; Kō-dhāshīm, Sacrifices; Tehārōth, Unclean Things and

Their Purification.

The "orders" are divided into tracts (massekheth, pl. massikhtoth), now 63, and these again into chapters (perek, pl. perāķīm), and these again into paragraphs (mishnāyōth). It is customary to cite the Mish according to tract, chapter and paragraph, e.g. Sanh. (Sanhedhrin) x.1. The Bab Talm is cited according to tract and page, e.g. (Bab) Shabbāth 30b; in citing the Palestinian Talm the number of the chapter is also usually given, e.g. (Pal) Shabbāth vi.8d (in most of the edd of the Palestinian Talm each page has two columns, the sheet

given, e.g. (Fal) Shabbath vi.Sd (in most of the edd of the Palestinian Talm each page has two columns, the sheet accordingly has four).

(1) Berākhōth, "Benedictions": "Hear, O Israel" (Dt 6 4, shēma"); the 18 benedictions, grace at meals, and other prayers.

1. Zerā'im, (2) Pē'āh, "Corner" of the field (Lev "Seeds" (3) Demā'ī, "Doubtful" fruits (corn. etc) of which it is uncertain whether the duty for the priests and, in the fixed years, the 2d tithe have been paid.

(4) Kil'ayim, "Heterogeneous," two kinds, forbidden mixtures (Lev 19 19; Dt 22 9 ff).

(5) Shebhī'ūh, "Seventh Year," Sabbatical year (Ex 23 11; Lev 25 1 ff); Shemiţtāh (Dt 15 1 ff).

(6) Terūmōth, "Heave Offerings" for the priests (Nu 18 8 ff; Dt 18 4).

(7) Ma'āsērōth or Ma'āsēr rī'shōn, "First Tithe" (Nu 18 21 ff).

(8) Ma'āsēr shēnī, "Second Tithe" (Dt 14 22 ff).
(9) Ḥallāh, (offering of a part of the) "Dough" (Nu

15 18 ft).
(10) 'Orlāh, "Foreskin" of fruit trees during the first three years (Lev 19 23).
(11) Bikkūrim, "First-Fruits" (Dt 26 1 ff; Ex 23

19)

(1) Shabbāth (Ex 20 10; 23 12; Dt 5 14).
(2) Erūbhīn, "Mixtures," i.e. ideal combination of localities with the purpose of facilitating the observance of the Sabbatical laws.

(3) Pegāḥīm, "Passover" (Ex 12; Lev 23 5 ff; Nu 28 16 ff; Dt 16 1); Ch 9, the Second Passover (Nu 9 10 ff). 2. Mō'ēdh, "Feasts"

the Second Passover (NU 9 10 II).

(4) Shekālīm, "Shekels" for the Temple (cf Neh 10 33; Ex 30 12 ff).

(5) Yōmā', "The Day" of Atonement (Lev 16).

(6) Sukkāh, "Booth," Feast of Tabernacles (Lev 23 4 ff; Nu 29 12 ff; Dt 16 13 ff).

(7) Bēçāh, "Egg" (first word of the treatise) or Yōm tōbh, "Feast," on the difference between the Sabbath

tōbh, "Feast," on the difference between the Sabbath and festivals (cf Ex 12 10).

(8) Rō'sh ha-shānāh, "New Year," first day of the month Tishri (Lev 23 24 f; Nu 29 1 ff).

(9) Ta'ānīth, "Fasting."

(10) Meghrillāh, "The Roll" of Esther, Purim (Est 9 28).

(11) Mō'ēdh kātān, "Minor Feast," or Mashkīn, "They (11) Mö'ēdh kāţān, "Minor Feast," or Mashkān, "They irrigate" (first word of the treatise), the days between the first day and the last day of the feast of Passover, and likewise of Tabernacles.
(12) Hāghiyhāh, "Feast Offering," statutes relating to the three feasts of pilgrimage (Passover, Weeks, Tabernacles); cf Dt 16 16 f.
(1) Yebhāmāth, "Sisters-in-Law" (perhaps better, Yebhāmāth, Levirate marriage. Dt 95 5 ft. of Pout A

(1) Yebhāmāth, "Sisters-in-Law" (perhaps better, Yebhāmāth, Levirate marriage; Dt 25 5 ff; cf Ruth 4 5; Mt 22 24).

5; Mt 22 24).

(2) Kethūbhōth, "Marriage Deeds."

(3) Nāshīm, "Women" (3) Nedhārīm, "Vows," and their annulment (Nu 30).

(4) Nāzīr, "Nazīrite" (Nu 6).

(5) Giṭṭīn, "Letters of Divorce" (Dt

24 1; cf Mt 5 31).

(6) Sōtāh, "The Suspected Woman" (Nu 5 11 ff).

(7) Kiddūshīn, "Betrothals."

(7) Kiddåshīn, "Betrothals."

(1) (2) and (3) Bābhā' kammā', Bābhā' meçī'ā', Bābhā' bahhā', "The First Gate." "The Second Gate." "The Last Gate." were in ancient times only one treatise called Nezīkīn. (a) Damages and "Damages" injuries and the responsibility; (b) and "Damages" (c) right of possession.

(4) and (5) Sanhedhrīn, "Court of Justice." and Makkōth. "Stripes" (Dt 25 1 ff; cf 1 Cor 11 24). In ancient times only one treatise; criminal law and criminal proceedings.

(6) Shebhū'ōth, "Oaths" (Lev 5 1 ff).

(7) 'Ēdhuyōth, "Attestations" of later teachers as to the opinions of former authorities.

the opinions of former authorities.

(8) 'Abhādhāt zārāh, "Idolatry," commerce and inter-(8) Abhoth, 'Idolatry,' commerce and inter-course with idolaters.
(9) 'Abhoth, (sayings of the) "Fathers"; sayings of the Tannā'im.

Tannā'īm.

(10) Hōrāyōth, (erroneous) "Decisions," and the sin offering to be brought in such a case (Lev 4 13 ff).

(1) Zebhāhīm, "Sacrifices" (Lev 1 ff).
(2) Monāhōth, "Meal Offerings" (Lev 2 5.11 ff; 6 7 ff; Nu 5 15 ff, etc).

5. Kōdhāshīm, "Sacred; slaughtering of animals and birds for ordinary use.

(4) Bokhārōth, "The Firstborn" (Ex 13 2.12 f; Lev 27 26 f.32; Nu 8 6 ff, etc). etc). (5) 'Årākhīn, "Estimates," "Valua-

tions" of persons and things dedicated to God (Lev 27 2 ff).

(6) $T^em \bar{u}r \bar{u}h$, "Substitution" of a common (non-sacred) thing for a sacred one (cf Lev 27 10.33).

(7) $K^er \bar{u}h \bar{o}th$, "Excisions," the punishment of being cut off from Israel (Gen 17 14; Ex 12 15, etc).

(8) $M^e \bar{u}l \bar{u}h$, "Unlathfulness," as to sacred things, embezzlement (Nu 5 6 ff; Lev 5 15 f).

(9) $T \bar{u}m \bar{u}dh$, "The Daily Morning and Evening Sacrifice" (Ex 29 38 ff; Nu 38 3 ff).

(10) $Mid \bar{u}d \bar{o}th$, "Measurements" of the Temple.

(11) Kinnim, "Nests," the offering of two turtle-doves or two young pigeons (Lev 1 14 ff; 5 1 ff; 12 8). This title is used euphemistically for "unclean things": things

"Vessels" (Lev 6 20f; 11 32ff; Nu 19 (1) Kēlīm, "1 14 ff; 31 20 ff).

14 ff; 31 20 ff).

(2) 'Öholöth, "Tents," the impurity

6. Tehārōth, originating with a corpse or a part of it

(cf Nu 19 14).

(Nu 19 14).

(Nu 19 14).

(3) N°ehā'īm, "Leprosy" (Lev 13, 14).
(4) Pārāh, "Red Heifer"; its ashes used for the purpose of purification (Nu hārāth "Clara"). Things" 19 2 ff).

(5) Tehārōth, "Clean Things," euphemistically for defilements.

defilements.

33; Lev 14 8; 15 5 ff; cf Mk 7 4).

(7) Niddāh, "The Menstruous" (Lev 15 12; Nu 31 (8) Makhshīrin, "Freparers." or Mashkīn, "Fluids" (first word of the treatise). Seven liquids (wine, honey, oil, milk, dew, blood, water) which tend to cause corn, etc, to become defiled (cf Lev 11 34.37 f).

(9) Zābhīm, "Persons Having an Issue," flux (Lev 15).

15). (10)

11). (10) Tobhūl yōm, "A Person Who Has Taken the Ritual Bath during the Day," and is unclean until sunset (Lev 15 5; 22 6 f). (11) Yādhayim, "Hands," the ritual impurity of hands and their purification (cf Mt 15 2.20; Mk 7 29 ft).

(12) 'Ukçin, "Stalks," the conveyance of ritual impurity by means of the stalks and hulls of plants.

V. The Palestinian Talmud.—Another name, Talmūdh Y rūshalmī ("Jerus Talm"), is also old, but not accurate. The Palestinian Talm gives the discussions of the Palestinian Amoraim, teaching from the 3d cent. AD until the beginning of the 5th, esp. in the schools or academies of Tiberias, Caesarea and Sepphoris. The edd and the Leyden MS (in the other MSS there are but few treatises) contain only the four sedhārīm i-iv and a part of Niddāh. do not know whether the other treatises had at any time a Palestinian Gemara. "The Mish on which time a Palestinian Gemara. "The Mish on which the Palestinian Talm rests" is said to be found in the MS Add. 470.1 of the University Library, Cambridge, England (ed W. H. Lowe, 1883). The treatises 'Edhuyōth and 'Abhōth have no Gemara in the Palestinian Talm or in the Bab.

Some of the most famous Palestinian Amoraim may be mentioned here (cf Intro, 99 ff): 1st generation: Hāninā bar Hāmā, Jannai, Jonathan, Osha'ya, the Haggadist Joshua ben Levi; 2d generation: Johanan bar Nappāhā, Simeon ben Lakish; 3d generation: Samuel bar Nahman, Levi, Eliezer ben Pedath, Abbahu, Ze'ira (i); 4th generation: Jeremiah, Ahā', Abīn (i), Jūdāh, Hūnā; 5th generation: Jonah, Phinehas, Berechiah, Jose bar Abin, Mānī (ii), Tanhumā'.

VI. The Babylonian Talmud.—The Bab Talm is later and more voluminous than the Palestinian Talm, and is a higher authority for the Jews. In Talm, and is a higher authority for the serior the first sēdher only Berākhōth has a Gemara; Shekālīm in the 2d sēdher has in the MSS and in the edd the Palestinian Gemara; Middōth and Kinthe edd the Palestinian Gemara; The nīm in the 5th sēdher have no Bab Gemara. greatest Jewish academies in Babylonia were in Nehardea, Şura, Pumbeditha and Maḥuza.

Among the greatest Bab Amoraim are the following (cf Intro, 99 ff): 1st generation: Abba Arikhā or, shortly, Rab in Sura (d. 247 AD). Mar Samuel in Nehardea (d. 254 AD). 2d generation: Rab Hūnā, Rab Judah (bar Ezekiel). 3d generation: Rab Hisda, Rab Shēsheth, Rab Naḥman (bar Jacob), Rabbāh (na) Jar Ḥana, the story-teller, Rabbāh bar Naḥmānī, Rab Joseph (d. 323 AD). 4th generation: Abāyē, Rābā (Na) (bar Joseph). 5th generation: Rab Pāpā. 6th generation: Amēmar, Rab Āshī.

VII. The Non-canonical Little Treatises and the Tosephta'.—In the edd of the Bab Talm after the 4th sēdher we find some treatises which, as they are not without some interest, we shall not pass over in silence, though they do

1. Treatises not belong to the Talm itself (cf Intro. 69 ff).
(1) 'Ābhōth deRabbī Nāthān, an exafter the

4th sedher pansion of the treatise 'Ābhōth, ed S. Schechter, Vienna, 1887.

(2) Ṣōpherīm, ed Joel Müller, Leipzig, 1878.

(2) Sopherim, ed Joel Müller, Leipzig, 1878.
(3) 'Ebhel Rabbāthī, "Mourning," or, euphemistically, Semāhōth, "Joys."
(4) Kallāh, "Bride."
(5) Derekh 'ereç, "Way of the World," i.e. Deportment; Rabbā' and Zūtā', "Large" and "Small." Septem Libri Talmudici parvi Hierolymitani, ed R. Kirchheim, Frankfurt a. Main, 1851: Sepher $T\bar{o}r\bar{a}h$, $M^{c}z\bar{u}z\bar{a}h$, $T^{c}phill\bar{u}n$, $G^{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}th$,

2. Seven 'Abhādhīm. $K \bar{u} t h \bar{\imath} m$ (Samaritans), Little

Gērīm (Proselytes).

The *Tōṣephtā'*, a work parallel to Rabbi's Mish, is said to represent the Treatises views of R. Nehemiah, disciple of R. Akiba, ed M. S. Zuckermandel Zuckermandel, Posewalk, 1880. tries to show that the Tōṣephtā' contains the remains of the old Palestinian Mish, and that the work commonly called Mish is the product of a new revision in Babylonia (cf his Tosephta, Mischna und Boraitha in ihrem Verhältnis zu einander, 2 vols, Frankfurt a. Main, 1908, 1909).

Frankfurt a. Main, 1908, 1909).

LITERATURE.—(1) Intros: Hermann L. Strack, Einleitung in d. Talm, 4th ed, Leipzig, 1908, in which other books on this subject are mentioned, pp. 139—44.

(2) Manuscripts (Intro, 72–76): There are MSS of the whole Mish in Parma, in Budapest, and in Cambridge, England (the latter is published by W. H. Lowe, 1883). The only codex of the Palestinian Talm is in Leyden; Louis Ginsberg, Yerushalmi Fragments from the Genizah, vol I, text with various readings from the editio princeps, New York, 1909 (372 pp., 4to). The only codex of the Bab Talm was published whole in 1912 by the present writer: Talmud Bab codies: Heb Monacensis 95 phototypice depictum, Leyden (1140 plates, royal folio). On the MSS in the Vatican see S. Ochser, ZDMG, 1909, 365–93.626, 822 f.

(3) Editions (Intro, 76–81): (a) Mish, editio princeps, Naples, 1492, folio, with the comm. of Moses Maimonides; Riva di Trento, 1559, folio, contains also the comm. of Obadiah di Bertinoro. The new ed printed in Wilna contains a great number of comms. (b) Palestinian Talm, editio princeps, Venice, 1523 f, folio; Cracow, 1609, folio. Of a new ed begun by A. M. Luncz, Jerus, 1908 ff, two books, Brākhōth and Pēšāh, are already published. Another new critical ed, with Ger. tr and notes, was begun in 1912 by G. Beer and O. Hotzmann (Die Mischna, Giessen). Cf also B. Ratner, Ahabath Çijon Wirushalayim, Varianten und Erganzungen des Jerus Talmuds, Wilna. 1901 ff. (c) Bab Talm, editio princeps, Venice, Stalman, Venice, Venice, Wilna. 1901 ff. (c) Bab Talm, editio princeps, Venice, Stalman, Venicanten und Erganzungen des Jerus Talmuds, Wilna. 1901 ff. (c) Bab Talm. editio princeps, Venice, Venice, Wilna. 1901 ff. (c) Bab Talm. editio princeps, Venice, Palmuds, Wilna. 1901 ff. (c) Bab Talm. editio princeps, Venice, Venice, Wilna. 1901 ff. (c) Bab Talm. editio princeps, Venice, Venice, Wilna. 1901 ff. (c) Bab Talm. editio princeps, Venice, Venice, Wilna. 1901 ff. (c) Bab Talm. editio princeps, Venice, Palmuds, Wilna. 1901 ff. (c) Bab Talm. e

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(4) Translations: E. Bischoff, Krit. Geschichte d. Talmudibersetzungen, Frankfurt a. Main, 1899. (a) Mish, Lat: Guil. Surenhusius, Amsterdam, 1698-1703 (contains also a tr of Maimonides and Obadiah di Bertinoro); Ger: J. J. Rabe, Onolzbach, 1760 ff; A. Sammter, D. Hoffmann and others, Berlin, 1887 ff (not yet complete); Eng.: De Sola and Raphall, 18 Treatises from the Mish, London, 1843; Jos. Barclay, The Talm, a Tr of 18 Treatises, London, 1878 (but 7 treatises also in De Sola and Raphall; Fiebig, Ausgewählte Mischnatractate, Tübingen, 1905 ff (annotated Ger. tr). (b) Palestinian Talm, Lat: 20 treatises in B. Ugolini, Thesaurus antiquiatum sacrarum, vols XVII-XXX, Venice, 1755 ff. French: M. Schwab, Paris, 1878-89 (in 1890 appeared a 2d ed of vol 1). (c) Bab Talm, Ger:: L. Goldschmidt, Berlin (Leipzig), 1897 ff; gives also the text of the 1st Venetian ed and some variant readings (s'dhārim 1, 2, and 4 are complete): A. Winsche, Der Bab Talm in seinen haggadischen Bestandeilen übersetzt, Leipzig, 1886-89. Eng.: M. L. Rodkinson, New Ed of the Bab Talm . . . Trd into Eng., New York, 1896 ff (is rather an abridgment lunreliable).

into Eng.. New York, 1396 ff (is rather an abridgment [unreliable]).

(5) Comms. (Intro, 146-51): (a) Mish: Moses Maimoides (1135-1204), Obadiah di Bertinoro (d. 1510), Yom-Töbh Lipmann Heller (1579-1654), Israel Lipschütz. (b) Bab Talm: Rashi or Solomon Yiçhāki (d. 1105); The Tösäphöth (see L. Zunz, Zur Geschichte und Literatur, Berlin, 1845, 29-60); Menahem ben Solomon

or Mē'irī (1249—1306); Solomon Luria (d. 1573), commonly called Maharshal; Bezaleel Ashkenāzī (16th cent.), author of the Shittāh Me'kubbeçeth; Samuel Edels (1559—1631) or Maharsha'; Meir Lublin (d. 1616); Elijah Wilna (d. 1797); Aķiba Eger (d. 1837).

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HERMANN L. STRACK
TALSAS, tal'sas (A. Zaháns, Salóns, B. Záh.

TALSAS, tal'sas (A, Σαλόας, Salóas, B, Zάλ-θας, Zálthas; RV "Saloas"): In 1 Esd 9 22 AV= "Elasha" of Ezr 10 22.

TAMAH, tā'ma. See TEMAH.

TAMAR, tā'mar (つない, tāmār, "palm"; B, Θημάρ, Thēmár, A, Θαμάρ, Thamár [so B in Gen]):

(1) The wife of Er, the eldest son of Judah (Gen 38 6 ff). On her husband's death under the displeasure of Jeh, his brother Onan ought to have performed the husband's part, but he evaded his duty in this respect, and likewise perished. Shelah, the next brother, was promised to her, but not given. This led Tamar to the extraordinary course narrated in Gen 38 13 ff, on which see Judah. By her father-in-law she became the mother of Perez and Zerah (AV "Pharez and Zarah"). Judah, who at first condemned her to be burned (ver 24), was compelled to vindicate her (vs 25.26). Through Perez she became an ancestress of Jesus (Θαμάρ, Thamár, Mt 1 3).

(2) A daughter of David and sister of Absalom (2.8 11 fs).

(2 S 13 1 ff). Her beauty inflamed her half-brother Amnon with passion, and by stratagem he forcibly violated her. This brought upon Amnon the terrible revenge of Absalom. See

Absalom; Amnon.

(3) A daughter of Absalom (2 S 14 27). Маасан. JAMES ORR

TAMAR (פֹּבֶלה, tāmār, "palm tree"; Θαιμάν, Thaimán):

(1) This name occurs in Ezekiel's ideal delimita-tion of the territory to be occupied by Israel (47 19; 48 28). The Dead Sea is the eastern border; and the southern boundary runs from Tamar as far as the waters of Meriboth-kadesh to the Brook of Egypt and the Great Sea. The place therefore lay somewhere to the S.W. of the Dead Sea. "Hazazon-tamar (the same is En-gedi)" (2 Ch 20 2) is of course out of the question, being much too far to the N. Onom mentions Asasonthamar, with which Thamara was identified. This place was a village with fortress and Rom garrison, a day's journey from Mampsis on the way from Hebron to Elath. It is the Thamaro mentioned by Ptolemy (v.16, 8), as a military station on the road from Hebron to Petra. It is named also in the Peutinger Tables. Neither Mampsis nor Thamaro has been identified.

(2) Among the towns "built" or fortified by Solomon, named in 1 K 9 18, is Tamar (RV following Kethibh), or Tadmor (AV following Kete; cf 2 Ch 8 4). Gezer, Beth-horon and Baalath, named along with it, are all in Southern Pal, while Tamar is described as in the wilderness in the land, pointing to the Negeb or to the Wilderness of Judah. It was probably intended to protect the road for trade from Ezion-geber to Jerus. We may with some confidence identify it with (1) above. It is interesting to note that the Chronicler (2 Ch 8 4) takes it out of connection with the other cities (ver 5), and brings its building into relation with Solomon's conquest of Hamath-zobah. Clearly in his mind it denoted the great and beautiful city of Palmyra, which has so long been known as "Tadmor in the Wilderness." W. Ewing

TAMARISK, tam'a-risk: (1) אָלָיל, 'ēshel (Gen 21 33, AV "grove,' m "tree"; 1 S 22 6, AV "tree," m "grove"; 1 S 31 13, AV "tree"). The RV tr is due to the similarity of 'ēshel to the Arab. 'āthl, "the tamarisk." (2) אַרְעָּר, 'ar'ār (Jer 17 6 m [cf 48 6], EV "heath" [q.v.]). The tamarisk (Tamarix, with various species in Pal, chiefly T. Syriaca) is a very characteristic tree of Pal, esp. in the Maritime Plain, near the sea itself, and in the Jordan valley. Eight species are described. They are characterized by their brittle, feathery branches and by their tiny scale-like leaves. Some varieties flourish not infrequently in salty soil unsuited to any ordinary_vegetation.

unsuited to any ordinary vegetation.

E. W. G. MASTERMAN

TAMMUZ, tam'uz, tam'mooz (1721), tammūz;

Θαμμούζ, Τhammoúz): (1) The name of a Phoen deity, the Adonis of the Greeks. He was originally a Sumerian or Bab sun-god, called Dumuzu, the husband of Ishtar, who corresponds to Aphrodite of the Greeks. worship of these deities was introduced into Syria in very early times under the designation of Tammuz and Astarte, and appears among the Greeks in the myth of Adonis and Aphrodite, who are identified with Osiris and Isis of the Egyp pantheon, showing how widespread the cult became. The Bab myth represents Dumuzu, or Tammuz, as a beautiful shepherd slain by a wild boar, the symbol of winter. Ishtar long mourned for him and descended into the underworld to deliver him from the embrace of death (Frazer, Adonis, Attis and Osiris). mourning for Tammuz was celebrated in Babylonia by women on the 2d day of the 4th month, which thus acquired the name of Tammuz (see CALENDAR). This custom of weeping for Tammuz is referred to in the Bible in the only passage where the name occurs (Ezk 8 14). The chief seat of the cult in Syria was Gebal (modern Gebail, Gr Bublos) in Phoenicia, to the S. of which the river Adonis $(Nahr\ Ibrahîm)$ has its mouth, and its source is the magnificent fountain of Apheca (modern 'Afka), where was the celebrated temple of Venus or Aphrodite, the ruins of which still exist. The women of Gebal used to repair to this temple in midsummer to celebrate the death of Adonis or Tammuz, and there arose in connection with this celebration those licentious rites which rendered the cult so infamous that it was suppressed by Constantine the Great.

The name Adonis, by which this deity was known to the Greeks, is none other than the Phoen ארון, 'Ādhōn, which is the same in Heb. His death is supposed to typify the long, dry summer of Syria and Pal, when vegetation perishes, and his return to life the rainy season when the parched earth is revivified and is covered with luxuriant vegetation, or his death symbolizes the cold, rough winter, the boar of the myth, and his return the verdant spring.

Considering the disgraceful and licentious rites with which the cult was celebrated, it is no wonder that Ezekiel should have taken the vision of the women weeping for Tammuz in the temple as one of the greatest abominations that could defile the Holy House. See Aponis

House. See Adonis.

(2) The fourth month of the Jewish year, corresponding to July. The name is derived from that of a Syrian god, identified with Adonis (Ezk 8 14). See above, and Calendar.

H. Porter

TANACH, tā'nak (יְּנְצְהַ , ta'nākh, יְּנָצְהַ , ta'anākh). See Tanach.

TANHUMETH, tan-hū'meth (ኮቪኒኮኒኮ, tanhumeth): One of those who were left in Judah by Nebuchadnezzar under the governorship of Gedaliah (2 K 25 23; Jer 40 8).

TANIS, tā'nis (Távis, Tánis [Jth 1 10]). See Zoan.

TANNER, tan'er (βυρσεύς, burseús, from βύρσα, búrsa, "a hide"): The only references to a tanner are in Acts 9 43; 10 6.32. The Jews looked upon tanning as an undesirable occupation and well they



Dipping Skins in Vats of Sumach.

might, for at best it was accompanied with unpleasant odors and unattractive sights, if not even ceremonially unclean. We can imagine that Simon the tanner found among the disciples of Jesus a fellowship which had been denied him before. Peter made the way still easier for Simon by choosing his house as his abode while staying in Joppa. Simon's house was by the seashore, as is true of the tanneries along the Syrian coast today, so that the foul-smelling liquors from the vats can be drawn off with the least nuisance, and so that the salt water may be easily accessible for washing the skins during the tanning process. These tanneries are very unpretentious affairs, usually consisting of one or two small rooms and a courtyard. Within are the vats made either of stone masonry, plastered within and without, or cut out of the solid rock. The sheep or goat skins are smeared on the flesh side with a paste of slaked lime and then folded up and allowed to stand until the hair loosens. hair and fleshy matter are removed, the skins are plumped in lime, bated in a concoction first of dog dung and afterward in one of fermenting bran, in much the same way as in a modern tannery. The bated skins are tanned in sumach (Arab., summāk), which is the common tanning material in Syria and Pal. After drying, the leather is blackened on one side by rubbing on a solution made by boiling vinegar with old nails or pieces of copper, and the skin is finally given a dressing of

ING), dry, oil, and polish with a smooth stone.

Pine bark is sometimes used for tanning in Lebanon. According to Wilkinson (Ancient Egypt, II, 186), the Arabs use the juice of a desert plant for dehairing and tanning skins. The skins for pouches are either tawed, i.e. tanned with a mineral salt like alum, or treated like parchment (see Parchment). About Hebron oak branches, chopped into small chips, are used for tanning the leather bottles or water skins. In this case the hair is not removed. The tanning is accomplished, after removing the fleshy matter, by filling the skin with oak chips and water, tying up all openings in the skins, and allowing them to lie in the open on their "backs," with "legs" upright, for weeks. The field near Hebron

olive oil. In the more modern tanneries dégras is

being imported for the currying processes. For dyeing the rams' skins red (Ex 25 ff) they rub on a

solution of kermes (similar to cochineal; see DyE-

where they arrange the bulging skins in orderly rows during the tanning process presents a weird sight. These are the bottles referred to in AV (RV "skins") (Josh 9 4.13; Hos 7 5; Mt 9 17; Mk 2 22; Lk 5 37).

Leather was probably used more extensively than any records show. We know that the Egyptians used leather for ornamental work. They understood the art of making stamped leather. The sculptures give us an idea of the methods used for making the leather into sandals, trimmings for chariots, coverings of chairs, decorations for harps, sarcophagi, etc. There are two Bib. references to leather, where leathern girdles are mentioned (2 K 18; Mt 34). See also Crafts, II, 17.

JAMES A. PATCH

N.W. of the territory of Judah. Tristram suggested identification with ' $Art\bar{u}f$, about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles S.E. of Zorah. G. A. Smith places it in Wady el-'Afranj, possibly identifying it with $Tuff\bar{u}h$, fully 4 miles W. of Hebron. This position, however, is not in the Shephelah. The place probably represents "Beth-tappuah" of Josh 15 53. No quite satisfactory identification has yet been suggested.

(3) A place on the border between Ephraim and Manasseh (Josh 16 8). "The land of Tappuah," i.e. the land adjoining the town, belonged to Manasseh, but the town itself belonged to Ephraim (17 8). En-tappuah was probably a neighboring spring. Tappuah was to the S. of Michmethath, and the border ran from here westward to the brook Kanah. Some would place it at Khirbet 'Atūf, about 11 miles



DRESSING HIDES IN A SYRIAN TANNERY.

TAPESTRY, tap'es-tri (מַרְבָּרִּדִּים), marbhaddīm, from רְבָּרְ , rābhadh, "to spread"): "Carpets of tapestry" are mentioned in Prov 7 16; 31 22. We have no means of knowing just what form of weaving is here referred to. See Weaving.

TAPHATH, tā'fath (ኮንኒኒ, tāphath): Daughter of Solomon and wife of Ben-abinadab (1 K 4 11).

TAPHON, tā'fon. See TEPHON.

TAPPUAH, tap'ū-a, ta-pū'a (បាចារិ, tappūaḥ, "apple"):

(1) A royal city of the Canaanites, the king of which was slain by Joshua (12 17). It is named between Beth-el and Hepher, and may possibly be identical with the city named in Josh 16 8; see (3) below. There is nothing to guide us to a decision.

(2) (Omitted by LXX.) A city in the Shephelah of Judah (Josh 15 34). It is named between Engannim and Enam in a group of cities that lay in the

N. E. of Nāblus. More probably it should be sought to the S.W. of the plain of Makhneh (Michmethath). It may be identical with Tephon, which, along with Timnath, Pharathon, and other cities, Bacchides fortified "with high walls and gates and bars" (1 Macc 9 50). No identification is possible.

W. EWING TAPPUAH (ΠΡΌ, tappuah; Β, Θαπούς, Thapoúς, Α, Θαφφού, Thaphphoú, Luc., Φεθρούθ, Phethroúth): A "son" of Hebron (1 Ch 2 43).

TARAH, tā'ra, târ'a (Nu 33 27 f AV). See Terah.

TARALAH, tar'a-lä (Τὸςς), tar'ălāh; B, Θαρεήλα, Thareâla, A, Θαραλά, Tharalâ): A town in the territory of Benjamin named between Irpeel and Zelah (Josh 18 27). Onom (s.v. "Therama") simply says it was in the tribe of Benjamin. In the times of Eusebius and Jerome, therefore, the site was already lost, and has not since been recovered.

TAREA, tā'rē-a, ta-rē'a (፶፫፮፫, tạ'ặrēa', a copyist's mistake [1 Ch 8 35] for אַקתה, taḥä́rēaʿ, "the shrewd one," in 1 Ch 9 41; B, Θερέε, Therée, A, Θαρέα, Tharée, Luc., Θαράα, Tharáa; in 1 Ch 9 41, B, Θαράχ, Tharách, A, Θαρά, Thará, Luc., Θαράα, Tharáa; see TAHREA): A descendant of Saul mentioned in a genealogy of Benjamin (1 Ch 9 41).

TARES, târz (ζιζάνια, zizánia [Mt 13 25 ff], m "darnel"): Zizania is equivalent to Arab zuwān, the name given to several varieties of darnel of which Lolium temulentum, the "bearded darnel,"



Bearded Darnel (Lolium temulentum).

is the one most resembling wheat, and has been supposed to be degenerated wheat. On near approach of harvest it is carefully weeded out from among the wheat by the women and children. Zuwān is commonly used as chickens' food; it is not poisonous to human beings unless infected with the mold ergot.

TARGET, tär'get. See MARK.

TARGUM, tär'gum (בּוֹלֶּהֹם , targūm):

1. Meaning and Etymology of the Term
2. Origin of the Targums
3. Language of the Targums
4. Mode in Which the Targums Were Given
5. Date of the Targums
6. Characteristics of the Different Targums
(1) Onkelos—the Man
Characteristics of His Targum
(2) Jonathan ben Uzziel—the Man
Characteristics of His Targum—Earlier Prophets;
Later Prophets
(3) Hagiographa: Psalms, Job and Proverbs
(a) The Meghillöth
(b) Chronicles
(4) The Non-official Targums—Jonathan ben Uzziel

(4) The Non-official Targums—Jonathan ben Uzziel and the Pentateuch Use of the Targums

LITERATURE

The Targums were explanations of the Heb Scriptures in Chaldaic (Western Aram.) for the benefit of those Jews who had partially or completely ceased to understand the sacred tongue.

By Gesenius the word methurgām, which occurs in Ezr 4 7, is interpreted as derived from rāgham, "to pile up stones," "to throw," hence "to 1. Meaning stone," and then "to translate," though no example is given. Jastrow derives and Etyit from the Assyr r-g-m, "to speak aloud," an etymology which suits the origin of the Tgs. It is unfortunate mology of the Term that he gives no reference to any Assyr document.

The word turgamanu is found, e.g., in the Am Tab (Berlin ed, 21, l. 25, Knudtzon, 154), with the meaning "interpreter." It may, none the less, be of Aram. origin. See Muss-Arnolt. Concise Dict. Assyr Language, 1191f, and the references there given.

The word is used as the Aram. interpretation of shiggāyōn (Ps 7 1), a term the precise force of which is yet unfixed. From this rāgham comes meturghemān, "an interpreter," and our modern "dragoman." Whatever the original meaning of the root, the word came to mean "to translate," "to explain."

At the time when Nebuchadnezzar carried the inhabitants of Jerus and Judah captive to the banks of the Tigris and the Euphrates,

2. Origin of the Targums

the language of everyday life in Assyria and Babylonia had ceased to be that which has come down to us in the cuneiform inscriptions, and had become

Aram., the *lingua franca* of Southwestern Asia. It was the language of diplomacy, of business and of social intercourse, and had long been so. Dwelling in the midst of those who used Aram. alone, the Jews soon adopted it for every occasion save worship. In the family they might retain their mother tongue for a time, but this would yield at length to continuous pressure from without. a similar process had been going on in the absence of the captives. Intruders from various neighboring peoples had pressed in to occupy the blanks left by the removal of the Jewish captives to Babylon. Although it is not recorded, it is not impossible that following the example of the Assyrians, Nebuchadnezzar may have sent into Judaea compulsory colonists from other parts of his empire. The language common to all these, in addition to their native dialect, was Aramaic. The Jewish inhabitants that dialect, was Aramaic. The Jewish inhabitants that had been left in the land would, like their relatives in Babylonia, have become accustomed to the use of Aram., to the exclusion, more or less complete, of Hebrew. Another process had begun among the captives. Away from the site of their destroyed temple, the exiles did not, like those in Upper Egypt, erect another temple in which to offer sacri-fices. Their worship began to consist in the study of the Law in common, in chanting of the Psalms and united prayers. This study of the Law implied that it should be understood. Though some form of synagogue worship was known in the times preceding the captivity under the direction probably of the prophets (2 K 4 23), it must have become weak and ineffective. With the arrival of Ezra there was a revival of the study of the Law, and with that the necessity for the interpretation of it in language which the people could understand.

From the facts above narrated, this language was of necessity Aramaic. There were, however, forces at work to modify the language. A 3. Language of the the language from which it is made.

Targums

Thus there is a difference relative. tr is liable to be assimilated so far, to observable, between the Eng. of our AV of the Bible and that of Shakespeare, Bacon, or Or, to take an example more cognate, even Hooker.

if less accessible to the general reader, the difference may be seen if one compares the Syr of the NT Pesh with that of the Pesh of the OT. The Aram. of the Tgs is Western Aram., but it is Western Aram. tinctured with Hebrew. The fact that the returned

captives originally had spoken Heb would doubtless have its effect on their Aramaic. German in Jewish lips becomes Yiddish. One very marked feature is the presence of yath, the sign of the accusative translating the Heb 'ēth, whereas in ordinary Aram., Eastern and Western, this is unused, except as supporting the oblique case of pronouns. Further, the intensive construction of infinitive with finite sense, so frequent in Heb, though little used in ordinary Aram., appears in the Tgs wherever it occurs in the Heb text. As a negative characteristic there is to be noted the comparative rarity with which the emphatic repetition of the personal pronoun, so frequent in ordinary Aram., occurs in the Targumic.

The account given in Neh (8 8) of the reading of

the Law to the people not only mentions that Ezra's helpers read "distinctly" (m*phōrāsh),

4. Mode in but "gave the sense" (sōm sekhel) "and caused them to understand the readrangums ing," AV (wayyābhīnū ba-mikrā'). This Were Given threefold process implies more than merely distinct enunciation. If this

passage is compared with Ezr 4 18 it would seem that $m^{c}ph\bar{o}r\bar{a}sh$ ought to mean "interpreted." The most natural explanation is that alongside of the readers of the Law there were interpreters, meturgh*mānīm, who repeated in Aram. what had been read in Heb. What interval separated this public reading of the Law from the reading of the Law as a portion of synagogue worship we have no means of knowing. The probability is that in no long time the practice of reading the Law with an Aram. interpretation was common in all Jewish synagogues. Elaborate rules are laid down in the Talm for this interpretation; how far these were those actually used we cannot be absolutely certain. They at least represent the ideal to which after-generations imagined the originators of the practice aspired. The Law was read by the reader verse by verse, and each verse was followed by a recitation by the $m^{e}turgh^{e}m\bar{a}n$ of the Aram. version. Three verses of the prophetic books were read before the Aram. was recited. The Talmudists were particular that the reader should keep his eye on the roll from which he read, and that the meturghemān should always recite his version without looking at any writing, so that a distinction should be kept between the sacred word and the version. At first the Tg was not committed to writing, but was handed down by tradition from meturghemān to meturghemān. That of the Law became, however, as stereotyped as if it had been written. So to some extent was it with the Prophets and also the Psalms. The Tgs of the rest of the Kethūbhīm seem to have been written from the beginning and read in pri-

We have assumed that the action of Ezra narrated in Neh 8 8 implied not only the reading of

the Law, but also the interpretation of its language—its tr in fact from Heb to Aram., and that, further, this prac-5. Date of the tice was ere long followed in all the **Targums** synagogues in Judaea. This view is maintained by Friedmann (Onkelos u. Akylas, 1896)

and was that assumed to be correct by the Talm. Dr. Dalman assures his readers that this is a mistake, but without assigning any reasons for his assertion. Dr. Dalman is a very great authority, but authority is not science, so we venture to maintain the older opinion. The fact is undeniable that, during the Pers domination all over Southwestern Asia, Aram. was the lingua franca, so much so that we see by the Assouan and Elephantine papyri the Jewish garrison at Assouan in Egypt wrote to their co-religionists in Judaea, and to the Pers governors, in Aramaic. Moreover, there is no trace that they used any other tongue for marriage contracts or deeds of sale.

We may assume that in Judaea the language commonly used in the 5th cent. BC was Aramaic. We may neglect then the position of Mr. Stenning (Enc Brit [11th ed], XXVI, 418b) that "probably as early as the 2d cent. BC the people had adopted Aramaic." By that time Aram. was giving place to Greek. His reason for rejecting the position above maintained is that the dates assigned by criticism to certain prophetic writings conflict with it—a mode of reasoning that seems to derive facts from theories, not theories from facts. theories, not theories from facts.

The fact that the necessity for tr into Aram. existed in the Pers period implies the existence of the meturghemān and the targum. It is more difficult to know when these Tgs were committed to writing. It is probable that the same movement, which led Jehüdāh ha-Nāsī' to commit to writing the decisions of the rabbis which form the Mish, would lead to writing down the Tgs—that is to say late in the 2d cent. of our era. Aram. was disappearing in Pal and the traditional renderings would be liable to be forgotten. Talmudic stories as to dates at which the various Tgs were written down are absolutely valueless.

The Tgs that require most to be considered are the official Tgs, those that are given in the rabbinic

6. Characteristics of the Different Targums

Bibles in columns parallel with the columns of Hebrew. In addition, there is for the Law the Targum Y^erūshalmī, another recension of which is called Targum Yōnāthān ben Uzziel. The Book of Est has two Tgs. Besides these, Tgs of doubtful value have been

written by private individuals. Certain books have no official Tgs: Dnl, Ezr, Neh and Ch. The reason for this is supposed to be that in both Dnl and Ezr there are portions written in Aramaic. and Ch were regarded as forming one book with Ezr. A late Tg on Ch has been found and published separately. Some of the apocryphal additions to Est appear in a late Tg to that book. The official Tgs of the Law and the Prophets approach more nearly the character of tra, though even in them verses are at times explained rather than trd. The others are paraphrastic to a greater or less degree.

(1) Onkelos.—This is the name given to the official Tg of the Pent. The legend is that it was written by one Onkelos, a proselyte son of Kalonymus or Kalonikus, sister's son of Titus. He was associated with the second Gamaliel and is represented as being even more minutely punctilious in his piety than his friend. The legend goes on to say that, when he became a proselyte, his uncle sent company after company of soldiers to arrest him, but he converted them, one after another. at the same time extremely doubtful whether there ever was such a person, a view that is confirmed by the fact that legends almost identical are related of Aquila, the translator of the Heb Scriptures The names are similar, and it may be into Greek. are identical. While there may have been a person so named, the admission of this does not imply that he had any connection with the Tg of the Pent named after him. Another explanation is that as the Gr version of Aquila was much praised by the Jews for its fastidious accuracy, and this Tg of the Law was credited with equally careful accuracy, so all that is meant is that it was regarded as a version which as accurately represented in Aram. the Heb of the Law as did Aquila's Greek. The probability is that whoever it was who committed the Tg to writing did little or no actual translating. It might not be the work of one unassisted author; the reference to the guidance Onkelos is alleged to have received from the rabbis Eliezer and Joshua suggests this. Owing to the fact that the Law was read through in the course of a year in Bab (once in

three years in Pal) and every portion interpreted verse by verse in Aram., as it was read, the very words of the traditional rendering would be remembered. This gives the language of the Tg an antique flavor which may be seen when it is compared with that of the Palestinian lectionary discovered by Mrs. Gibson and Mrs. Lewis. Esp. is this observed when the renderings of the same passage are put in comparison. Both in vocabulary and grammar there is a difference; thus mar occurs for shallet, and yath as the sign of the accusative has disappeared in the lectionary. An analogy may be seen in the antique flavor of the language of our Eng. Bible, even in RV. If any credence were to be given to the traditional account of the alleged authors, the date of this Tg would be the end of the 1st cent. AD. But we have seen that it has been named Aquila and that the title means "as accurate as Aquila." He, however, lived in the beginning of the 2d cent. His Gr version must have already gained a reputation before the Aram. Tg appeared. We cannot therefore date the actual committing of this Tg to writing earlier than late in the 2d cent., not improbably, as suggested above, contemporary with the writing down of the Mish by Jehūdāh ha-Nāsī'.

the 2d cent., not improbably, as suggested above, contemporary with the writing down of the Mish by Jehūdāh ha-Nāsī'.

The characteristics of this Tg are in general close adherence to the original, sometimes even to the extent of doing violence to the genius of the language into which it has been trd. One prominent example of this is the presence of yath as the sign of the accusative; and there is also the intensive construction of infinitive with finite tense. There is a tendency to insert something between God and His worshipper, as "mim'rd' Jeh" instead of simply "Jeh." Where anthropomorphisms occur, an exact tr is not attempted, but the sense is represented in an abstract way, as in Gen 11 5, where instead of "The Lord (Y H W H] came down" there is "The Lord [1yyd'] was revealed." At the same time there is not a total avoidance of paraphrase. In Gen 4 7 the Tg renders, "If thou doest thy work well, is it not remitted unto thee? If thou doest not thy work well, thy sin is reserved unto the day of judgment when it will be required of thee if thou do not repent, but if thou repent it shall be remitted to thee. It will be observed that the last clause of the Heb is omitted. So in Gen 3 22, instead of "Man has become as one of us," Onkelos writes "Man has become alone in the world by himself to know good and evil." A more singular instance occurs in Gen 27 13, where Rebekah answers Jacob, "Upon me be thy curse, my son"; in the Tg it is, "Unto me it hath been said in prophecy, there shall be no curse upon thee my son." Sometimes there is a mere explanatory expansion, as in Ex 3 1, where instead of "the mount of God," Onkelos has "the mountain on which the glory of the Lord was revealed." In the mysterious passage, Ex 4 24-26, later Jewish usage is brought in to make an easy sense: "And it was on the way in the inn [house of rest] that the angel of the Lord met him and said. In the blood of this circumcision of propriety come in, as when the sin of Onanis described "corrupting his way on the earth." It is, however

Committed to writing in Pal, the Tg of Onkelos

was sent to Babylon to get the *imprimatur* of the famous rabbis residing there. There are said to be traces in the language of a revision by the Bab teachers, but as this lies in the prevalence of certain words that are regarded as more naturally belonging to Eastern than Western Aram., it is too restrictedly technical to be discussed here. result of the Bab sanction was the reception of this Tg as the official interpretation of the books of the Law. It seems probable that the mistake which led to its being attributed to Onkelos was made in Babylon where Aquila's Gr version was not

known save by vague reputation.

(2) The Tg of Jonathan ben Uzziel on the Prophets.—This Jonathan, to whom the Tg on the Prophets is attributed, is declared to be one of the most distinguished pupils of Hillel. The prophetic section of the Bible according to the Jews contains, besides what we ordinarily reckon prophetic books, also all the earlier historical books except Ruth, which is placed among the Hagiographa. During the persecution of the Jews by Epiphanes, when the Law was forbidden to be read in the synagogue, portions of the Prophets were read instead. was no attempt to read the whole of the Prophets thus, but very considerable portions were used in worship. This necessitated the presence of the m*turgh*mān. If one might believe the Talmudic traditions, Jonathan's Tg was committed to writing before that of Onkelos. Jonathan is regarded as the contemporary of the first Gamaliel, whereas Onkelos is the friend of Akiba, the contemporary of The tradition is that when he published his Tg of the Prophets, all Pal was shaken, and a voice from heaven was heard demanding, "Who is this who revealeth my secrets to the sons of men?" As an example of the vagueness of Talmudic chronology, it may be mentioned that Jonathan was said to have made his Tg under the guidance of Haggai, Zechariah and Malachi. He is said to have desired to write a Tg of the Kethübhīm, but was forbidden by a voice from heaven. The Tg of Job was said to have been already written, but was buried by Gamaliel. It is said to have been exhumed and that the present Tg on that book is from Jonathan's hand. The tomb of Jonathan ben Uzziel is shown on the face of a hill to the N. of Safed, Palestine.

Safed, Palestine.

In the former Prophets—the historical books—the style does not differ much from that of Onkelos. Occasionally there are readings followed which are not in the MT, as Josh 8 12, where the Tg has "the west side of Ai" instead of as in the MT, "the west side of the city," Sometimes two readings are combined, as in 8 16, where the MT has "all the people which were in the city," the Tg adds "in Ai." Again, the Tg translates proper names, as, in Josh 7 5, "Shebarim" (sh*bhārim) is rendered "till they were scattered." Such are the variations to be seen in the narrative portion of the Tg of the earlier Prophets. When, however, a poetical piece occurs, the writer at times gives rein to his imagination. Sometimes one verse is exceedingly paraphrastic and the next an accurate rendering without any addition. In the song of Deborah (Jgs 5) the 1st verse has only a little of paraphrase: "Then sang praises Deborah and Barak the son of Abinoam on account of the lifting up and deliverance which had been wrought in that day, saying" The verse which follows is very paraphrastic; instead of the 7 words of the verse in the MT the Tg has 55. It is too long to quote in full, but it begins, "Because the house of Israel rebelled against His Law, the Gentiles came up upon them and disturbed their assemblies, and because they refused to obey the Law, their enemies prevailed against them and drove them from the borders of the land of Israel."

The later prophets are more paraphrastic as a later prophety before the Lord. I will sing praise and bless before Jeh the God of Israel."

The later prophets are more paraphrastic as a whole than the earlier, as having more passages

with poetic metaphors in them—a fact that is made plain to anyone by the greater space occupied in the rabbinic Bibles by the Tgs of the Prophets. marked example of this tendency to amplify is to be found in Jer 10 11: "Thus shall ye say unto them, The gods that have not made the heavens and the earth, these shall perish from the earth, and from under the heavens." As this verse is in Aram. it might have been thought that it would have been transferred to the Tg unchanged, but the Targumist has made of the 10 words of the original text 57. Sometimes these expansions may be much shorter than the above example, but are illuminative, showing the views held by the Jewish teachers. In Isa 29 1, "Ho Ariel, Ariel, the city where David encamped!" the Tg has "Woe to the altar, the altar which David built in the city in which he dwelt." In this rendering we see the Jewish opinion that "Ariel," which means "lion of God," in this corporation steed for the "altar" which David in this connection stood for the "altar" which David erected in Jerus. It seems unlikely that this whole Tg was the work of one writer, but the style gives little indication of difference. The paraphrase of the synagogal haphtārōth being traditional, the style of the person who committed it to writing had little scope. The language represents naturally an older stage of development than we find in the con-temporary Christian lectionaries. As only portions of the Prophets were used in synagogue worship, only those portions would have a traditional rendering; but these fixed the style. In the RV of the Apoc the 70 verses which had been missing from 2 Esd 7 are tr^d in the style adopted by the translators under King James. It is impossible to fix the date at which the Tg of any of the prophetic books was written down. It is probable that it was little if at all after that of Onkelos. The completion of the paraphrases of the prophetic writings, of which only portions were used in the synagogue, seems to imply that there were readers of the Aram. for whose benefit those Tgs were made.
(3) The Tgs of the third division of the Heb

sacred writings, the Kethūbhīm (the Hagiographa), are ascribed to Joseph Caecus, but this is merely a name. There is no official Tg of any of the Hagiographa, and several of them, Dnl, Neh and Ezr, as above noted, have no Tg at all. Those of the longer books of this class, Pss, Prov and Job, are very much closer to the text than are the Tgs of the M^eghilloth. In the Pss, the paraphrase is explanatory rather than simply expansive. Thus in Ps 29 1, "ye sons of the mighty" is rendered "ye companies of angels, ye sons of the mighty." is further from the text, but it also is exegetic; instead of "Jeh is my shepherd, I shall not want," the Tg reads, "The Lord nourished His people in the wilderness so that they lacked nothing." last clause of the last verse of this ps is, "I shall indeed dwell in the house of the holiness of the Lord for the length of days." Another example of exegesis is Ps 46 4, in which the "river whose streams make glad the city of our God" is explained as "the nations as rivers making glad the city of Jeh." Much the same may be said of Job, so Much the same may be said of Job, so examples need not be given.

The Tg of Prov has been very much influenced by

the 1g of 1 roo has been very much innuenced by the Pesh; it may be regarded as a Jewish recension of it. Those of the five M^eghillöth, as they are called, Song of Songs, Ruth, Lam, Eccl, and Est, are excessively paraphrastic. If one compare the space occupied by the text of Cant and Prov, it will

be found that the former occupies about one-sixth of the latter; if the Tgs of the two books are compared in Lagarde's text, the Cant is two-thirds of

Prov. So Lam occupies in the MT less than a quarter the space which Prov occupies; but the Tg of Lam is two-fifths the size of the Tg of Prov.

Ruth has not suffered such a dilatation; in the text it is a fifth, in the Tg a fourth, the size of Prov. The expansion mainly occurs in the first verse in The expansion mainly occurs in the first verse in which ten different famines are described. Eccl in the MT uses about three-eighths of the space occupied by Prov. This is increased to five-sixths in the Tg. There are two Tgs of Est, the first about five-sixths the size of Prov, the second, nearly double. The text is under one-half. We subjoin the Tg of Lam 1 1 from Mr. Greenup's tr: Jeremiah the prophet and high priest said: "How is it degreed against Levis and against her people is it decreed against Jerus and against her people that they should be condemned to exile and that lamentation should be made for them? How? Just as Adam and Eve were condemned who were ejected from the garden of Eden and over whom the Lord of the universe lamented. How? God the judge answers and speaks thus: 'Because of the multitude of the sins which were in the midst of her, therefore she will dwell alone as the man in whose flesh is the plague of leprosy dwells alone! And the city that was full of crowds and many people hath been deserted by them and become like a widow. And she that was exalted among the peoples and powerful among the provinces, to whom they paid tribute, hath been scattered abroad so as to be oppressed and to give tribute to them after this."

This gives a sufficient example of the extent to which expansion can go. Ver 1 of Est in the first Tg informs us that the cessation of the work of building the Temple was due to the advice of Vashti, and that she was the daughter of Evil-merodach, the son of Nebuchadnezzar, and a number of equally accurate pieces of information. Yet more extravagant is the 2d Tg; it begins by asserting that there are ten great monarchs of whom Achhashverosh was the 6th, the Gr and Rom were the 7th and the 8th, Messiah the king the 9th, and the Almighty Himself the 10th. It evidently has no connection with the first Tg. The Tg of Ch, although late, is modeled on the Tgs of Jonathan ben Uzziel. In cases where the narrative of Ch runs parallel with that of S the resemblance is very great, even to verbal identity at times. The differences sometimes are worthy of note, as where in 1 Ch 21 2, instead of "Dan" the Tg has "Pameas" (Paneas), which affords an evidence of the lateness of this Tg. In the rabbinic Bible, Ch appear, as do Ezr, Neh and Dnl, without a parallel Tg.

(4) There is a Tg on the Pent attributed to Jonathan ben Uzziel which is very paraphrastic. Fragments of another closely related Tg have been preserved, known as the Jerus Tg. In fact the two may really be regarded as different recensions of the same Tg. It is supposed that some MS was denominated simply "the targum of J." which, really being the initial representing "Jerusalem," was taken as representing "Jonathan." At the end of each of the books of the Pent it is stated that this Tg is the "targum Yerūshalmi." Of the two the Yerūshalmī is the longer. Both assert that five signs accompanied Jacob in his stay in Haran: the time was shortened; the distance was shortened; the four stones for his pillow became one; his strength was increased so that with his own arm he moved the stone covering the well which it took all the shepherds to move; the water gushed from the well all the days he dwelt in Haran. But the narrative of ben Uzziel is expanded to nearly twice the length in the Yerūshalmī. This Tg may be regarded as to some extent semi-official. garded as to some extent semi-official.

As the Tgs appear to have been committed to writing after the MT was fixed, textual differences and unimportant. 7. Use mentions that in a few cases Onkelos agrees with the Sam against the MT; of the Targums they are, however, few, and possibly may be explained by differences of idiom, though from the slavish way in which Onkelos follows the Heb text this is improbable. The Pal Tg agrees with the Sam and the VSS in adding "Let us go into the field" in Gen 4 8. The main benefit received from the Tgs is the knowledge

of the views of the Jewish rabbis as to the meaning of certain passages. Thus in Gen 49 10 there is no doubt in the mind of the Targumist that "Shiloh" refers to the Messiah. Some other cases have been noted above. The frequency with which the word of the Lord $(m\bar{\imath}m^er\bar{a}'\ y^ey\bar{a}')$ is used in Onkelos as equivalent to Y H W H, as Gen 3 8, "They heard the voice of the word of the Lord God,"

"They heard the voice of the word of the Lord God,"

"mim'ra" dh'y"ya" 'Elohim, requires to be noted

from its bearing on Christian theology. There is
a peculiar usage in Gen 15 1: Y H W H says

to Abraham "Floor and Abraham Theory and Indiana"." to Abraham, "Fear not, Abram, my word $[m\bar{\imath}m^{e}r\bar{a}']$ shall help thee." Pharaoh is represented as using Shall help thee. That and is represented as assigned this periphrasis: "The word of the Lord $[m\bar{\nu}m^{\rho}r\bar{d}]$ your little ones" (Ex 10 10). A striking use of this phrase is to be found in Dt 33 27, where instead of "Underneath are the everlasting arms, we have "By His word the world was made." This is at once seen to resemble the usage of Philo and the apostle John. As the Tgs had not been committed to writing during the lifetime of either of these writers, it might be maintained that the Targumists had been influenced by Philo. This, however, does not follow necessarily, as both apostle and philosopher would have heard the Tg of the Law recited Sabbath after Sabbath from their boyhood, and the phrase $m\bar{\imath}m^*r\bar{a}^i$ $y^ey\bar{a}^i$ would remain in their memory. The Tgs of the pseudo-Jonathan and memory. The Tgs of the pseudo-Jonathan and that of Jerus have a yet more frequent use of the term. Edersheim has counted 176 occurrences of the phrase in Onkelos and 321 in that of the pseudo-Jonathan and in the fragments of the $Y^{e}r\bar{u}shalm\bar{\iota}$ 99. This is made the more striking by the fact that it rarely occurs in the rest of Scripture. In Am 1 2, instead of "Jeh.... will utter his voice from Jerus," we have "From Jerus will He lift up His word" (mēmerīh). The usual equivalent for the prophet's formula "the word of the Lord" is pithgām Y H W H. An example of the usage before us may be found in Ps 56 4.10: "In the righteousness of the judgment of God will I project righteousness of the judgment of God will I praise his word" (mēm rīh). There was thus a preparation for the Christian doctrine of the Trinity imbedded in the most venerated Tg, that of the Law.

in the most venerated Tg, that of the Law.

Literature.—The text of the official Tgs is to be found in every rabbinic Bible. Berliner has published a careful, vocalized edition of Onkelos. The Prophets and the Hagiographa have been edited by Lagarde, but unvocalized. For the language Petermann's grammar in the Porta Linguarum Orientalium is useful. Levy's Chalddisches Wörterbuch is very good. Jastrow's Dict. of the Targumim is invaluable. Brextorf's Lexicon Talmudicum supplies information not easily available elsewhere. The Tgs on the Pent have been trd by Etheridge. There is an extensive lit. on this subject in German. In Eng. the different Bible Dicts. may be consulted, esp. MCClintock, DB, HDB, EB, etc. The art. in Enc Brit is worthy of study, as also naturally that in the Jew Enc.

J. E. H. Thomson

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TARPELITES, tär'pel-īts (אָרַפְּלֵיֵא , tarp'lāyē' [Ezr 4 9]): Various theories have been advanced as to the identity of the Tarpelites. Rawlinson suggested the Tuplai, which name appears in the inscriptions as equivalent to the Gr Τιβαρηνοί, Tibarēnoi, a tribe on the coast of Pontus. Hitzig located them in Tripolis in Northern Phoenicia. The latest theory emends the text to XTOPD, tiphs raya, "tablet-writers" (from the Assyr dup sarru); cf Schrader, COT, on Jer 51 27.

TARSHISH, tär'shish (שֶׁרְשֶׁר, tarshīsh):

(1) Eponym of a Benjamite family (1 Ch 7 10); Paμεσσαl, Rhamessal, A and Luc., Θαρσείς,

(2) One of the "seven princes" at the court of Ahasuerus (Est 1 14 MT).

(3) The Heb name of a precious stone (Ezk 10 9 m, EV "beryl"; Ex 28 20; 39 13; Ezk 1 16;

28 13; Cant 5 14; Dnl 10 6). Sec Stones, Pre-

TARSHISH, NAVY (SHIPS) OF. See Ships and Boats, II, 1, (2).

TARSUS, tär'sus (Ταρσός, Tarsós, ethnic Ταρσεύς,

1. Situation
2. Foundation Legends
3. Tarsus under Oriental Power
4. Tarsus under Greek Sway
5. Tarsus in the Roman Empire
6. The University
7. The Tarsian Constitution
8. Paul of Tarsus
9. Later History
LITERATURE

The chief city of Cilicia, the southeastern portion of Asia Minor. It lay on both banks of the river Cydnus, in the midst of a fertile

1. Situation alluvial plain, some 10 miles from the seacoast. About 6 miles below the city the river broadened out into a considerable lake called Rhegma (Strabo xiv.672), which afforded a safe anchorage and was in great part fringed with quays and dockyards. The river itself, which flowed southward from the Taurus Mountains with a clear and swift stream, was navigable to light craft, and Cleopatra, when she visited Antony at Tarsus in 38 BC, was able to sail in her richly decorated barge into the very heart of the city (Plut. Ant. 26). The silting-up of the river's mouth seems to have resulted in frequent floods, against which the emperor Justinian (527-65 AD) attempted to provide by cutting a new channel, starting a short distance N. of the city, to divert the surplus water into a watercourse which lay to the E. of Tarsus. Gradually, however, the original bed was allowed to become choked, and now the Cydnus flows wholly through Justinian's channel and passes to the E. of the modern town. Two miles N. of Tarsus the plain gives way to low, undulating hills, which extend to the foothills of Taurus, the great mountain chain lying some 30 miles N. of the city, which divides Cilicia from Lycaonia and Cappadocia. The actual frontier-line seems to have varied at different periods, but the natural boundary lies at the Cilician Gates, a narrow gorge which Tarsian enterprise and engineering skill had widened so as to make it a wagon road, the chief highway of com-munication and trade between Cilicia and the interior of Asia Minor and one of the most decisive factors in Anatolian history. Eastward from Tarsus ran an important road crossing the Sarus at Adana and the Pyramus at Mopsuestia; there it divided, one branch running southeastward by way of Issus to Antioch on the Orontes, while another turned slightly northward to Castabala, and thence ran due E. to the passage of the Euphrates at Zeugma. Thus the fertility of its soil, the safety and convenience of its harbor and the command of the main line of communication between Anatolia and Syria or Mesopotamia combined to promote the greatness of Tarsus, though its position was neither a healthful or a strong one and the town had no acropolis.

Of the foundation of the city various traditions were current in antiquity, and it is impossible to arrive at any certain conclusion, for such foundation 2. Foundalegends often reflected the sympathies tion and wishes of a city's later population rather than the historic facts of its origin. Legends At Anchiale, about 12 miles S.E. of Tarsus, tomb of Sardanapalus, king of Assyria, bearing an inscription "in Assyr letters" stating that that monarch "built Anchiale and Tarsus in a single day" (Strabo xiv. 672; Arrian Anab. ii.5). The statement of Alexander Polyhistor, preserved by Eusebius (Chron. i, p. 27, ed Schoene), that Sennacherib, king of Nineveh (705–681 BC), founded the city, also ascribes to it an Assyr origin.

On the other hand, the Greeks had their own traditions, claiming Tarsus as a Gr or semi-Gr foundation. Strabo says that it owed its rise to the Argives who with Triptolemus wandered in search of Io (xiv.673), while others spoke of Heracles or Perseus as the founder. It must be admitted that these tales, taken by themselves, give us little aid.

Ramsay believes that Tarsus existed from time immemorial as a native Cilician settlement, to

3. Tarsus under Oriental Power

which was added, at some early date unknown to us, a body of Ionians, which migrated from the western coast of Asia Minor under the auspices and direction of the oracle of Clarian Apollo near Colophon. The earliest historical

record of the town is found on the Black Obelisk of Shalmaneser, about 850 BC, where it figures among the places captured by that king. It is thus proved that Tarsus already existed at that remote date. For many centuries it remained an oriental rather than a Hellenic city, and its history is almost a blank. After the fall of the Assyr empire, Cilicia may have regained its independence, at least partially, but it subsequently became a province of the Pers empire, paying to the Great King an annual tribute of 360 white horses and 500 talents of silver (Herod. iii.90) and contributing considerable fleets, when required, to the Pers navy. From time to time we hear of rulers named Syennesis, who appear to have been vassal princes in a greater or less degree of dependence upon the oriental empires. Two clear glimpses of the city are afforded us, thanks to the passage through it of Hellenic troops engaged upon eastern expeditions. Xenophon (Anab. i.2, 21 ff) tells how, in 401 BC, Cyrus the Younger entered Cilicia on his famous march against his brother Artaxerxes, and how some of his Gr mercenaries plundered Tarsus, which is described as a great and prosperous city, in which was the palace of King Syennesis. The king made an agreement with Cyrus, who, after a delay of 20 days, caused by the refusal of his troops to march farther, set out from Tarsus for the Euphrates. Again, in 333 BC, Alexander the Great passed through the Cilician Gates on his way to Issus, where he met and routed the Pers army under Darius III. Arsames, the satrap of Cilicia, failed to post a sufficient force at the pass, the garrison fled without resistance and Alexander thus entered the province without striking a blow. The Persians thereupon set fire to Tarsus, but the timely arrival of the Macedonian advance guard under Parmenio saved the city from destruction.

A bath in the cold waters of the Cydnus which Alexander took while heated with his rapid advance brought on a fever which all but cost him his life (Arrian Anab. ii.4; Q. Curtius Hist. Alex. iii.4f). For two centuries Tarsus had been the capital of a Pers satrapy, subject to oriental rather than to Hellenic influence, though there was probably a Hellenic element in its population, and its trade brought it into touch with the Greeks. The Cilician coins struck at Tarsus confirm this view. Down to Alexander's conquest, they ordinarily bear Aram. legends, and many of them show the effigy of Baal Tarz, the Lord of Tarsus; yet these coins are clearly influenced by Gr types and workmanship.

Alexander's overthrow of the Pers power brought about a strong Hellenic reaction in Southeastern Asia Minor and must have strength-

ened the Gr element in Tarsus, but 4. Tarsus more than a century and a half were under to elapse before the city attained that Greek

Sway civic autonomy which was the ideal and the boast of the Gr pólis. After Alexander's death in 323 BC his vast empire was soon dismembered by the rivalries and wars of his powerful generals. Cilicia ultimately fell under the rule of the Seleucid kings of Syria, whose capital was Antioch on the Orontes. Though Greeks, they inherited certain features of the old Pers policy and methods of rule; Cilicia was probably governed by a satrap, and there was no development within



Coin of Tarsus.

it of free city life. Early in the 2d cent., however, came a change. Antiochus III, defeated by the Romans in the battle of Magnesia (190 BC), was forced to evacuate most of his possessions in Asia Minor. Cilicia thus became a frontier province and gained greatly in importance. The outcome was the reorganization of Tarsus as an autonomous city with a coinage of its own, which took place under Antiochus IV Epiphanes (175–164), probably in 171 BC. It is at this time that Tarsus is first mentioned in the Bible, unless we are to accept the disputed identification with Tarshish (q.v.). In 2 Macc 4 30 f we read that, about 171 BC, "it came to pass that they of Tarsus and Mallus made insurrection, because they were to be given as a present to Antiochis, the king's concubine. king therefore came to Cilicia in all haste to settle matters." That this settlement took the form of a compromise and the grant to Tarsus of at least a municipal independence we may infer from the fact that Tarsus struck its own coins from this reign onward. At first they bear the name of Antioch on the Cydnus, but from the death of Antiochus this new appellation falls into disuse and the old name reasserts itself. But it is almost certain that, in accordance with Seleucid policy, this reorganization was accompanied by the enlargement of the citizen body, the new citizens in this case consisting probably of Jews and Argive Greeks. From this time Tarsus is a city of Hellenic constitution, and its coins no longer bear Aram, but Gr Yet it must be remembered that there legends. was still a large, perhaps a preponderating, native and oriental element in the population, while the coin types in many cases point to the continued popularity of non-Hellenic cults.

About 104 BC part of Cilicia became a Rom

province, and after the Mithridatic Wars, during which Tarsus fell temporarily into the

5. Tarsus in the Roman **Empire**

hands of Tigranes of Armenia, Pompey the Great reorganized the eastern portion of the Rom Empire (64-63 BC), and Tarsus became the capital of a new and enlarged province, administered by Rom governors who usually held office for a single year. Thus we find Cicero in command of Cilicia from the summer of 51 BC to the summer of the following year, and though he expressly mentions Tarsus only rarely in his extant letters of this period (e.g. Ad Att. v.20.3; Ad Fam. ii.17.1), yet there is reason to believe that he resided there during part of his year of office. Julius Caesar passed through the city in 47 BC on his march from Egypt to Pontus, and was enthusiastically received. In his honor the name Tarsus was changed to Juliopolis, but this proved no more lasting than

Antioch on the Cydnus had been. Cassius tempo-

rarily overawed it and imposed on it a crushing fine, but, after the overthrow of the republican cause at Philippi and the assignment of the East to Antony's administration, Tarsus received the position of an independent and duty-free state (civilas libera et immunis) and became for some time Antony's place of residence. This privileged status was confirmed by Augustus after the victory of Actium had made him sole master of the Rom Empire (31 BC). It did not by itself bestow Rom citizenship on the Tarsians, but doubtless there were many natives of the city to whom Pompey, Caesar, Antony and Augustus granted that honor for themselves and, as a consequence, for their descendants.

It is under the rule of Augustus that our knowledge of Tarsus first becomes fairly full and precise. Strabo, writing about 19 AD, tells us (xiv.673 ff) of the enthusiasm of its 6. The University inhabitants for learning, and esp. for philosophy. In this respect, he says, Tarsus surpasses Athens and Alexandria and every other university town. It was characterized by the fact that the student body was composed almost entirely of natives, who, after finishing their course, usually went abroad to complete their education and in most cases did not return home, whereas in most universities the students were to a large extent foreigners, and the natives showed no great love of learning. Alexandria, however, formed an exception, attracting a large number of foreign students and also sending out many of its younger citizens to other centers. In fact, adds Strabo, Rome is full of Tarsians and Alexandrians. Among the famous men who learned or taught at Tarsus, we hear of the Stoics Antipater, Archedemus, Nestor, Athenodorus surnamed Cordylion, the friend and companion of the younger Marcus Cato, and his more famous namesake (called Cananites after the village of his birth), who was the tutor and confidant of Augustus, and who subsequently reformed the Tarsian constitution. Other philosophers of Tarsus were Nestor, a representative of the Academy, and tutor of Marcellus, Augustus' nephew and destined successor, and of Tiberius, Plutiades and Diogenes; the latter was also famous as an improvisatore, and indeed the Tarsians in general were famed for their ease and fluency in impromptu speaking. Artemidorus and Diodorus the grammarians and Dionysides the tragic poet, a member of the group of seven writers known as "the Pleiad," complete Strabo's list of eminent Tarsians. A less attractive view of the life in Tarsus is given by Philostratus in his biography of Apollonius of Tyana, who went there to study in the early part of Tiberius' reign (14-37 AD). So disgusted was he by the insolence of the citizens, their love of pleasure and their extravagance in dress, that he shook the dust of Tarsus off his feet and went to Aegae to pursue his studies in a more congenial atmosphere (Vit. Apollon. i.7). But Strabo's testimony is that of a contemporary and an accurate historian and must outweigh that of Philostratus, whose work is largely tinged with romance and belongs to the early years of the 3d cent. AD.

Strabo also tells us something of an important constitutional reform carried out in Tarsus under the Emperor Augustus, probably about 7. The 15-10 BC. Athenodorus Cananites, Tarsian the Stoic, returned to his city as an Constitution old man, after some 30 years spent at Rome, armed with authority from the emperor to reform abuses in its civic life. He found the constitution a democracy, swayed and preyed upon by a corrupt clique headed by a certain Boethus, "bad poet and bad citizen," who owed

his position partly to his ready and persuasive

tongue, partly to the favor of Antony, whom he had pleased by a poem composed to celebrate the victory of Philippi. Athenodorus sought at first to mend matters by argument and persuasion, but, finding Boethus and his party obdurate, he at length exercised his extraordinary powers, banished the offenders and remodeled the constitution, probably in a timocratic mold, restricting the full citizenship to those possessed of a considerable property qualification. On his death, his place as head of the state was taken for a while by the academic philosopher Nestor (Strabo xiv.674 f). Next to Strabo's account our most valuable source of information regarding Tarsus is to be found in the two orations of Dio Chrysostom addressed to the Tarsians about 110 AD (Orat. xxxiii, xxxii; see Jour. Hell. Studies, XXIV, 58 ff). Though admitting that the city was an Argive colony, he emphasized its non-Hellenic character, and, while criticizing much in its institutions and manners, found but a single feature to commend, the strictness with which the Tarsian women were veiled whenever they appeared in public. Such was Tarsus, in which Paul was born (Acts 22 3) and of which he was a citizen (Acts 9 11;

21 39). Its ancient traditions and its present greatness explain and justify the pride with which he claimed 8. Paul of Tarsus to be "a citizen of no mean city" (Acts 21 39). It is probable that his forefathers had been among the Jews settled at Tarsus by Antiochus Epiphanes, who, without sacrificing nationality or religion, became citizens of a community organized after the Gr model. On what occasion and for what service Rom civitas had been conferred on one of Paul's ancestors we cannot this only we know, that before his birth his father had possessed the coveted privilege (Acts 22 28). It is a fascinating, but an elusive, quest to trace in Paul's life and writings the influence of his Tarsian ancestry, birth and early life. Jerome, it is true, claims that many Pauline words and phrases were characteristic of Cilicia, and some modern scholars profess to find traces, in the apostle's rhetoric and in his attitude toward pagan religion and secular learning, of Tarsian influence. But such speculations are likely to be misleading, and it is perhaps best to admit that, save in the trade learned by Paul, which was characteristic of his birthplace, we cannot with any precision gauge the effects of his early surroundings. At the same time it is certain that the character of his native city, its strong oriental element, its Gr constitution and speech, its position in the Rom Empire, its devotion to learning, must have made an impression upon one who, uniting Jewish nationality with membership of a Gr state and Rom citizenship, was to be the great interpreter to the Graeco-Rom world of a religion which sprang from the soil of Judaism. How long Paul remained at Tarsus before beginning his studies in Jerus we cannot say. His own declaration that he was "born in Tarsus of Cilicia, but brought up in this city" (Acts 22 3) seems to show that his training at Jerus began at an early age, and is inconsistent with the supposition that he was one of those Tarsian students who, after studying at their native university, completed their education abroad. During his first visit to Jerus after his conversion, plots were formed against his life, and he was induced to return to Tarsus (Acts 9 30), where, according to Ramsay's chronology, he remained for some 8 years. Thither Barnabas went to seek him when he felt the need of a helper in dealing with the new problems involved in the growth of the Antiochene church and the admission into it of Gentiles in considerable numbers (Acts 11 25). Tarsus is not again mentioned in the NT,

but Paul doubtless revisited it on his second missionary journey, when he "went through Syria and Cilicia" (Acts 15 41), and traveled thence by way of the Cilician Gates into Lycaonia, and again at the beginning of his third journey when, after some time spent at Antioch, "he departed, and went through the region of Galatia, and Phrygia, in order" (Acts 18 23).

through the region of Galatia, and Phrygia, in order" (Acts 18 23).

This is not the place to discuss in detail the later history of Tarsus, many passages of which are obscure and difficult. It remained a focus of imperial loyalty, as is indicated by the names Hadriane, Commodiane, Severiane and others, which appear, isolated or conjoined, upon its coins, together with the title of metropolis and such epithets as "first," "greatest," "fairest." Indeed it was chiefly in the matter of such distinctions that it carried on a keen, and sometimes bitter, rivalry, first with Mallus and Adana, its neighbors in the western plain, and later with Anazarbus, the chief town of Eastern Cilicia. But Tarsus remained the capital of the district, which during the 1st cent. of the empire was united with Syria in a single imperial province, and when Cilicia was made a separate province Tarsus, as a matter of course, became its metropolis and the center of the provincial Caesar-worship, and, at a later date, the capital of "the three eparchiae," Cilicia, Isauria and Lycaonia. Toward the close of the 4th cent. Cilicia was captured by them Arabs, and for the next three centuries was occupied by them as their northwestern capital and base of operations against the Anatolian plateau and the Byzantine empire. In 965 it was recaptured, together with the rest of Cilicia, by the emperor Nicephorus Phocas, but toward the close of the following century it fell into the hands of the Turks and afterward of the Crusaders. It was subsequently ruled by Armenian princes as part of the kingdom of Lesser Armenia, and then by the Memluk sultans of Egypt, from whom it was finally wrested by the Ottoman Turks early in the 16th cent. The modern town, which still bears the ancient name in the slightly modified form Tersois, has a very mixed population, numbering about 25,000, and considerable trade, but suffers from its unhealthful situation and the proximity of large marshy tracts. Few traces of its ancient greatness survive, the most considerable of th

M. N. Tod TARTAK, tär'tak (פְּלְּחָלָּה): In 2 K 17 31 mentioned as the name of an idol of the Avvites, one of the peoples sent by Shalmaneser to the cities It is otherwise unknown. of Samaria.

TARTAN, tär'tan (TATA, tartān): For a long time the word was interpreted as a proper name, but the Assyr inscriptions have shown it to be the title of a high official. From the eponym lists it would seem that it was the title of the highest official next to the king, which in a military empire like Assyria would be the "commander-in-chief." The Assyr form of the name is tartanu or turtanu. In both OT passages the reference is to a military officer. In Isa 20 1 it is used of the officer sent by Sargon, king of Assyria, against Ashdod; according to 2 K 18 17, Sennacherib sent Tartan and Rabsaris (q.v.) and Rabshakeh (q.v.) with a great host against Jerus. The names of the two F. C. EISELEN officials are not known.

TASKMASTER, task'mas-ter (שוֹר מֵים , sar maş, "chief of the burden" or "levy" [Ex 1 11]; """, nōghēs, "distress," "driver," "oppressor," "raiser of taxes," "taskmaster" [Ex 3 7; 5 6.10.13.14]): Officials of this class seem to have been officially

appointed by Pharaoh for the purpose of oppressing the Israelites and subduing their spirits, lest they seek complete independence or organize a rebellion against the government (Ex 1 11). The condition of the Israelites at this time became one of complete vassalage or slavery, probably owing to the fact that the Hyksos were driven out and a new dynasty was established, which knew nothing of Joseph and his people. FRANK E. HIRSCH

TASSEL, tas"l (T\,\times, \(\varphi\); This word occurs only in Nu 15 38 (RVm), which reads "tassels in the corners" for "fringes in the borders of their garments" (AV).

It is probable that the dress of the Palestinian peasant has undergone little change in the centuries since the occupation of the land by the Hebrews. His outer garment, worn for protection against cold and rain, is the *simlāh* of Ex 22 26, now known as 'abâyah by the Arabs. It is a square cloak, with unsewn spaces for armholes, and is composed of either three or four widths of woven stuff. The outer strips of the stuff, folded back and sewn at the upper edges, form shoulder-straps. It was to such a garment as this that the injunctions of Nu 15 37-41 and of Dt 22 12 applied. See FRINGES.

W. SHAW CALDECOTT

TASTE, tāst (Heb ログロ, ta'am, "the sense of taste," "perception," from ログロ, tā'am, "to taste," "to perceive"; Aram. ログロ, te'ēm, "flavor," "taste" [of a thing]; Heb 河口, hēkh, "palate," "roof of the mouth" = "taste"; γεύομαι, getomai; noun γεύσις, getisis; in 2 Macc 7 1 the vb. is ἐφάπτομαι, epháp-

(1) Literal: (a) Gustation, to try by the tongue: "The taste $[ta^{\prime}am]$ of it [manna] was like wafers made with honey" (Ex **16** 31); "Doth not the ear try words, even as the palate $[h\bar{e}kh]$ tasteth $[t\bar{a}^{\prime}am]$ its food?" (Job **12** 11); "Belshazzar, while he tasted [lit, "at the taste of," $[t^{\circ}\bar{e}m]$ the wine, commanded to bring the golden and silver vessels which Nebuchadnezzar his father had taken out of the temple which was in Jerus; that the king and his lords, which was in Jerus, that the king and his force, his wives and his concubines, might drink therefrom" (Dnl 5 2). (b) "To sample," "to eat but a small morsel": "I did certainly taste $[!\bar{a}$ 'am] a little honey with the end of the rod that was in my hand; and, lo, I must die" (1 S 14 43).

hand; and, lo, 1 must die" (1 S 14 43).

(2) Figurative: "To experience," "to perceive": "Oh taste and see that Jeh is good" (Ps 34 8; f1 Pet 2 3); "How sweet are thy words unto my taste!" (m "palate," hēkh) (Ps 119 103); "That by the grace of God he should taste of death for every man" (He 2 9); "For as touching those who were once enlightened and tasted of the heavenly were made partakers of the Holy Spirit gift, and were made partakers of the Holy Spirit, and tasted the good word of God, and the powers of the age to come H. L. E. LUERING LETTERNAL total Philosophics of the second statement of the secon

TATTENAI, tat'e-nī ("TPF), tatt'nay, various forms in LXX; AV Tatnai, tat'nī, tat'nā-ī): A Pers governor, who was the successor of Rehum in Samaria and some other provinces belonging to Judah, bordering on Samaria. He governed the provinces during the reign of Darius Hystaspis and Zerubbabel (Ezr 5 3.6; 6 6.13). He was friendly to the Jews, and when he heard adverse reports from Jerus he suspended judgment till he had investigated the matter on the ground, and then reported to the Pers government in a very moderate manner. In 1 Esd 6 3.7.27; 7 1 he is called "Sisinnes.

S. L. Umbach
TATTLER, tat'ler: Only in 1 Tim 5 13 for
φλύαρος, phlúaros. A "silly talker," rather than
a "revealer of secrets," is meant.

TĀV, tāv. See TAW.

TAVERNS, tav'ernz, THREE:

Three Taverns (Lat Tres Tabernae, Gr transliterates treis tabérnai; Cicero Ad Att. i.13; ii.12, 13) was a station on the Appian Road at the 33d milestone (30\frac{1}{3} Eng. miles from Rome), according to the Itineraries of the Rom Empire (Itin. Ant. vii; Tab. Peut.; Geogr. Rav. iv.34), a converging point of traffic at the crossing of a road from Antium Tripontium, 6 miles down the Appian Road in the direction of Appli Forum, was reckoned as the point where the highway entered the region of the Pontine marshes, the most notable natural feature of this part of Italy.

Parties of the Christian brethren in Rome went out to greet the apostle Paul when news was brought that he had arrived at Puteoli, one group proceeding as far as Appii Forum, while another awaited his coming at Three Taverns (Acts 28 GEORGE H. ALLEN

TAW, täu (n, t, n, th): The 22d letter of the Heb alphabet; transliterated in this Encyclopaedia with the daghesh as t, and as th without. It came also to be used for the number 400. For name, etc, see Alphabet; see also Forehead; Mark.

TAX, taks, TAXING, taks'ing:

Introduction
1. General Considerations
2. Limits of the Discussion

TAXES IN ISRAEL UNDER SELF-GOVERNMENT
1. In the Earliest Period
2. Under the Theocracy; in the Period of the Judges
3. Under the Kings

3. Under the Kings
Taxes In Israel under Conquerors
1. Under the Assyrians and Babylonians
2. Under the Persians
3. Under the Ptolemies and Seleucid Kings
4. Under the Romans

I. Introduction.—Taxation, in the sense of regular, graduated imposts levied by authority upon wealth, whether in the form of flocks

1. General and herds, tilled lands or accumulated treasure, is a comparatively late product of social evolution. The beginnings of Considerof social evolution. ations this trouble-breeding institution are, ery ancient. If in the beginning all

of course, very ancient. wealth was common wealth, all property vested in the family or tribe, making any kind of levies unnecessary, with the rise of individualism, the prorata setting aside, for common uses, of certain possessions held as private property by individuals, which is the essence of taxation, is inevitable. With the advent of more advanced civilization, by which is meant fixed residence, systematic use and cultivation of defined and limited territory, established political organization centering in rulers of one kind or another, regular taxation must necessarily have begun. Throughout history the burden of taxation has kept pace with the elaboration of the machinery of government; kings, courts, ceremonials, legislative and judicial administration, wars, diplomacy-all these institutions spell expense and, consequently, taxation. In a very real sense, the history of taxation is the history of civili-

In following the history of taxation in the Bible, two lines of development are to be noted: Israel's

internal history when left to herself, and her experiences as tributary to 2. Limits These two of the successive conquerors. lines of experience form the main Discussion divisions of this article. We shall con-

fine ourselves so far as possible to the civil aspects of the subject, leaving for others those interesting problems of taxation connected with the origin and development of the priestly legislation. See TITHE, etc.

II. Taxes in Israel under Self-Government. the first glimpses of the ancestors of the Heb people given us in the Bible, no such institution as taxation appears.

Like all primitive communities, the nomadic Hebrews

Like all primitive communities, the nomadic Hebrews had no regular system of taxation nor use for any. Volutary presents were given by the less to the more powerful in return for protection or other advantages. These are really ominous words, for even as late as the United Kingdom, when, of a certainty, the voluntary element had long since gone out, the royal income was spoken of, with perhaps unconscious irony, as "presents" (1 S 10 27; 1 K 4 21; 10 25). One great taproot of the whole after-development of systematic taxation is to be found in this primitive custom of giving presents (Gen 32 13-21; 33 10; 43 11). The transition is so fatally easy from presents voluntarily given to those which are expected and finally to those which are demanded (2 K 16 8; cf 17 4, where AV has "presents").

The first evidence of what corresponds to compulsory taxation discoverable in the Bible is in connection with the conquered Canaanites who were compelled to serve under tribute, that is, to render forced labor (Josh 16 10; 17 13; Jgs 1 28-35). In the early custom of making presents to the powerful and in the exactions laid upon conquered peoples, with the necessary public expense of community life as the natural basis, we have the main sources of what grew to be institutional tax-

The only fixed impost under the theocracy which has a semi-civil character was the so-called "atonement money" (Ex 30 11-16), really a

poll-tax amounting to a half-shekel Under for each enrolled male member of the the Theoccommunity above 20 years of age. racy and The proceeds of this tax were to be Judges used for the service of the Tent of

Meeting (see Tabernacle). It seems to have been levied by the authorities and accepted by the people whenever faithfulness to the ordinances of Jeh was the order of the day (2 Ch 24 4-14; Neh 10 32; note here the emphasis laid upon the offering as voluntary, and the variation in amount from one-half to one-third shekel). In later times this tax was devoted to the service of the temple, and was paid by Jews at a distance during the Dispersion. Jos speaks of the large amounts accruing to the temple-treasury from this source (Ant, XIV, vii, 2). It was still collected as the distinctive temple-tax levied upon the citizen as such (Mt 17 24). It is interesting to note that Jesus paid it under protest and with one of the most distinctive of His miracles, on the ground of His being the founder and head of a new temple, and hence not subject to the impost which was the badge of citizenship in the old order.

The period of the Judges was too disorganized and chaotic to exhibit many of the characteristics of a settled mode of procedure. As far as we know the only source of public moneys was the giving of presents. If the action of Gideon (Jgs 8 24) is to be taken as indicating the ordinary policy of the period, the judges received nothing more than a share of the spoil taken in battle. The account emphasizes, evidently with purpose, the fact that Gideon proffers a request (ver 24), and that the people respond freely and gladly.

As was to be expected, taxation assumes far greater prominence the moment we cross the threshold of the kingdom. 1 S 8 10-18 is

equally significant for our purpose 3. Under the Kings whether it was, as appears on the face of the narrative, the actual words of warning uttered by Samuel in view of the wellknown attitude of kings in general, or a later recension from the viewpoint of experience. In either case, the passage gives us a fairly exhaustive list of royal prerogatives. Aside from various forms

of public and private service, the king would take (note the word) the best of the vineyards, etc, together with a tenth of the seed and of the flocks. The underlying principle, suggested by Samuel's summary and fully exemplified in the actions of Israel's kings, is that the king would take what he needed for his public and private needs from the strength and substance of his people. Constitu-tional laws regulating the expenditure of public funds and the amount of exactions from the people in taxation seem never to have been contemplated in these early monarchies. The king took what he could get; the people gave what they could not hold back. The long battle for constitutional rights has centered from the beginning about the matter of taxation.

rights has centered from the beginning about the matter of taxation.

In 1 8 10 27 (cf 2 Ch 17 5) the case cited of worthless fellows who brought Saul no present clearly shows that fealty to the new king was expressed in the giving of presents. The refusal to make these so-called presents was an act of constructive treason, so interpreted by the writer, who mentions Saul's silence in the premises as something notable. It is evident that the word "present" has become euphemistic. In 1 8 17 25 exemption from taxation is specifically mentioned, together with wealth and marriage into the royal family, as one element in the reward to be obtained for ridding Israel of the menace of Goliath.

In David's time an unbroken series of victories in war so enriched the public treasury (see 2 8 8 2.7.8) that we hear little of complaints of excessive taxation. If David's census was for fiscal purposes (24 2), we can understand why he was so severely dealt with for it, but the matter is still obscure. David's habit of dedicating spoil to Jeh (8 10-12) kept the sacred treasury well supplied. Solomon undoubtedly inherited David's scale of public expense (1 Ch 27 25-31) and added to it through his well-developed love of luxury and power. At the same time the cessation of war made the development of internal resources for carrying on his ambitious schemes imperative. The boundaries of his kingdom are specified (1 K 4 21 [Heb 5 1]) together with the amount of his income (1 K 10 14.28; cf 2 K 3 4). It is also stated that other kingdoms paid tribute to him. His system of fiscal administration was very thoroughly organized. He put the whole country under twelve officers (to specify one feature) whose business it was to provide, by months, provisions for the court (1 K 4 7-19). Under Solomon also, for the first time, so far as we know, Israelites were compelled to render forced labor (1 K 5 13-17). By the end of his reign the burden of taxation had become so severe that in the public address made to Rehoboam the people demanded a lighte

III. Israel under Conquerors.—During the reign of Menahem, who succeeded Jeroboam II as king of Israel, the Assyr invasion under Tiglath-pileser III (Bib. "Pul," 2 K 15 19) began. The one act of Mena-1. Assyria and hem (aside from his general sinfulness) which is specified in 2 K 15 17–22, Babylonia the remainder of his unedifying career being left to the Chronicles of the kings of Israel, is that he bought off the Assyr conqueror by a tribute of a thousand talents which he obtained by mulcting men of wealth in his kingdom to the extent of fifty talents each. A little later, Ahaz of Judah sent a present to the same ruler. He took the novel method of robbing the temple-treasury and adding

the sum thus gained to the accumulations at hand in the royal treasury. Both these kings were somewhat original in their methods. Hoshea of Israel,

a contemporary of Ahaz, was reduced to tribute;

later, upon his neglect to pay, he was put in prison (2 K 17 4). A little later still, Jehoahaz, the son of Josiah, was deposed by Pharach-necoh, who placed a tribute upon the land of a hundred talents of silver and one of gold (2 K 23 31–33). Jehoiakim, the puppet king, raised this tribute by a special tax upon the people (vs 34.35). This latter passage is especially interesting because it seems to indicate (vs 35 f) a graduated system of taxation supposedly honored more often in the breach than in the observance. This same unfortunate Jehoiakim came under the heavy hand of Nebuchadnezzar (2 K 24 1-7). This latter ruler seems not to have levied a special tribute, at least it is not mentioned; but reimbursed himself for the expenses of conquest by carrying away to Babylon the vessels of the temple (2 Ch 36 7).

In Ezr 4 13, a part of a letter addressed to Artaxerxes by officials "west of the river" (see whole passage vs 7-24) who were hostile to the Jews, it is charged that in the 2. Under

the Persians event of rebuilding the city the in-habitants would not pay "tribute, custom, or toll." These three words, which are evidently combined in a formula and indicate three distinct classes of taxes, are interesting as being characteristic of the Pers period.

The three words are: (1) אָלָה, middāh ="tribute" (Ezr 4 13.20; cf Neh 5 4, where the expression is "king's tribute"); (2) גָּלָל, $b^el\delta$ =according to Gesenius s.v.: "tax on articles consumed" or "excise" (HDB "impost") (Ezr 4 13.20; 7 24); (3) 77, hālākh = "roadtoll" or "custom tax" (Ezr 4 13.20; 7 24). These Assyr words are to be contrasted with the words used elsewhere: (1) 572, mas = "forced labor" (1 K 5 13 [Heb 5 27]; cf ut sup. Josh 16 10; 17 13; Jgs 1 28. 30.33.35; Dt 20 11; Est 10 1); (2) אַשָּׁאָ , massā' = "burden" (2 Ch 17 11); (3) מֶלֶכֶּס , mekhes = "measure," used of tribute exacted for Jeh, taken from people, cattle, and spoil, etc (Nu 31 25-31). From this enumeration and comparison it will be seen that the Heb had no general word corresponding to the Eng. word "tax."

To return to the situation in the Pers period, it is evident that the Pers rulers exacted practically the same classified tributes, direct and indirect, that are found elsewhere. It is recorded that Artaxerxes, in response to the letter of his officers in Pal (Ezr 4 21), stopped the work of the rebuilding of Jerus in anticipation of the refusal of the Jewish leaders to pay taxes. The work was resumed in the 2d year of Darius under the protection of a royal decree which gave to the Jewish authorities a sufficient amount from the "tribute beyond the river" to finish without delay.

Artaxerxes, in addition to his generous gifts. exempted the priests and temple-servants from all taxation (Ezr 7 24). In the days of Nehemiah a serious condition arose. The king's tribute was so heavy that the Jewish common people were compelled to borrow money upon mortgages, and in so doing fell into the hands of usurers of their own people, by whom they were so impoverished as to be compelled to sell their sons and daughters into slavery (Neh 5 1-13). In addition to the royal tribute, they were forced to support the governors who were entitled to bread, wine and forty shekels of silver annually (vs 14.15). In the prayer of-fered on the fast day (Neh 9) it was asserted that their burdens of taxation were so heavy that they were servants in their own land (vs 36.37)

The Ptolemies, who practically controlled Pal from 301 to 218 BC, do not appear to have been excessive in their demands for tribute (twenty talents for Jews [Ant, XII, iv, 1] seems no great amount), but the custom which they introduced, or at least established, of farming the taxes to the highest bidder, introduced a principle which pre-

vailed through all the subsequent history and was the cause of much popular suffering and discontent.

The story of Joseph, the Jewish taxcollector (Ant, XII, iv, 1-5), who was
the Ptoleice and for Pal under Ptolemy Euergetes,
eleucid and the cause of "a long train of
disasters," is peculiarly significant for
the student of the NT.

The conquest of Pal by Antiochus the Great 3. Under the Ptolemies and Seleucid Kings

(202 BC) brought a certain amount of relief to the "storm-tossed" (Jos) Jews of Pal, as of old the (Jos) Jews of Pal, as of old the buffer state between contending powers. According to Jos (Ant, XII, iii, 3), Antiochus gave the Jews generous gifts in money, remitted their taxes for three years, and permanently reduced them onethird (see Kent's discussion of the credibility of these statements, *Historical Series for Bible Students*, Bab, Pers, Gr Periods, 296).

That the Seleucid kings were particularly severe in their exactions is clearly shown in the letter of Demetrius to the Jews, whose favor he was seeking in rivalry with Alexander Balas of Smyrna, the pretender to the Seleucid throne (see 1 Macc 10 26-30; 11 34.35; 13 39; cf 11 28).

In this quoted letter Demetrius promises the following exemptions: from (1) "tributes" (φόροι, phόrοι = "polltaxes"); (2) tax on salt; (3) crown taxes (στέφανοι, stėphanoi = "crowns of gold" or their equivalents); (4) the tribute of one-third of the seed; (5) another of one-half of the fruit of the trees (10 29.30). This seems almost incredibly severe, but evidence is not lacking of its probability (Lange's Comm. Apoc, ed 1901, 525). With Seleucus IV (187–176 BC) the Jews felt for the first time, indirectly but powerfully, the pressure of Rome. This disreputable ruler had to pay tribute to Rome as well as to find means whereby to gratify his own passion for luxury, and was correspondingly rapacious in the treatment of his subjects (2 Macc 3).

During the early part of the Herodian epoch, taxes were paid to the king and collected by officers appointed by him. This method 4. Under which worked fairly well, at least the Romans under Herod the Great, had passed away before any books of the NT were After the deposition of Archelaus (6 AD), at the request of the Jews themselves, Judaea was incorporated into the Rom empire and put under procurators who were in charge of all financial administration, although the tetrarchs still collected the internal taxes. This fact conditions all that is to be said about "tribute" and "publicans" in connection with the NT. It is to be noted first of all (a fact that is often overlooked by the student) that in the imperial era the direct taxes were not farmed out, but collected by regular imperial officers in the regular routine of official duty. The customs or tolls levied upon exports and imports, and upon goods in the hands of merchants passing through the country, were sold to the highest bidders, who were called "publicans."

Bidders, who were called "publicans."

With this distinction clearly in mind we may dismiss the subject of general taxation with the following remarks: First, that the taxes in Judaea went to the imperial treasury (Mt 22 17; Mk 12 14; Lk 20 22); second, that these taxes were very heavy. These two facts explain why the question of paying tribute to Caesar, which Our Lord was obliged to meet, was so burning an issue. It touched at once religious and financial interest—a powerful combination. In 7 AD, immediately after the appointment of Coponius as procurator, Quirinius (see Quirinius, NT Chronology, etc) was sent to Judaea to take a census (ἐπογραφη, αροσγαμέ) for the purpose of a poll-tax (κῆνσος, ἐἐπικεφάλαιον, εριἐκερhαlαίοπ (Mt 22 17; Mk 12 13.14; Lk 20 20 ffl). This census was the occasion for the bloody uprising of Judas of Gamala (or Galilee) (Acts δ 37; cf Ant, XVIII, i, 1, 6). As a matter of historical fact this same census was the occasion of the final destruction of the Jewish commonwealth, for the fierce antagonism to Rome which was aroused at that time never died out until it was extinguished in blood, 70 AD.

We are now free to discuss those matters which

We are now free to discuss those matters which

center in a general way about the term "publican." According to Stapfer (PTC, 215) this term (τελώνης, telonēs) is commonly used to cover several grades of minor officials engaged in the customs service. The word was extended in meaning from the publicanus, properly so called, the farmergeneral of a province, to his subordinate local officials. The publicans of the NT "examined the goods and collected tolls on roads and bridges' (Stapfer, op. cit., 216; cf Mt 9 9). These tolls (Lat portoria; Gr τέλη, télē) were collected in Pal at Caesarea, Capernaum and Jericho (Jos, BJ, II, xiv, 4). Those collected at Capernaum went into the treasury of Herod Antipas. At Jericho there was a chief publican (ἀρχιτελώνης, architelônēs), but most of the publicans mentioned in the NT were probably subordinate to men higher in authority.

Sufficient cause for the unpopularity of publicans in NT times is not far to seek. Hatred of paying duties seems to be ingrained in human nature. Customs officials are always unpopular. The method is necessarily inquisitorial. The man who opens one's boxes and bundles to appraise the value of what one has, is at best a tolerated evil. In Judaea, under the Rom system, all circumstances combined to make the publican the object of bitter hatred. He represented and exercised in immediate contact, at a sore spot with individuals, the hated power of Rome. The tax itself was looked upon as an inherent religious wrong, as well as civil imposition, and by many the payment of it was considered a sinful act of disloyalty to God. The taxgatherer, if a Jew, was a renegade in the eyes of his patriotic fellows. He paid a fixed sum for the taxes, and received for himself what he could over and above that amount. The ancient and widespread curse of arbitrariness was in the system. tariff rates were vague and indefinite (see Schürer, *HJP*, I, ii, 67 f). The collector was thus always under the suspicion of being an extortioner and probably was in most instances. The name was apt to realize itself. The usual combination in a publican of petty tyrant, renegade and extortioner, made by circumstances almost inevitable, was not conducive to popularity. In the score of instances in the NT where publicans are mentioned, their common status, their place in the thought and action of Jesus, their new hope in the gospel are clearly set forth. The instances in which Our Lord speaks of them are especially illuminating: (1) He uses them on the basis of the popular estimate which the disciples undoubtedly shared, to point in genial irony a reproach addressed to His hearers for their low standard of love and forgiveness (Mt 5 46.47). (2) He uses the term in the current combination in giving directions about excommunicating a persistently unrepentant member of the church (Mt 18 17). (3) He uses the term in the popular sense in describing the current condemnation of His attitude of social fellowship with them, and constructively accepts the title of "friend of publicans and sinners" (Mt 11 19; Lk 7 34). (4) Most significant of all, Jesus uses the publican, as He did the Samaritan, in a parable in which the despised outcast shows to advantage in an attitude acceptable to God (Lk 18 9 ff).

This parable is reinforced by the statement, made more than once by Our Lord, that the readiness to repent shown by the publicans and other outcasts usually found with them was more promising of salvation than the spiritual pride shown by some who were satisfied with themselves (Lk 3 12; cf 7 29; Mt 21 31.32; Lk 15 1). The choice of Levi as a disciple (Mt 10 3, etc) and the conversion of Zacchaeus (Lk 19 81), of whom Jesus speaks so beautifully as a son of Abraham (ver 9), justified the characteristic attitude which Our Lord adopted toward this despised class, about equally guilty and unfortunate. He did not condone their faults or crimes; neither did He accept the popular verdict that pronounced them unfit for companionship with the good

and without hope in the world. According to the teaching and accordant action of Jesus, no man or woman is without hope until the messenger of hope has been definitely rejected.

It is fitting, if somewhat dramatic, that a study of taxation—that historic root of bitterness periodically springing up through the ages—should end in contemplation of Him who spoke to an outcast and guilty tax-collector (Lk 19 10) the wonderful words: "The Son of man came to seek and to save that which was lost." Louis Matthews Sweet

TEACH, tēch, TEACHER, tēch'er, TEACHING, tech'ing:

5. Exposition6. Authority7. Care I. OT TERMS Discipline Law Discernment Wisdom 7. Care
8. Supervision
OT HISTORY
1. In the Home
2. In Public 4. Wisdom
5. Knowledge
6. Illumination
7. Vision
8. Inspiration
9. Nourishment
NT TERMS
1. Instruction Z. In Public
IV. EXTRA-BIBLICAL
TEACHING
V. NT HISTORY
1. Christ's Life
2. Apostolic Labors
3. General Consider-IV. 2. Acquisition 3. Presentation 4. Elucidation ations

A rich variety of words is employed in the Bible to describe the teaching process. The terms do not so much indicate an office and an official as a function and a service, although both ideas are often ex-

pressed or implied.

I. OT Terms.— الأجلة المسلمة الم

tise," and may have originally referred 1. Discipline to the striking and goading of beasts by which they were curbed and trained.

By a noble evolution the term came to describe the process of disciplining and training men in war, religion and life (Isa 2 3; Hos 10 11; Mic 4 2). As teaching is both a condition and an accompaniment of disciplining, the word often means simply "to teach," "to inform" (2 Ch 17 7; Ps 71 17; "to teach," "to inform" (2 Ch 17 7; Ps 71 17; Prov 5 13). The glory of teaching was its harmony with the will of God, its source in God's authority, and its purpose to secure spiritual obedience (Dt 4 5.14; 31 12.13).

which the law was derived is expressed by a vb.

which means "to throw," "to cast as an arrow or lot." It is also used of 2. Law thrusting the hand forth to point out or show clearly (Gen 46 28; Ex 15 25). The original idea is easily changed into an educational conception, since the teacher puts forth new ideas and facts as a sower casts seed into the ground.

and facts as a sower casts seed into the ground. But the process of teaching was not considered external and mechanical but internal and vital (Ex 35 34.35; 2 Ch 6 27). The nominal form is the usual word for law, human and Divine, general and specific (Dt 4 8; Ps 19 8; Prov 1 8). The following are suggestive phrases: "the book of the law" (Dt 28 61; 2 K 22 8); "the book of the law of Moses" (Josh 8 31; 2 K 14 6); "the book of the law of Joshua there was in the possession of the religious of Joshua there was in the possession of the religious teachers a book of the Law of the Lord as given by teachers a book of the Law of the Lord as given by

Moses. This recorded revelation and legislation continued to be the Divine norm and ultimate authority for priest, king and people (2 Ch 23 11; Neh 8 1-3)

173, bīn, "to separate": The word meaning "to separate," "to distinguish," is often used in a causative sense to signify "to teach." The idea of teaching was not an aggregation of facts bodily transferred like merchandise. Real learning

followed genuine teaching. This word suggests a sound psychological basis for a good pedagogy.

The function of teaching might be 3. Discern- exercised with reference to the solument tion of difficult problems, the inter-pretation of God's will, or the manner of a godly life (Dnl 8 16.26; Neh 8 7-9; Ps 119 34).

קבל , sākhal, "to be wise": The vb. from which the various nominal forms for "wisdom" are derived means "to look at," "to

4. Wisdom behold," "to view," and in the causa-

tive stem describes the process by which one is enabled to see for himself what had never before entered his physical or intellectual field of consciousness. The noun indicates a wise person or sage whose mission is to instruct others in the ways of the Lord (Prov 16 23; 21 11; and often in the Wisdom literature). In Dnl 12 3 we read: "They that are wise [m "the teachers"] shall shine as the brightness of the firmament."

ירָל, yādha', "to see" (cf olda, olda): This vb.

lit. means "to see" and consequently "to perceive,"
"to know," "to come to know," and

5. Knowl"cause to know or teach." It describes the act of knowing as both progressive and completed. The causedge ative conception signifies achievement in the sphere of instruction. It is used of the interpretation and application by Moses of the principles of the law of God (Ex 18 16.20), of the elucidation of life's problems by the sages (Prov 9 9; 22 19), and of constant Providential guidance in the way of life

(Ps 16 11). יוֹד, zāhar, "to shine": This verbal root signifies "to shine," and when applied to the intellectual sphere indicates the function of

teaching to be one of illumination. Ignorance is darkness, knowledge is Illumination light. Moses was to teach the people statutes and laws, or to enlighten them on the principles and precepts of God's revelation (Ex 18 The service rendered by the teachers—priests, Levites and fathers—sent forth by Jehoshaphat was one of illumination in the twofold sense of

instruction and admonition (2 Ch 19 8-10).

¬¬¬, rā'āh, "to see": The literal meaning of this vb. is "to see," and the nominal form is the ancient name for prophet or authori-7. Vision tative teacher who was expected to have a clear vision of spiritual realities,

the will of God, the need of man and the way of life (1 S 9 9; 1 Ch 9 22; 2 Ch 16 7 f; Isa 30 10). אָרָא, nābhā', "to boil up": The most significant

word for "prophet" is derived from the vb. which means "to boil up or forth like a foun-8. Inspi- tain," and consequently to pour forth words under the impelling power of the Spirit of God. The Hebrews ration used the passive forms of the vb. because they considered the thoughts and words of the prophets due not to personal ability but to Divine influence. The utterances of the prophets were characterized

by instruction, admonition, persuasion and prediction (Dt 18 15-22; Ezk 33 1-20).

777, $r\bar{\alpha}$, "to feed a flock": The name "shepherd," so precious in both the OT and the NT, comes from a vb. meaning "to feed,"

9. Nourish- hence to protect and care for out of a ment sense of devotion, ownership and responsibility. It is employed with reference to civil rulers in their positions of trust (2 S 5 2; Jer 23 2); with reference to teachers of virtue and wisdom (Prov 10 21; Eccl 12 11); and preëminently with reference to God as the great Shepherd of His chosen people (Ps 23 1;

Hos 4 16). Ezk 34 presents an arraignment of the unfaithful shepherds or civil rulers; Ps 23 reveals Jeh as the Shepherd of true believers, and Jn 10 shows how religious teachers are shepherds under Jesus the Good Shepherd.

II. NT Terms.—Further light is thrown upon

religious teaching in Bible times by a brief view of the leading educational terms found in the NT.

διδάσκω, didáskō, "to teach": The usual word for "teach" in the NT signifies either to hold a discourse with others in order to instruct

1. Instruc- them, or to deliver a didactic discourse where there may not be direct personal and verbal participation. tion In the former sense it describes the interlocutory method, the interplay of the ideas and words be-

tween pupils and teachers, and in the latter use it refers to the more formal monologues designed esp. to give information (Mt 4 23; chs 5-7; 13 36 f; Jn 6 59; 1 Cor 4 17; 1 Tim 2 12). A teacher is one who performs the function or fills the office of one who performs the function of his the onice of instruction. Ability and fitness for the work are required (Rom 2 20; He 5 12). The title refers to Jewish teachers (Jn 1 38), to John the Baptist (Lk 3 12), to Jesus (Jn 3 2; 8 4, and often), to Paul (1 Tim 2 7; 2 Tim 1 11), and to instructors in the early church (Acts 13 1; Rom 12 7; 1 Cor 12 28). Teaching, like preaching, was an integral part of the work of an apostle (Mt 28 19; Mk 16 15; Eph 4 1).

manthánō, "to learn": The central μανθάνω, thought of teaching is causing one to learn.

ing and learning are not scholastic but dynamic, and imply personal relationship and activity in the ac-quisition of knowledge (Mt 11 29; 14 21). There were three concentric 2. Acquisition 28 19; Acts 14 21). circles of disciples in the time of Our Lord: learners,

pupils, superficial followers, the multitude (Jn 6 66); the body of believers who accepted Jesus as their Master (Mt 10 42); and the Twelve Dis-

ciples whom Jesus also called apostles (Mt 10 2).
παρατίθημι, paratithēmi, "to place beside": The
presentative idea involved in the teaching process is intimately associated with the prin-

3. Presen- ciple of adaptation. When it is stated that Christ put forth parables unto the tation people, the sacred writer employs the

figure of placing alongside of, or near one, hence before him in an accessible position. The food or teaching should be sound, or hygienic, and adapted to the capacity and development of the recipient (Mt 13 24; Mk 8 6; Acts 16 34; 1 Cor 10 27;
 2 Tim 4 3; He 5 12-14).
 διερμηνεύω, diermēnεμο, "to interpret": In the

walk to Emmaus, Christ explained to the perplexed disciples the OT Scriptures

4. Elucinin reference to Himself. The work of interpreter is to make truth clear and to effect the edification of the hearer (Lk 24 27; 1 Cor 12 30; 14 5.13.27).

ἐκτίθημι, ektíthēmi, "to place out": The vb. lit. means "to set or place out," and signifies to be being out the latent and scaret idea.

bring out the latent and secret ideas 5. Expo-

of a literary passage or a system of thought and life. Thus Peter inter-preted his vision, Aquila and Priscilla sition unfolded truth to Apollos, and Paul expounded the gospel in Rome (Acts 11 4; 18 26; 28 23).

True teaching is an educational exposition. προφήτης, prophétes, "one who speaks for": A prophet was a man who spoke forth a message from

God to the people. He might deal with past failures and achievements, 6. Authorpresent privileges and responsibilities or future doom and glory. He received his message and authority from God (Dt 18 15–22; Isa 6). The word refers to OT teachers (Mt 5 12), to John the Baptist (Mt 21 26), to Jesus the Messiah (Acts 3 25), and to special speakers in the Apos-

tolic age (Mt 10 41; Acts 13 1; 1 Cor 14 29.37).

ποιμήν, poimēn, "a shepherd": The word for "shepherd" signifies one who tends a flock, and by analogy a person who gives mental and

spiritual nourishment, and guards and supports those under his care (Mt 9 7. Care 36; Jn 10 2.16; 1 Pet 2 25; Eph 4 11). Love is a fundamental prerequisite to the exercise of the shepherding function (Jn 21 15-18). The duties are to be discharged with great diligence and in humble recognition of the gifts and appointment of

the Holy Spirit (Acts 20 28). eπίσκοπος, epískopos, "an overseer": The bishop or overseer was to feed and protect the blood-bought church of God (Acts 20 28).

8. Super-Among the various qualifications of vision the religious overseers was an aptitude for teaching (1 Tim 3 2; Tit 1 9). The Lord is preëminently shepherd and bishop (1 Pet 2 25).

III. OT History. —In the Jewish home the teaching of the law of the Lord was primarily incumbent upon the parents. The teaching was to be diligent, the conversation reli-1. In the

gious, and the atmosphere wholesome (Dt 6 7-9). Home

Provision was also made for public instruction in

the law of God (Dt 31 12.13). This is a compact summary of early Heb teaching in 2. In Public regard to the extent of patronage, the substance of instruction, and the purpose of the process. Samuel the judge and prophet recognized that his duty was fundamentally to pray to God for his people and to teach the nation "the good and the right way" (1 S 12 23). The glory and prosperity of Judah under Jehoshaphat were due in large measure to the emphasis he faid upon religious instruction as the basis of national character and stability. His peripatetic Bible school faculty consisted of five princes, nine Levites and two priests who effected a moral and religious transformation, for "they taught in Judah, having the book of the law of Jeh with them" (2 Ch 17 7-9). The most striking illustration we have of public religious instruction in the OT is found in Neh 8. Exra the priest and scribe was superintendent, and had an ample corps of teachers to instruct the multitude of men, women and children eager to hear. Prayer created a devotional atmosphere. The reading was distinct, the interpretation correct and intelligible. There was real teaching because the people were made to understand and obey the law. In Neh 9 and 10 we have recorded the spiritual, ceremonial, social and civic effects of ancient religious instruction.

civic effects of ancient religious instruction.

IV. Extra-Biblical History.—The captivity gave a mighty impulse to teaching. In far-away Babylon the Jews, deprived of the privilege and inspiration of the temple, established the synagogue as an institutional center of worship and instruction. During the latter part of the inter-Bib, period, religious teaching was carried on in the synagogue and attendance was compulsory, education in the Law being considered the fundamental element of national security (Deutsch, Literary Remains, 23; Edersheim, Life and Times of Jesus those from 5 to 10 years of age, the first lessons being taken from Lev (Taylor, Sayings of the Jewish Fathers, 111). From 10 to 15 years of age the pupil was taught the substance of the Mish or unwritten tradition, and accorded the privilege of entering into the discussions of the Mish, which constitute the Gemara (Edersheim, op. cit., I, 232). Selections of Scriptures like the sh*ma' (Dt 6 4–9) were made for study, and lesson helps were adapted to the capacity of the pupils (Ginsburg, art. "Education" in Cyc. of Bib. Lit.) The significance of the teaching idea among the Jews is indicated by numerous expressions for school (art. "Education," Cyc. of Bib. Lit.) and the prevalence of the synagogues, there

being perhaps 480 in Jerus in the time of Christ (Hor. Heb. I, 78). The pupil was not expected to be a passive hearer but an active participant (Ab., vi.6; Taylor, Sayings of the Jewish Fathers, 115 f). Great emphasis was laid upon audible repetition and exact memory, yet the teacher was culpable if the pupil failed to understand the prescribed lesson (Hamburger, RE, II, 672, 674). The pupil was regarded as the child of his teacher (Sanhedhrin 19), which is a familiar idea in the NT. The faithful teacher was considered destined to occupy a high seat among the ancients (Dnl 12 3). The scribes were secretaries or copyists of the sacred Law, and would thus acquire at least an accurate verbal knowledge of its contents. Quite naturally they would become religious teachers (Neh 8 4). Hence also their prominence in the NT.

LITERATURE.—Art. "Torah," Jew Enc (cf arts. "Talmud" and "Education"); Trumbull, Yale Lectures on the Sunday-School, 3-40; Hamburger, RE.

V. NT History.—In the NT we find that Jesus is preëminently the teacher, though He was also preacher and healer (Mt 4 23). His

1. Christ's Sermon on the Mount was matchless teaching. He opened His mouth
and "taught" (Mt 5 2). The titles

"teacher," "master," "rabbi" all indicate the most
prominent function of His active ministry. Even at the age of 12 years He revealed His wisdom and affinity in the midst of the rabbis or Jewish teachers of the Law in the temple (Lk 2 41 f). In the of the Law in the temple (Lk 2 11). In the power of the Spirit He taught so that all recognized His authority (Lk 4 14.15; Mt 7 29). He explained to the disciples in private what He taught the people in public (Mt 13 36). His principles and methods of teaching constitute the standard by which all true pedagogy is measured, and the ideal toward which all subsequent teachers have toiled with only partial success (Mt 7 28.29; Jn 1 49; 3 2; 6 46). In the Commission as recorded in Mt 28 18.19.20 we have the work of Christianity presented in educational terms. We find the supreme authority (ver 18), the comprehensive content—the evangelistic, the ceremonial, the educational, the practical (vs 19 and 20a), and the inspiring promise (ver 20b).

The emphasis laid upon teaching in the Apostolic age is a natural consequence of the need of the

people and the commands of Jesus.

2. Apostolic The practice of the apostles is quite Labors uniform. They preached or proclaimed, but they also expounded. In Jerus the converts continued in the apostles' teaching (Acts 2 42); and daily in the temple and in the homes of the people the teaching was correlated with preaching (Acts 5 42). In Antioch, the center of foreign missionary operations, Paul, Silas, Barnabas and many others taught the word of the Lord (Acts 15 35). In Thessalonica, Paul and Silas for three weeks reasoned with the people out of the Scriptures, opening up the sacred secrets and proving to all candid minds that Jesus was the Messiah (Acts 17 1-3). In Beroea, instruction in the synagogue was followed by private study, and as a result many believed in the Lord (Acts 17 10– 15). In Athens, Paul discussed and explained the things of the kingdom of God, both in the synagogue 3 t a week and in the market daily (Acts 17 16 f). In Corinth, Paul having been denied the use of the synagogue taught the word of the Lord for a year and a half in the house of Justus, and thus laid the foundation for a great church (Acts 18 1-11). In Ephesus, Paul taught for 2 years in the school of Tyrannus, disputing and persuading the people concerning the kingdom of God (Acts 19 8-10). In Rome, Paul expounded the word, testified to its truth, and persuaded men to accept the gospel (Acts 28 23). His method of work in Rome under trying limitations is described as cordially receiving the people and preaching the kingdom of God, and "teaching the things concerning the Lord Jesus Christ" (Acts 28 30.31).

The office of teacher is fundamentally related to the creation of a missionary atmosphere (Acts 13 1). Religious teaching is necessary 3. General to the development of Christian Considerations
character and the highest efficiency in service (1 Cor 12 4-11.28.29; Eph 4 11.12). The qualification of the pastor is vitally connected with the teaching function of the He is to hold the truth, or to be orthodox (Tit 19), to apply the truth, or to be practical (Tit 1 9), to study the truth, or to be informed (1 Tim 4 13.15), to teach the truth, or to be equipped or able and tactful (2 Tim 2 2; 1 Tim 3 2), to live the truth, or to be faithful in all things (2 Tim 2 2; 1 Tim 4 16). The teaching function of Christian 1 16. tianity in the 2d cent. became strictly official, thereby losing much of its elasticity. A popular manual for the guidance of religious teachers was styled the "Teaching of the Twelve" (see Didache). The writings of the Apostolic Fathers give valuable information in regard to the exercise of the gifts of teaching in the early centuries (Did., xiii.2; xv.1, 2; Barn 18; Ign. Eph 31). See CATECHIST; EDUCA-TION: SPIRITUAL GIFTS. BYRON H. DEMENT

TEAR BOTTLE. See next article.

TEARS, tērz (הֹלֶעָה, dim'āh; δάκρυα, dákrua): In the instances recorded in Scripture weeping is more frequently associated with mental distress than with physical pain. Eastern peoples show none of the restraint of emotion in lamentation which is characteristic of modern Occidentals, and there are many records of this manifestation of woe, even among men accustomed to hardships and warfare, such as David and his soldiers. The flow of tears is the evidence of sorrow in prospect of approaching death in Ps 39 12; 2 K 20 5; Isa 38 5, and of the suffering consequent on oppression (Eccl 4 1), or defeat in battle (Isa 16 9), or hopeless remorse, as with Esau (He 12 17, probably referring to Gen 27 34). The Psalmist describes his condition of distress metaphorically as feeding on the bread of tears and having tears to drink (Ps 80 5; 42 3). Tears in the figurative sense of anxiety for the future are referred to in Ps 126 5; anxiety for the future are referred to in Fs 120 5, Mk 9 24 AV, and the tears accompanying penitence in Lk 7 38 (44 RVm). Jeremiah is sometimes called the "weeping prophet" on account of his expressive hyperbole in Jer 9 1.18 (see also 14 7; 31 16; Lam 1 2; 2 11.18 and ten other passages). Conversely the deliverance from grief or anxiety is described as the wiping away of tears (Ps 116 8; Isa 25 8; Rev 7 17; 21 4).

The expression in Ps 56 8 in which the Psalmist desires that God should remember his wanderings and his tears has given rise to a curious mistake. There is a paronomasia in the passage as he pleads that God should record his wanderings (Heb nodh) and that his tears should be put into God's $n\bar{o}'dh$ (receptacle or bottle). $N\bar{o}'dh$ lit. means a leathern or skin bottle, as is evident from Ps 119 83 and Josh 9 4-13. The request is obviously figurative, as there is no evidence that there was even a symbolical collection of tears into a bottle in any Sem funeral ritual, and there is no foundation whatever for the modern identification of the long, narrow perfume jars so frequently found in late Jewish and Gr-Jewish graves, as "lachrymatories" or tear bottles. See Bottle. ALEX. MACALISTER

TEAT, tet (TU, shadh [Isa 32 12], TI, dadh [Ezk 23 3.21): In all these passages the RV has replaced the word by "breast" or "bosom," both of which occasionally stand in poetical parallelism. The above passages in Ezk are to be understood figuratively of the inclination of Israel to connive

at, and take part in, the idolatry of their neighbors. To "smite upon the breasts" (Isa 32 12, where the AV translates wrongly "lament for the teats") means "to mourn and grieve in the ostentatious way of oriental women." See Pap.

TEBAH, tē'ba (ロュロ, ṭebhaḥ): A son of Nahor, the brother of Abraham (Gen 22 24).

TEBALIAH, teb-a-lī'a, te-bal'ya (מְבַלְּרָהּיּ te-balyāhū, "Yahweh hath dipped," i.e. "purified"; Β, Ταβλαί, Tablai, Α, Ταβελίας, Tabelias, Luc., Ταβεήλ, Tabeel): A Merarite gatekeeper (1 Ch 26 11). name should perhaps read לְּלֵלָּה, tōbhīyāhū, "Yahweh is good" (possibly from מובלה, misread "טבל", misread רהר, tebhalyāhū). See Tobijah.

TEBETH, te-beth', tē'beth (ロコロ, ṭēbhēth): The tenth month of the Jewish year, corresponding to January (Est 2 16). See CALENDAR.

TEHAPHNEHES, tė-haf'nė-hēz. See Tahpan-

TEHINNAH, tê-hin'a (ΤΡΠΑ, thinnāh, "supplication"; Β, Θαιμάν, Thaimán, Α, Θανά, Thana, Luc., Θεεννά, Theenná): "The father of the city Nahash" (1 Ch 4 12). The verse seems to refer to some post-exilic Jewish settlement, but is utterly

TEIL, tel, TREE: AV Isa 6 13=RV TEREBINTH (q.v.).

TEKEL, tē'kel (ウラヴ, teķēl). See Mene, Mene, TEKEL, UPHARSIN.

TEKOA, tė-kō'a (צַוֹקרֹה, tekōa', or תְּקוֹעָה, t kō ah; Θεκῶε, Thekôe; AV Tekoah; one of David's mighty men, "Ira the son of Ikkesh," 1. Scripture is called a Tekoite, të-kō'īt (ק'ק'ע') References to kō'ō'; 2 S 23 26; 1 Ch 11 28; 27 9); the "woman of Tekoa" [2 S 14 2] is in Heb קרעית, tekō'īth; in Neh 3 5 mention is made of certain Tekoites, te-kō'īts [תקרעים], *t*kō*īm], who repaired part of the walls of Jerus): From here came the "wise woman" brought by Joab to try and make a reconciliation between David and Absalom (2 S 14 2 f); it was one of the cities fortified by Rehoboam (2 Ch 11 6; Jos, Ant, VIII, ix, 1). The wilderness of Tekoa is mentioned (2 Ch 20 20) as the extreme edge of the inhabited area; here Jehoshaphat took counsel before advenging into the wilderness of Indeed before advancing into the wilderness of Judaea to confront the Ammonites and Moabites. In Jer 6 1, we read, "Blow the trumpet in Tekoa and raise a signal in Beth-haccherim"—because of the enemy advancing from the N. Amos (1 1), one of the "herdsmen of Tekoa," was born here.

In Josh 15 59 (addition to verse in LXX only)

Tekoa occurs at the beginning of the list of 11 additional cities of Judah-a list which includes Bethlehem, Ain Kairem and Bettir—which are omitted in the Hebrew. A Tekoa is mentioned as a son of Ashhur (1 Ch 2 24; 4 5).

Jonathan Maccabaeus and his brother Simon fled from the vengeance of Bacchides "into the wilderness of Thecoe [RV "Tekoah"] and pitched their

tents [RV "encamped"] by the water of the pool Asphar" (1 Mace 9 33).

Jos calls Tekoa a village in his day (Vita, 75), as does Jerome who describes it as 12 miles from Jerus and visible from Bethlehem; he says the tomb of the prophet Amos was there (Comm. on Jeremiah, VI, 1). "There was," he says, "no village

beyond Tekoa in the direction of the wilderness." The good quality of its oil and honey is praised by other writers. In the 6th cent. a monastery, Laura Nova, was founded 2. Later History there by St. Saba. In the crusading times Tekoa was visited by pious pilgrims wishing to see the tomb of Amos, and some of the Christian inhabitants assisted the Crusaders in the first siege of Jerus. In 1138 the place was pillaged by a party of Turks from the E. of the Jordan, and since that time the site appears to have lain desolate and ruined, although even in the 14th cent. the tomb of Amos was still shown.

The site is without doubt the Kh. Tekū'a, a very extensive ruin, covering 4 or 5 acres, about 6 miles S. of Bethlehem and 10 miles 3. The from Jerus, near the Frank Mountain Site Tekū'a and on the road to 'Ain Jidy. The remains on the surface are chiefly of large cut stone and are all, apparently, mediaeval. Fragments of pillars and bases of good hard limestone occur on the top of the hill, and there is an octagonal font of rose-red limestone; it is clear that the church once stood there. There are many tombs and cisterns in the neighborhood of a much earlier period. A spring is said to exist somewhere on the period. A spring is said to exist somewhere on the site, but if so it is buried out of sight. There is a reference in the "Life of Saladin" (Bahaoddenus), to the "river of Tekoa," from which Richard Coeur de Lion and his army drank, 3 miles from Jerus: this may refer to the 'Arūb extension of the "low-level aqueduct" which passes through a long tunnel under the Sahl Tekū'a and may have been thought by some to rise there.

The open fields around $Tek\bar{u}$ are attractive and well suited for olive trees (which have now disappeared), and there are extensive grazing-lands. The neighborhood, even the "wilderness" to the E., is full of the flocks of wandering Bedouin. From the site, Bethlehem, the Mount of Olives and Nebi Samuel (Mizpah) are all visible; to the N.E. is a peep of the Jordan valley near Jericho and of the mountains of Gilead, but most of the eastern outlook is cut off by rising ground (PEF, III, 314, 368, Sh XXI).

E. W. G. MASTERMAN

TEL-ABIB, tel-ā'bib (מֵל אָבִיב , tēl 'ābhībh; Vulg ad acervum novarum frugum): As written in Heb,
Tel-abib means "hill of barley-ears" and is mentioned in Ezk 3 15 as the Name and place to which the prophet went, Its Meaning and where he found Jewish captives
"that dwelt by the river Chebar."
That Tel-abib is written, as Fried. Delitzsch suggests, for Til Abubi, "Mound of the Flood" (which may have been a not uncommon village-name in Babylonia) is uncertain. Moreover, if the captives themselves were the authors of the name, it is more likely to have been in the Heb language. LXX, which has meteoros, "passing on high," referring to the manner in which the prophet reached Tel-abib, must have had a different Heb reading.

If the Chebar be the nar Kabari, as suggested by Hilprecht, Tel-abib must have been situated somewhere in the neighborhood of Niffer, . The the city identified with the Calneh of Gen 10 10. The tablet mentioning the Position of the river Kabaru refers to grain (barley?)

Settlement seemingly sent by boat from Niffer in Nisan of the 21st year of Artaxerxes I. Being a navigable waterway, this was probably a good trading-center.

LITERATURE.—See Hilprecht and Clay, Business Documents of Murasha Sons ("Pennsylvania Exp.," Vol IX, 28); Clay, Light on the OT from Babel, 405.

T. G. PINCHES

TEL-HARSHA, tel-här'sha (אַל־תַרְעָּאַה). tēl-har-shā'): In Ezr 2 59; Neh 7 61 (AV in latter, "Tel-haresha," tel-ha-rē'sha, -har'e-sha), a Bab town or village from which Jews who could not show their lineage returned with Zerubbabel. The site is known. In 1 Esd 5 36 it is called "Thelersas." The site is un-

TELAH, tē'la (Πஹ, telaḥ; Β, Θάλεες, Thálees, A, Θάλε, Thále, Luc., Θάλα, Thála): An Ephraimite (1 Ch 7 25).

TELAIM, tė-lā'im (הַשְּׁלֶּאִים, ha-ṭrlā'īm, "the young lambs"; ἐν Γαλγάλοις, en Galgálois): The place where Saul "summoned the people, and numbered them" (1 S 15 4) before his attack on Agag, king of the Amalekites. Some authorities read "Telām" for "Havilah" in ver 7 and also find this name in 1 S 27 8 instead of מַעוֹלָם met older. In LXX and Jos (Ant, VI, vii, 2) Gilgal occurs instead of Telaim, on what ground is not known. Probably Telaim is identical with Telem (q.v.), though the former may have been the name of a Bedouin tribe inhabiting the latter district. Cf Dhallām Arabs now found S. of Tell el-Milh.

E. W. G. MASTERMAN

TELASSAR, tė-las'ar (תְּלֵאשָׁה, tela'ssār [2 K 19 12], אַלְשָׁר , telassār [Isa 37 12]; Α, Θαλασσάρ, Thalassár, B, Θαεσθέν, Thaesthén;

1. The Vulg Thelassar, Thalassar): This city, which is referred to by Sennacherib's Its Meaning messengers to Hezekiah, is stated by them to have been inhabited by the "children of Eden." It had been captured by the Assyr king's forefathers, from whose hands its gods had been unable to save it. Notwithstanding the vocalization, the name is generally rendered "Hill of Asshur," the chief god of the Assyrians, but "Hill of Assār," or Asari (a name of the Bab Merodach), would probably be better.

As Telassar was inhabited by the "children of Eden," and is mentioned with Gozan, Haran, and Rezeph, in Western Mesopotamia, it has been suggested that it lay in Bit-Adini, "the House of Adinu," or Beth-2. Suggestions as to the Geoeden, in the same direction, between the Euphrates and the Belikh. A place named Til-Aššuri, however, is twice graphical Position mentioned by Tiglath-pileser IV (Ann.,

176; Slab-Inscr., II, 23), and from these passages it would seem to have lain near enough to the Assyr border to be annexed. The king states that he made there holy sacrifices to Merodach, whose seat it was. It was inhabited by Babylonians (whose home was the *Edinu* or "plain"; see Eden). Esarhaddon, Sennacherib's son, who likewise conquered haddon, Sennacherib's son, who likewise conquered the place, writes the name Til-Ašurri, and states that the people of Miḥrānu called it Pitānu. Its inhabitants, he says, were people of Barnaku. It this be Bīt Burnaki in Elam, extending from the boundary of Rāšu (see Rosh), which was ravaged by Sennacherib (Bab Chron., III, 10 ff), Til-Aššuri probably lay near the western border of Elam. Should this identification be the true one, the Heb form tlassār would seem to be more correct than the Assyr Til-Ašsuri (-Ašurri), which latter may have been due to the popular idea that the second element was the name of the national god second element was the name of the national god See Fr. Delitzsch, Wo lag das Paradies? T. G. Pinches Aššur.

TELEM, tē'lem (Τέλεμ, Télem): A city in the Negeb "toward the border of Edom," belonging to Judah (Josh 15 24). In LXX of 2 S 3 12 Abner is said to send messengers to David at Thelam (Θαιλάμ, Thailám); this would seem to be

the same place and also to be identical with the Telaim and Telam of Saul (see Telaim). It is probably the same as the Talmia of the Talm (Neubauer, Géog. du Talm, 121). The site has not been recovered.

TELEM (Φζω, ţelem; LXX Β, Τέλημ, Τέlēm, A, Τέλλημ, Téllēm): One of three "porters" who had married foreign wives (Ezr 10 24), his name appearing as "Tolbanes" in 1 Esd 9 25; perhaps the same as Talmon (q.v.).

TELL. See TALE.

TELL EL-AMARNA, tel-el-a-mär'na, TABLETS:

INTRODUCTION

1. Name

2. Discovery

3. Physical Character
EPIGRAPHICAL VALUE

1. Peculiar Cuneiform Script

2. Method of Writing Proper Names
PHILOLOGICAL VALUE

1. Knowledge of Amorite, Hittite and Mitannian
Tongues

2. Persistence of Canaanite Names to the Present
Time

Time

Time
3. Verification of Biblical Statements concerning
"the Language of Canaan"

IV. Geographical Value
1. Political and Ethnological Lines and Locations
2. Verification of Biblical and Egyptian Geographical Notices
3. Confirmation of General Evidential Value of
Ancient Geographical Notes of Bible Lands

V. Historical Value
1. Revolutionary Change of Opinion concerning
Canaanite Civilization in Patriarchal Times
2. Anomalous Historical Situation Revealed by
Use of Cuneiform Script
3. Extensive Diplomatic Correspondence of the
Age

Age
4. Unsolved Problem of the Habiri LITERATURE

A collection of about 350 inscribed clay tablets from Egypt, but written in the cuneiform writing being part of the royal archives of Amenophis III and Amenophis IV, kings of the XVIIIth Egyp Dynasty about 1480 to 1460 BC. Some of the tablets are broken and there is a little uncertainty concerning the exact number of separate letters. 81 are in the British Museum=BM; 160 in the New Babylonian and Assyrian Museum, Berlin=B; 60 in the Cairo Museum=C; 20 at Oxford=O; the remainder, 20 or more, are in other museums or in private collections.

I. Introduction.—The name, Tell el-Amarna, "the hill Amarna," is the modern name of ancient ruins about midway between Mem-phis and Luxor in Egypt. The ruins Name mark the site of the ancient city Khut Aten, which Amenophis IV built in order to escape the predominant influence of the old religion of Egypt represented by the priesthood at Thebes, and to establish a new cult, the worship of Aten,

In 1887 a peasant woman, digging in the ruins of Tell el-Amarna for the dust of ancient buildings with which to fertilize her garden,

the sun's disk.

found tablets, a portion of the royal archives. She filled her basket with tablets and went home. How many 2. Discovery she had already pulverized and grown into leeks and cucumbers and melons will never be known. This time someone's curiosity was aroused, and a native dealer secured the tablets. Knowledge of the "find" reached Rev. Chauncey Murch, D.D., an American missionary stationed at Luxor, who, suspecting the importance of the tablets, called the attention of cuneiform scholars to them. began a short but intense and bitter contest between representatives of various museums on the one hand, eager for scientific material, and native dealers, on the other hand, rapacious at the prospect of the fabulous price the curious tablets might bring. The contest resulted in the destruction of some of the tablets by ignorant natives and the final distribution of the remainder and of the broken fragments, as noted at the beginning of this art. (see also Budge, Hist of Egypt, IV, 186). After the discovery of the tablets the site of the ancient city was excavated by Professor Petrie in 1891–92 (Tell el-Amarna; cf also Baedeker, Egypt).

The physical character of the tablets is worthy of some notice. They are clay tablets. Nearly all are brick tablets, i.e. rectangular, flat tablets varying in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Physical} to both sides and sometimes varying in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2×2\frac{1}{2} in. to 3\frac{1}{2} × 3 \text{.Nearly ging in size from 2x yellow ging in si

The results of the discovery of the Am Tab have been far-reaching, and there are indications of still other benefits which may yet accrue from them. The discovery of them shares with the discovery of the CH the distinction of the first place among Bib. discoveries of the past half-century.

II. Epigraphical Value.—The peculiar use of the cuneiform method of writing in these tablets in order to adapt it to the require-

1. Peculiar ments of a strange land having a native ments of a strange land having a native tongue, and the demands made upon it for the representation of proper names of a foreign tongue, have already furnished the basis for the opinion that the same cuneiform method of writing was employed originally in other documents, esp. some portions of the Bible and much material for Egyp governmental reports. It is not improbable that by means of such data furnished by the tablets definite clues may be obtained to the method of writing, and by that also approximately the time of the composition, of the literary sources that were drawn upon in the composition of the Pent, and even of the Pent itself (cf esp. Naville, Archaeology of the Bible).

Most of the letters were probably written by Egyp officers or, more frequently, by scribes in the

employ of native appointees of the

2. Proper Egyp government. The writing of so many proper names by these scribes in the cuneiform script has thrown a flood of light upon the spelling of Canaanite names by Egyp scribes in the hieroglyphic inscriptions of Egypt. It is evident now that certainly some, perhaps most, of these scribes worked from cuneiform lists (Müller, Egyptological Researches, 1906, 40). As the system of representation of Palestinian names by Egyp scribes becomes thus better understood, the identification of more and more of the places in Pal named in the Egyp inscriptions becomes possible. Every such identification makes

more nearly perfect the identification of Bib. places, the first and most important item in historical evidence.

III. Philological Value.—No other literary discovery, indeed, not all the others together, have

afforded so much light upon philologi. Amorite, cal problems in patriarchal Pal as the Hittite and Am Tab. Something is now really Mitannian definitely known of "the language of Canaan," the speech of the people of patriarchal days in Pal. The remarkable persistence of old Canaanite words and names and forms of speech of these tablets down to the present time makes it plain that the peasant speech of today is the lineal descendant of that of Abraham's day. The letters are in the Bab tongue modified by contact with the speech of the country, a kind of early Aram. (Conder, The Tell Amarna Tablets, X; Dhorme, "La langue de Canaan," Revue Biblique, Juillet, 1913, 369). There are also fre-

quent Canaanite words inserted as glosses to explain the Bab words (Dhorme, op. cit.). The facts evinced by the persistence of the early Canaanite speech (cf 1, above) down through all the

centuries to the peasant speech of Pal

2. Persistence of
Canaanite
Names

Canaanite
Name

tongue. Now, even so adventurous a work as a grammar of the ancient Canaanite language has been attempted, based almost entirely upon the material furnished by the Am Tab (Dhorme, op. cit.), in which the speech of Pal in patriarchal days is described as "ancient Canaanite or Hebrew."

Some more specific knowledge is also supplied by the Am Tab concerning the Amerite language

through the many Amorite names and the occasional explanations given in Amorite words (cf esp. the 50 letters of Ribadda), and some knowledge of Statements Hittite (Letter of Tarkhundara; Conder, The Tell Amarna Tablets, 225 f), concerning the Mitannian tongue (B 153, 190, 191, 233). One other tablet (B 342) is in an unknown tongue.

IV. Geographical Value.—There was a very wide international horizon in the days of the correspondence contained in the Am Tab,

1. International a horizon that inclosed Egypt, Babylonia, Canaan, Mitanni and the land of the Hittites; but the more definite geographical information supplied by the tablets is limited almost entirely to the great Syrian and Canaanite coast land. There is difference of opinion concerning the identification of a few of the places mentioned, but about 90 have been identified with reasonable certainty.

It is possible now to trace the course of the military operations mentioned in the Am Tab with almost as much satisfaction as the

2. Biblical course of a modern military campaign, verification and there is much verification also of Bib. and Egyp geographical notices.

The identification of such a large number of places and the ability thus given to trace the course

of historical movements in that remote age are a remarkable testimony to the historical value of ancient records of that part of the world, for accuracy concerning place is of first importance in historical records.

V. Historical Value.—The Am Tab furnish an amount of historical material about equal in bulk to one-half of the Pent. While much of this bears more particularly upon general history of the an-

cient Orient, there is scarcely any part of it which does not directly or indirectly supply information which parallels some phase of Bib. history. It is not certain that any individual mentioned in the Bible is mentioned in these tablets, yet it is possible, many think it well established, that many of the persons and events of the conquest period are mentioned (cf 4 [1], below). There is also much that reflects the civilization of times still imperfectly understood, reveals historical events hitherto unknown, or but little known, and gives many sidelights upon the movements of nations and peoples of whom there is something said in the Bible.

A revolutionary change of opinion concerning the civilization of patriarchal Pal has taken place. It

ite Civilization

was formerly the view of all classes of 1. Canaan- scholars, from the most conservative, on the one hand, to the most radical, on the other, that there was a very crude state of civilization in Pal in the

patriarchal age, and this entirely independent of, and indeed prior to, any demand made by the evolutionary theory of Israel's history. Abraham was pictured as a pioneer from a land of culture to a distant dark place in the world, and his descendants down to the descent into Egypt were thought to have battled with semi-barbarous conditions, and to have returned to conquer such a land and bring civilization into it. All this opinion is now changed, primarily by the information contained in the Am Tab and secondarily by incidental hints from Egyp and Bab inscriptions now seen to support the high stage of civilization revealed in the Am Tab (see Archaeology and Criticism). The tablets make mention of "'capital cities,' 'provincial cities,' 'fortresses,' 'towns,' and 'villages' with 'camps' and Hazors (or inclosures); while irrigation of gardens is also noticed, and the papyrus grown at Gebal, as well as copper, tin, gold, silver, agate, money (not, of course, coins) and precious objects of many kinds, mulberries, olives, corn, ships and chariots' (Conder, op. cit., 4).

The Bab inscriptions show that Abraham was a part of an emigration movement from the homeland to a frontier province, having the same laws and much of the same culture (Lyon, American Oriental Society Journal, XXV, 254; Barton, American Philosophical Proceedings, LII, no. 209, April, 1913, 197; Kyle, Deciding Voice of the Monuments in Bib. Criticism, ch xv). The Egyp sculptured pictures make clear that the civilization of Pal in patriarchal times was fully equal to that of Egypt (cf Petrie, Deshasheh, pl. IV).

That these things of elegance and skill are not merely the trappings of "barbaric splendor" is manifest from the revelation which the Am Tab make of ethnic movements and of influences at work from the great nations on either side of Canaan, making it impossible that the land could have been, at that period, other than a place of advanced civi-

Nearly all the tablets furnish most unlization equivocal evidence that Egypt had imperial rule over the land through a provincial government which was at the time falling into decay, while the cuneiform method of writing used in the tablets by such a variety of persons, in such high and low estate, implying thus long-established literary culture and a general diffusion of the knowledge of a most difficult system of writing, makes it clear that the civilization of Babylonia had been well established before the political power of Egypt came to displace that of Babylonia.

The displacement of Bab political power in Pal just mentioned (1, above) points at once to a

2. Anomalous Historical Situation

most remarkable historical situation revealed by the Am Tab, i.e. official Egyp correspondence between the outlying province of Canaan and the imperial government at home, carried on,

not in the language and script of Egypt, but in the script of Babylonia and in a language that is a modified Babylonian. This marks one step in the great, age-long conflict between the East and the West, between Babylonia and Egypt, with Canaan as the football of empires. It reveals—what the Bab inscriptions confirm—the long-preceding occupation of Canaan by Babylonia, continuing down to the beginning of patriarchal times, which had so given Canaan a Bab stamp that the subsequent political occupation of the land by Egypt under Thothmes III had not yet been able to efface the old stamp or give a new impression.

The extensive diplomatic correspondence between nations so widely separated as Egypt on the W., and Babylonia on the E., Mitanni on the N., and the Hittite country on the N.W., is also shown by the Am Tab. In addition to the large number of letters between Correspond—Canaan and Egypt, there are quite a number of these royal tablets: letters from Kadaman Bell, or Kallima-Sin (BM 29784), and Burna-burias of Babylonia (B 149-52), Assur-uballidh of Assyria and Dusratta of Mitanni (B 150, 191-92, 233), etc. There seems at first sight a little pettiness about this international correspondence that is almost childish, since so much of it is occupied with the marriage of princesses and the payment of dowers, and the exchange of international gifts and privileges (Budge, Hist of Egypt, IV, 189-90). But one might be surprised at the amount of such things in the private correspondence of kings of the present day, if access to it could be gained. The grasping selfishness also revealed in these tablets by the constant cry for gold is, after all, but a less diplomatic and more frank expression of the commercial haggling between nations of today for advantages and concessions.

The subject of greatest historical interest in Bib. matters presented by the Am Tab is the great, unsolved problem of the Habiri. Un-

solved problem of the *Habiri*. Un-4. Problem solved it is, for while every writer on of the the subject has a very decided opinion Habiri of his own, all must admit that a problem is not solved upon which there is

such wide and radical difference of opinion among capable scholars, and that not running along easy lines of cleavage, but dividing indiscriminately all classes of scholars.

(1) One view very early advanced and still strongly held by some (Conder, op. cit., 138-44) is that *Habiri* is to be read 'Abiri, and means the Hebrews. It is pointed out that the letters referring to these people are from Central and Southern Pal, that the *Habiri* had some relation with Mt. Seir, that they are represented as contemporaneous with Japhia king of Gezer, Jabin king of Hazor, and probably Adonizedek king of Jerus, contemporaries of Joshua, and that certain incidental movements of Israel and of the people of Pal mentioned in the Bible are also mentioned or assumed in the tablets (Conder, op. cit., 139-51). In reply to these arguments for the identification of the *Habiri* with the Hebrews under Joshua, it may be noted that, although the letters which speak of the Habiri are all from Central or Southern Pal, they belong to very nearly the same time as the very numerous letters concerning the extensive wars in the N. The distinct separation of the one set of letters from the other is rather arbitrary and so creates an appearance which has little or no existence in fact. Probably these southern letters refer to the same disturbances spreading from the N. toward the S., which is fatal to the theory that the Habiri are the Hebrews under Joshua, for these latter came in from the S.E. The reference to Seir is obscure and seems rather to locate that place in the direction of Carmel (Conder, op. cit., 145). The mention of Japhia king of Gezer, and Jabin king of Hazor, does not signify much, for these names may be titles, or there may have been many kings, in sequence, of the same name. Concerning Adonizedek, it is difficult to believe that this reading of the name of the king of Jerus would ever have been thought of, except for the desire to identify the *Habiri* with the Hebrews under Joshua. This name Adonizedek is only made out, with much uncertainty, by the unusual method of translating the king's name instead of transliterating it. If the name was Adonizedek, why did not the scribe write it so, instead of translating it for the Pharaoh into an entirely different name because of its meaning? The seeming correspondences between the letters and the account of the conquest in the Bible lose much of their significance when the greater probabilities raised in the names and the course of the wars are taken away.

(2) Against the view that the Habiri were the Hebrews of the Bible may be cited not only these discrepancies in the evidence presented for that view (cf [1], above), but also the very strong evidence from Egypt that the Exodus took place in the Ramesside dynasties, thus not earlier than the XIXth Dynasty and probably under Merenptah, the successor of Rameses II. The name Rameses for one of the store cities could hardly have occurred before the Ramesside kings. The positive declaration of Rameses II: "I built Pithom," against which there is no evidence whatever, and the coincidence between the Israel tablet of Merenptah (Petrie, Six Temples at Thebes, 28, pls. XIII-XIV) and the Bib. record of the Exodus, which makes the 5th year under Merenptah to be the 5th year of Moses' leadership (see Moses), make it very difficult, indeed seemingly impossible, to accept the Habiri

as the Hebrews of the conquest. (3) Another view concerning the Habiri, strongly urged by some (Sayce, The Higher Criticism and the Verdict of the Monuments, 175 ff), is that they are Habiri, not 'Abiri, and that the name means "confederates," and was not a personal or tribal name at all. The certainty that there was, just a little before this time, an alliance in conspiracy among the Amorites and others, as revealed in the tablets for the region farther north, gives much color to this This opinion also relieves the chronological difficulties which beset the view that the Habiri were the Bib. Hebrews (cf [2], above), but it is contended that this reading does violence to the text.

(4) Another most ingenious view is advanced by Jeremias (The OT in the Light of the Ancient East, 341), that the name is *Habiri*, that 'the name answers to the sounds of 'Hebrews,' and that the names are identical," but that this name in the Am names are identical, but that this name in the Am Tab is not a proper name at all, but a descriptive word, as when we read of "Abraham the Hebrew," i.e. the "stranger" or "immigrant." Thus Habiri would be "Hebrews," i.e. "strangers" or "immigrants" (see Heberites; Hebrew), but the later question of the identification of these with the Hebrews of the Bible is still an open question.

(5) It may be that the final solution of the prob-

lem presented by the Habiri will be found in the direction indicated by combining the view that sees in them only "strangers" with the view that sees them to be "confederates." There were undoubtedly "confederates" in conspiracy against Egypt in the time of the Am Tab. The government of Egypt did not come successfully to the relief of the beleaguered province, but weakly yielded. During the time between the writing of the tablets and the days of Merenptah and the building of Pithom no great strong government from either Egypt or Babylonia or the N. was established in Pol. At the time of the new strong for the N. was established in Pol. lished in Pal. At the time of the conquest there is constant reference made to "the Hittites and the Amorites and the Perizzites," etc. Why are they so constantly mentioned as a group, unless they were in some sense "confederates"? It is not impossible, indeed it is probable, that these Hittites and Amorites and Perizzites, etc, Palestinian tribes having some kind of loose confederacy in the days of the conquest, represent the last state of the "confederates," the conspirators, who began operations in the Amorite war against the imperial Egyp government recorded in the Am Tab, and, in the correspondence from the S., were called in those days *Habiri*, i.e. "strangers" or "immigrants." For the final decision on the problem of the Habiri and the full elucidation of many things in the Am Tab we must await further study of the tablets by expert cuneiform scholars, and esp. further discovery in contemporary history

The Jerus letters of the southern correspondence present something of much importance which does not bear at all upon the problem of the *Habiri*. The frequently recurring title of the king of Jerus, "It was not my father, it was not my mother, who established me in this position" (Budge, Hist of Egypt, IV, 231-35), seems to throw light upon the strange description given of Melchizedek (q.v.), the king of Jerus in the days of Abraham. meaning here clearly is that the crown was not hereditary, but went by appointment, the Pharaoh of Egypt having the appointing power. Thus the king as such had no ancestor and no descendant, thus furnishing the peculiar characteristics made use of to describe the character of the Messiah's priesthood in the Ep. to the He (7 3).

LITERATURE.—Conder, The Tell Amarna Tablets; Knudtzon, Die El-Amarna-Tafeln, in Heinrich's Vorderasiatische Bibliothek, II; Petrie, Tell el Amarna Tablets; idem, Syria and Egypt from the Tell el Amarna Letters; idem, Hist of Egypt; Jeremias, The OT in the Light of the Ancient East.

M. G. Kyle

M. G. KYLE

TEL-MELAH, tel-mē'la (תֵּל־מֶלֶם, tēl-melaḥ, "hill of salt"): A Bab town mentioned in Ezr 2 59; Neh 7 61 with Tel-harsha and Cherub (see Tel-harsha). It possibly lay on the low salt tract near the Pers Gulf. In 1 Esd 5 36 it is called "Thermeleth."

TEMA, tē'ma (Κράτ), tēmā', "south country"; Θαιμάν, Thaimán): The name of a son of Ishmael (Gen 25 15; 1 Ch 1 30), of the tribe descended from him (Jer 25 23), and of the place where they dwelt (Job 6 19; Isa 21 14). This last was they dwelt (Job 6 19; ISA ZI 14). IIIIS IASI WAS a locality in Arabia which probably corresponds to the modern Teimā' (or Taymā' [see Doughty, Arabia Deserta, I, 285]), an oasis which lies about 200 miles N. of el-Medina, and some 40 miles S. of Dūmat el-Jandal (Dumah), now known as el-Jandal (Dumah), now known as el-Jandal (Dumah), now known as el-Jandal (Dumah). It is on the ancient caravan road connecting the Pers Gulf with the Gulf of Akaba; and doubtless the people took a share in the carrying trade (Job 6 19). The wells of the oasis still attract the wanderers from the parched wastes (Isa 21 14). Doughty (loc. cit.) describes the ruins of the old city wall, some 3 miles in circuit. An Aram. stele recently

discovered, belonging to the 6th cent. BC, shows the influence of Assyr art. The place is mentioned in the cuneiform inscriptions (Schrader, KAT², 149).

W. Ewing

TEMAH, tē'ma (ΠΏς, temah; A B, Θέμα, Théma, Luc., Θέμα, Themaá; Neh 7 55, B, Ἡμαθ, Ηξ-math, Α, Θήμα, Τhέma, Luc., Θέμα, Themaá; AV Thamah): The family name of a company of Nethinim (Ezr 2 53).

TEMAN, tē'man (Ἰζης, tēmān, "on the right," i.e. "south"; Θαιμάν, Thaimān): The name of a district and town in the land of Edom, named after Teman the grandson of Esau, the son of his firstborn, Eliphaz (Gen 36 11; 1 Ch 1 36). A duke Teman is named among the chiefs or clans of Edom (Gen 36 42; 1 Ch 1 53). He does not however appear first, in the place of the firstborn. Husham of the land of the Temanites was one of the ancient kings of Edom (Gen 36 34; 1 Ch 1 45). From Ob ver 9 we gather that Teman was in the land of Esau (Edom). In Am 1 12 it is named along with Bozrah, the capital of Edom. In Ezk 25 13 desolation is denounced upon Edom: "From Teman even unto Dedan shall they fall by the sword." Dedan being in the S., Teman must be sought in the N. Onom knows a district in the Gebalene region called Theman, and also a town with the same name, occupied by a Rom garrison, 15 miles from Petra. Unfortunately no indication of direction is given. No trace of the name has yet been found. It may have been on the road from Elath to Bozrah.

The inhabitants of Teman seem to have been famous for their wisdom (Jer 49 7; Ob vs 8 f). Eliphaz the Temanite was chief of the comforters of Job (2 11, etc). The manner in which the city is mentioned by the prophets, now by itself, and again as standing for Edom, shows how important it must have been in their time. W. Ewing

TEMENI, tem'ė-nī, tēm'e-nī, tēm'enī, Ārṃċnī, Baer, הַרְּלְנִי, tīm'enī; BA, Θαιμάν, Thaimán, Luc., Θαιμανί, Thaimanei): The word הומני means a southerner, i.e. of Southern Judah; cf Teman (patronymic הְּלְנִי, tēmānī), the name of Edom (Gen 36 11, etc), the "son" of Ashhur (1 Ch 4 6).

TEMPER, tem'per: The word is used in AV to render different Heb words. In Ezk 46 14 for "temper" (ΟΣ), rāṣaṣ) RV substitutes "moisten." In Cant (5 2) a noun from the same stem means "dewdrops." In Ex 29 2 AV we read "cakes unleavened, tempered [ΣΞ], bālal, lit. "mixed"] with oil," RV "mingled." The word denotes "roughand-ready mixing." In the recipe for the making of incense given in Ex (30 35) occur the words "tempered together," πΞΞ, mālaḥ (lit. "salted"; hence RV "seasoned with salt"). The word occurs in two interesting connections in Wisd 15 7 (RV "knead") and 16 21. In 1 Cor 12 24 it occurs in EV as a rendering of the Gr word συγκεράννυμ, sugkeránnumi, which meant to "mix together." Paul is arguing in favor of the unity of the church and of coöperation on the part of individual members, and uses as an illustration the human body which consists of various organs with various functions. It is God, argues the apostle, who has "tempered," "compounded" or "blended," the body. Each member has its place and function and must contribute to the welfare of the whole frame. The same Gr word occurs in He 4 2. The author urges the necessity of faith in regard to the gospel. The unbelieving Israelites had derived no benefit from their hearing of the gospel because their hearing of it was not "mixed" with faith. T. Lewis

TEMPERANCE, tem'pēr-ans (ἐγκράτεια, egkráteia), TEMPERATE, tem'per-at (έγκρατής, egkralės, νηφάλιος, nephálios, σώφρων, sõphrōn): ARV departs from AV and ERV by translating egkrateia "self-control" (Acts 24 25; Gal 5 23; egkrateia "self-control" (Acts 24 25; Gal 5 23; 2 Pet 1 6; 1 Cor 9 25), following ERVm in several of these passages. This meaning is in accordance with classical usage, Plato applying it to "mastery" not only of self, but of any object denoted by a genitive following. LXX applies it to the possession "of strongholds" (2 Macc 8 30; 10 15), "of a position" (10 17), "of the city" (13 13), "of wisdom" (Sir 6 27). The reflexive meaning of "self-mastery," "self-restraint," is equally well established in the classics and LXX. Thus, in the verbal form, it is found in Gen 43 31, for the the verbal form, it is found in Gen 43 31, for the self-restraint exercised by Joseph in the presence of his brethren, when they appeared before him as suppliants, and in 1 S 13 12, where Saul professes that he "forced" himself to do what was contrary to his desire. For patristic use of the term, see illustrations in Suicer's Thesaurus Ecclesiasticus, I, 1000 ff. Clement of Alexandria: "Not abstaining from all things, but using continently such things as one has judged should be used"; "such things as do not seem beyond right reason." "To avoid excess on both sides, so as neither by luxury to be confused, nor, by becoming sickly, to be disabled from doing what has been commanded." Chrysostom (on 1 Tim 1 8) applies it to "one mastering passion of tongue, hand and unbridled eyes." Ellicott and Eadie (on Gal 5 23) quote Diogenes Lacrtius to the effect that the word refers to "control over the stronger passions." In 1 Cor 9 25, Paul illustrates it by the training of an athlete, whose regimen is not only described in the Ars Poetica of Horace (412 ff), and in Epictetus (quoted in Alford on this passage), but can be learned of the many devotees and admirers of similar pursuits today.

The principle involved is that of the concentration of all man's powers and capabilities upon the one end of doing God's will, in and through whatever calling God appoints, and the renunciation of everything either wholly or to whatever degree necessary, however innocent or useful it may be in its proper place, that interferes with one's highest efficiency in this calling (1 Cor 10 31). Not limited to abstinence, it is rather the power and decision to abstain with reference to some fixed end, and the use of the impulses of physical, as servants for the moral, life. It does not refer to any one class of objects that meets us, but to all; to what concerns speech and judgment, as well as to what appeals to sense. It is properly an inner spiritual virtue, working into the outward life, incapable of being counterfeited or replaced by any abstinence limited to that which is external (Augsburg Confession, Arts. XXVI, XXVII). When its absence, however, is referred to as sin, the negative is generally more prominent than the positive side of temperance. The reference in Acts 24 25 is to chastify, and in 1 Cor 7 9, as the context shows, to the inner side of chastity. In 1 Tim 3 2.11; Tit 2 2, the word nephalios has its original meaning as the opposite to grunken (see Sobriety; Drink, Strong). See also the treatises on ethics by Luthardt (both the *Compendium* and the *History*), Martensen, Koestlin and Häring on temperance, asceticism, continence.

H. E. Jacobs its original meaning as the opposite to "drunken"

TEMPEST, tem'pest (הֹלֶלֶהְהְ , se'ārāh, or מִּלֶרָה , se'ārāh, "a whirlwind," בְּיָה , zerem, "overflowing rain"; χειμών, cheimôn, θύελλα, thúella): Heavy storms of wind and rain are common in Pal and the Mediterranean. The storms particularly mentioned in the Bible are: (1) the 40 days' rain of

the great flood of Noah (Gen 7 4); (2) hail and rain as a plague in Egypt (Ex 9 18); (3) the great rain after the drought and the contest of Elijah on Carmel (1 K 18 45); (4) the tempest on the sea in the story of Jonah (1 4); (5) the storm on the Lake of Galilee when Jesus was awakened to calm the waves (Mt 8 24; Mk 4 37; Lk 8 23); (6) the storm causing the shipwreck of Paul at Melita (Acts 27 18). Frequent references are found to God's power over storm and use of the tempest in His anger: "He maketh the storm a calm" (Ps 107 29); He sends the "tempest of hail, a destroying storm" (Isa 28 2). See also Job 9 17; 21 18; Isa 30 30. Jeh overwhelms His enemies as with a storm: "She shall be visited of Jeh of hosts with thunder, and with earthquake, and great noise, with whirlwind and tempest" (Isa 29 6). Jeh is a "refuge from the storm" (Isa 25 4; 4 6).

ALFRED H. JOY TEMPLE, tem'p'l (הֵיכָל, hēkhāl, "palace"; sometimes, as in 1 K 6 3.5, etc; Ezk 41 1 15 ff, used for "the holy place" only; his, bayith, "house," thus always in RV; iepóv, hierón, vaós, naós):

A. STRUCTURE AND HISTORY

I. SOLOMON'S TEMPLE

I. SOLOMON'S TEMPLE

I. INTRODUCTORY

1. David's Project
2. Plans and Preparations
3. Character of the Building
4. Site of the Temple
5. Phoenician Assistance

II. THE TEMPLE BUILDING
1. In General
2. Dimensions, Divisions and Adornments
3. The Side-Chambers
4. The Porch and Pillars

II. COURTS CAUSE AND ROYAL BUILDINGS

4. The Forch and Thiats
COURTS, GATES AND ROYAL BUILDINGS
1. The Inner Court
(1) Walls
(2) Gates
2. The Great Court
3. The Royal Buildings

3. The Royal Buildings
Furniture of the Temple
1. The Sanctuary
(1) The debhir
(2) The hēkhāl
2. The Court (Inner)
(1) The Altar
(2) The Molten (Bronze) Sea
(3) The Lavers and Their Bases
History of the Temple
1. Building and Dedication
2. Repeated Plunderings, etc
3. Attempts at Reform
4. Final Overthrow

II. EZEKIEL'S PROPHETIC SKETCH

I. INTRODUCTORY
1. Relation to History of Temple
2. The Conception Unique and Ideal
3. Its Symmetrical Measurements

PLAN OF THE TEMPLE
1. The Outer Court
2. The Inner Court
3. The Temple Building and Adjuncts

III. THE TEMPLE OF ZERUBBABEL

I. INTRODUCTORY
1. The Decree of Cyrus
2. Founding of the Temple
3. Opposition and Completion of the Work
II. THE TEMPLE STRUCTURE
1. The House
2. Its Divisions and Furniture
3. Its Courts, Altar, etc
4. Leter Fortunes

Later Fortunes

IV. THE TEMPLE OF HEROD

I. Introductory
1. Initiation of the Work
2. Its Grandeur

Authorities Measurements

The Temple And Its Courts

1. Temple Area—Court of Gentiles

2. Inner Sanctuary Inclosure
(1) Wall, hell, goreph, Gates
(2) Court of the Women
(3) Inner Courts: Court of Israel; Court of the
Priests

Priests
(4) The Altar, etc

3. The Temple Building
(1) House and Porch
(2) Hēkhāl and debhir
(3) The Side-Chambers
NT Associations of Herod's Temple
1. Earlier Incidents
2. Jesus in the Temple
3. The Passion-Week
4. Apostolic Church
5. The Temple in Christian Thought

LITERATURE

A. STRUCTURE AND HISTORY

I. SOLOMON'S TEMPLE

I. Introductory.—The tabernacle having lasted from the exodus till the commencement of the

monarchy, it appeared to David to be no longer fitting that the ark of God should dwell within curtains (it was then in a tent David had made for it 1. David's Project on Zion: 2 S 6 17), while he himself dwelt in a cedar-lined house. The unsettled and unorganized state of the nation, which had hitherto necessitated a portable structure, had now given place to an established kingdom. The dwelling of Jeh should therefore be henceforth a permanent build-"exceeding magnificent" (1 Ch 22 5), as befitted the glory of Jeh, and the prospects of the state.

David, however, while honored for his purpose, was not permitted, because he had been a man of war (2 S 7; 1 Ch 22 8; cf 1 K 5 3),

2. Plans to execute the work, and the building and Prepare of the house was reserved for his son

and Prepaof the house was reserved for his son, Solomon. According to the Chronicler, David busied himself in making extenrations

sive and costly preparations of wood, stone, gold, silver, etc, for the future sanctuary and its vessels, even leaving behind him full and minute plans of the whole scheme of the building and its contents, divinely communicated (1 Ch 22 2 ff; 28 11 ff; 29). The general fact of lengthened preparation, and even of designs, for a structure which so deeply occupied his thoughts, is extremely probable (cf 1 K 7 51).

The general outline of the structure was based on that of the tabernacle (on the modern critical reversal of this relation, see under B,

3. Characbelow). The dimensions are in the ter of the main twice those of the tabernacle, Building though it will be seen below that there

are important exceptions to this rule, on which the critics found so much. The old question (see TABERNACLE) as to the shape of the building-flat or gable-roofed-here again arises. Not a few modern writers (Fergusson, Schick, Caldecott, etc.), with some older, favor the tent-like shape, with sloping roof. It does not follow, however, even if this form is, with these writers, admitted for the tabernacle—a "tent"—that it is applicable, or likely, for a stone "house," and the measurements of the Temple, and mention of a "ceiling" (1 K 6 15), point in the opposite direction. It must still be granted that, with the scanty data at command, all reconstructions of the Solomonic Temple leave much to be filled in from conjecture. Rev. Joseph Hammond has justly said: It is certain that, were a true restoration of the Temple ever to be placed in our hands, we should find that it differed widely from all attempted 'restorations' of the edifice, based on the scanty and imperfect notices of our historian and Ezk" (Comm.

on 1 K 6, "Pulpit Comm.").

The site of the Temple was on the eastern of the two hills on which Jerus was built—that known in Scripture as Mt. Moriah (2 Ch 3 1) 4. Site of or Mt. Zion (the traditional view which the Temple locates Zion on the western hill, on

the other side of the Tyropæon, though defended by some, seems untenable; see

SOLOMON'S TEMPLE (SCHICK'S MODEL)



"Zion," in HDB; "Jerusalem," in DB, etc). The place is more precisely defined as that where Araunah (Ornan) had his threshing-floor, and David built his altar after the plague (1 Ch 21 22; 2 Ch 3 1). This spot, in turn, is now all but universally held to be marked by the sacred rock, es-sakhrā (within what is called the Haram area on the eastern summit; see Jerusalem), above which the "Dome of the Rock," or so-called "Mosque of Omar," now stands. Here, according to traditional belief, was reared the altar of burnt offering, and to the W. of it was built the Temple. This location is indeed challenged by Fergusson, W. R. Smith, and others, who transfer the Temple-site to the southwestern angle of the Haram area, but the great majority of scholars take the above view. To prepare a suitable surface for the Temple and connected buildings (the area may have been some 600 ft. E. to W., and 300 to 400 ft. N. to S.), the summit of the hill had to be leveled, and its lower parts heightened by immense substructures (Jos, Ant, VIII, iii, 9; XV, xi, 3; BJ, V, v, 1), the remains of which modern excavations have brought to light (cf Warren's Underground Jerus; G. A. Smith's Jerus, etc).

For aid in his undertaking, Solomon invited the cooperation of Hiram, king of Tyre, who willingly lent his assistance, as he had before

lent his assistance, as he had before

5. Phoenician Assistmission to send his servants to cut
down timber in Lebanon, aiding in
transport, and in the quarrying and
hewing of stones, and sending a skilful Tyrian artist,

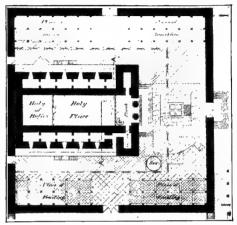
another Hiram, to superintend the designing and graving of objects made of the precious metals, etc. For this assistance Solomon made a suitable recompense (1 K 5; 2 Ch 2). Excavations seem to show that a large part of the limestone of which the temple was built came from quarries in the immediate neighborhood of Jerus (Warren, Underground Jerus, 60). The stones were cut, hewn and polished at the places whence they were taken, so that "there was neither hammer nor axe nor any tool of iron heard in the house, while it was in building" (1 K 5 17.18; 67). Opinions differ as to the style of architecture of the building. It was probably unique, but Phoen art also must have left its impress upon it (see Architecture).

II. The Temple Building.—In contrast with the tabernacle, which was a portable "tent," consisting of a framework of acacia wood, with rich coverings hung over it, and General standing in a "court" inclosed by curtains (see TABERNACLE), the Temple was a substantial "house" built of stone

Temple was a substantial "house" built of stone (probably the hard white limestone of the district), with chambers in three stories, half the height of the building (1 K 6 5.6), round the sides and back, and, in front, a stately porch (1 K 6 3), before which stood two lofty bronze pillars—Jachin and Boaz (1 K 7 21; 2 Ch 3 4.15-17). Within, the house was lined with cedar, overlaid with gold, graven with figures of cherubim, palms, and open flowers (1 K 6 15.18.21.22.29), and a partition of cedar or stone divided the interior into two apartments—one the holy place (the hēkhāl), the other the most holy place, or "oracle" (debhār) (1 K 6 16-18). The floor was of stone, covered with fir (or cypress), likewise overlaid with gold (1 K 6 15.30). The platform on which the whole building stood was probably raised above the level of the court in front, and the building may have been approached by steps. Details are not given. The more particular description follows.

The Temple, like the tabernacle, stood facing E., environed by "courts" ("inner" and "greater"), which are dealt with below. Internally, the di-

mensions of the structure were, in length and width, double those of the tabernacle, viz. length 60 cubits, width 20 cubits. The height, 2. Dimensions, Di-twisions and The precise length of the cubit is un-Adornments certain (see Cubit); here, as in the art. TABERNACLE, it is taken as approximately 18 inches. In internal measurement, therefore, the Temple was approximately 90 ft. long, 30 ft. broad, and 45 ft. high. This allows nothing



Plan of Solomon's Temple.

for the thickness of the partition between the two chambers. For the external measurement, the thickness of the walls and the width of the surrounding chambers and their walls require to be added. It cannot positively be affirmed that the dimensions of the Temple, including the porch, coincided precisely with those of Ezekiel's temple (cf Keil on 1 K 6 9.10); still, the proportions must have closely approximated, and may have been in agreement

The walls of the building, as stated, were lined within with cedar; the holy place was ceiled with fir or cypress (2 Ch 3 5; the "oracle" perhaps with cedar); the flooring likewise was of fir (1 K 6 15). All was overlaid with gold, and walls and doors (see below) were adorned with gravings of cherubim, palm trees, and open flowers (1 K 6 19-35; 2 Ch 3 6 adds "precious stones"). Of the two chambers into which the house was divided, the outermost (or hēkhāl) was 40 cubits (60 ft.) long, and 20 cubits (30 ft.) wide (ver 17); the innermost (or debār) was 20 cubits in length, breadth and height—a cube (ver 20). As the height of the Temple internally was 30 cubits, it is obvious that above the most holy place there was a vacant space 20 cubits long and 10 high. This apparently was utilized as a chamber or chambers for storage or other purposes. It has been held by some (Kurtz, Fergusson, etc) that the ceiling along the entire Temple was at the height of 20 cubits, with chambers above (cf the allusion to "upper chambers" in 1 Ch 28 11; 2 Ch 3 9); this, however, seems unwarranted (cf Bähr on 1 K 6 14-19; the "upper chambers" were "overlaid with gold," 2 Ch 3 9, which points to something nobler in character). The inner chamber was a place of "thick darkness" (1 K 8 12).

The thickness of the Temple walls is not given, but the analogy of Ezekiel's temple (Ezk 41) and what is told of the side-chambers render it probable that the thickness was not less than 6 cubits (9 ft.). Around the Temple, on its two

sides and at the back, were built chambers ($g^e l \bar{a}^i \bar{c} t h$, lit. "ribs"), the construction of which is summarily described. They were built in three

described. They were built in three stories, each story 5 cubits in height (allowance must also be made for flooring and roofing), the lowest being 5 cubits in breadth, the next 6 cubits,

and the highest 7 cubits. This is explained by the fact that the chambers were not to be built into the wall of the Temple, but were to rest on ledges or rebatements in the wall, each rebate a cubit in breadth, so that the wall became thinner, and the chambers broader, by a cubit, each stage in the ascent (1 K 6 5-10). The door admitting into these chambers was apparently in the middle of the right side of the house, and winding stairs led up to the second and third stories (ver 8). It is not stated how many chambers there were; Jos (Ant, VIII, iii, 2) gives the number as 30, which is the number in Ezekiel's temple (Ezk 41 6). The outer wall of the chambers, which in Ezk is 5 cubits thick (41 9), may have been the same here, though some make it less. It is a question whether the rebatements were in the Temple wall only, or were divided between it and the outer wall; the former seems the more probable opinion, as nothing is said of rebatements in the outer wall. Above the chambers on either side were "windows of fixed lattice-work" (ver 4), i.e. openings which could not be closed ("windows broad within and narrow without"). The purposes for which the chambers were constructed are not mentioned. They may have been used partly for storage, partly for the accommodation of those engaged in the service of the Temple (cf 1 Ch 9 27).

A conspicuous feature of the Temple was the porch in front of the building, with its twin pillars,

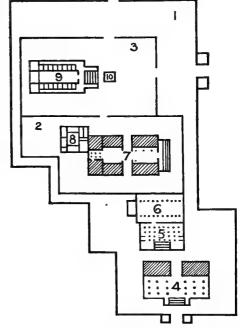
4. The Porch and Pillars Jachin and Boaz. Of the porch itself a very brief description is given. It is stated to have been 20 cubits broadthe width of the house—and 10 cubits deep (1 K 6 3). Its height is not

pillars the width of the house—and 10 cubits deep (1 K 6 3). Its height is not given in 1 K, but it is said in 2 Ch 3 4 to have been 120 cubits, or approximately 180 ft. Some accept this enormous height (Ewald, Stanley, etc), but the majority more reasonably infer that there has been a corruption of the number. It may have been the same height as the Temple—30 cubits. It was apparently open in front, and, from what is said of its being "overlaid within with pure gold" (2 Ch 3 4), it may be concluded that it shared in the splendor of the main building, and had architectural features of its own which are not recorded. Some find here, in the wings, treasury chambers, and above, "upper chambers," but such restorations are wholly conjectural. It is otherwise with the monumental brass (bronze) pillars—Jachin and Boaz—of which a tolerably full description is preserved (1 K 7 15-22; 2 Ch 3 15-17; 4 11-13; cf Jer 52 20-23), still, however, leaving many points doubtful. The pillars which stood in front of the porch, detached from it, were hollow bronze castings, each 18 cubits (27 ft.) in height (35 cubits in 2 Ch 3 15 is an error), and 12 cubits (18 ft.) in circumference, and were surmounted by capitals 5 cubits (7 ft.) high, richly ornamented on their lower, bowl-shaped (1 K 7 20.41.42) parts, with two rows of pomegranates, inclosing festoons of chain-work, and, in their upper parts, rising to the Jachin And Boaz).

It was seen that the holy place $(\hbar \bar{e} k h \bar{a} l)$ was divided from the most holy $(d^e b h \bar{\imath} r)$ by a partition, probably of cedar wood, though some think of a stone wall, one or even two cubits thick. In this partition were folding doors, made of olive wood, with their lintels 4 cubits wide (1 K 6 31; some

interpret differently, and understand the upper part of the doorway to be a pentagon). The doors, like the walls, had carvings of cherubim, palm trees, and flowers, and the whole was gold-plated (ver 32). Behind the partition hung the sanctuary veil (2 Ch 3 14). At the entrance of the Temple, similarly, were folding doors, with their lintels 5 cubits in width, only this time the posts only were of clive, while the doors, divided into two leaves, were of fir (or cypress) wood (1 K 6 33-35). The carving and gold-plating were as on the inner doors, and all the doors had hinges of gold (1 K 7 50).

III. Courts, Gates and Royal Buildings.—The Temple was inclosed in "courts"—an "inner" (1 K 6 36; 7 12; 2 Ch 4 9, "court of the priests";



Great Court including Royal Buildings.
1. Great Court. 2. The "Other" or Middle Court. 3. The Inner (or Temple)
Court. 4. House of Lebanon. 5. Forch of Pillars. 6. Throne Porch.
7. Royal Palace. 8. Harem. 9. Temple, 10. Altar.

Jer 36 10, "the upper court"; Ezk 8 3.16; 10 3), and an outer or "greater court" (1 K 7 9.12; 2 Ch 4 9)—regarding the situation, dimensions and relations of which, alike to one another and to the royal buildings described in 1 K 7, the scanty notices in the history leave room for great diversity of opinion (see Court of the Sanctuary).

of opinion (see COURT OF THE SANCTUARY).

The "inner court" (hāçēr ha-p*nīmīth) is repeatedly referred to (see above). Its dimensions are not given, but they may be presumed

1. The to be twice those of the tabernacle

Inner Court court, viz. 200 cubits (300 ft.) in length and 100 cubits (150 ft.) in breadth. The name in Jer 36 10, "the upper court," indicates that it was on a higher level than the "great court," and as the Temple was probably on a platform higher still, the whole would present

a striking terraced aspect.
(1) The walls of the court were built of three rows of hewn stone, with a coping of cedar beams (1 K 6 36). Their height is not stated; it is doubtful if it would admit of the colonnades which some have supposed; but "chambers" are mentioned (Jer 35 4; 36 10—if, indeed, all belong to the

"inner" court), which imply a substantial structure. It was distinctively "the priests' court" (2 Ch 4 9); probably, in part, was reserved for them; to a certain degree, however, the laity had evidently free access into it (Jer 36 10; 38 14; Ezk 8 16, etc). The mention of "the new court" (2 Ch 20 5, time of Jehoshaphat), and of "the two courts of the house of Jeh" (2 K 21 5; 2 Ch 33 5, time of Manasseh), suggests subsequent enlargement and division.

(2) Though gates are not mentioned in the narratives of the construction, later allusions show that there were several, though not all were of the time of Solomon. The principal entrance would, of course, be that toward the E. (see EAST GATE). In Jer 26 10 there is allusion to "the entry of the new gate of Jeh's house." This doubtless was "the upper gate" built by Jotham (2 K 15 35) and may reasonably be identified with the "gate that looketh toward the N." and the "gate of the altar" (i.e. through which the sacrifices were brought) in Ezk 8 3.5, and with "the upper gate of Benjamin" in Jer 20 3. Mention is also made of a "gate of the guard" which descended to the king's house (2 K 11 19; see below). Jeremiah speaks of a "third entry that is in the house of Jeh" (38 14), and of "three keepers of the threshold" (52 24), but it is not clear which court is intended.

The outer or "great court" of the Temple ($h\bar{a}c\bar{c}r$ $ha-g^edh\bar{o}l\bar{a}h$) opens up more difficult problems. Some regard this court as extending

2. The Great Court some regard this court as extending to the E. in front of the "inner court"; others, as Keil, think of it as a great inclosure surrounding the "inner court" and stretching perhaps 150 cubits E.

of the latter (cf his Bib. Archaeology, 1, 170-71). These writers remove the court from all connection with the royal buildings of 1 K 7, and distinguish it from "the great court of 7 9.12." A quite different construction is that advocated by Stade and Benzinger, and adopted by most recent authorities (cf arts. on "Temple" in HDB, IV, in EB, IV, in one-vol HDB, in DB [Dalman]; G. A. Smith, Jerus, II, 59 ff, etc). The great court, on this view, not only surrounds the Temple, with its (inner) court, but, extending to the S., incloses the whole complex of the royal buildings of 1 K 7. This has the advantage of bringing together the references to the "great court" in 1 K 7 9.12 and the other references to the outer court. The court, thus conceived, must have been very large. The extensive part occupied by the royal buildings being on a lower level than the "inner court," entrance to it is thought to have been by "the gate of the guard unto the king's house" mentioned in 2 K 11 19. Its wall, like that of the inner court, was built in three courses of hewn stone, and one course of cedar (1 K 7 12). Its gates overlaid with brass (2 Ch 4 9, i.e., "bronze") show that the masonry must have been both high and substantial. On the "other court" of 1 K 7 8, see next paragraph.

"other court" of 1 K 7 8, see next paragraph.

The group of buildings which, on the theory now stated, were inclosed by the southern part of the great court, are those described in 1 K 7 1-12.

The the southern part of the great court, are those described in 1 K 7 1-12.

They were of hewn stone and cedar wood (vs 9-11), and embraced: (1) The king's house, or royal palace (ver 8), in close contiguity with the Temple-court (2 K 11 of Pharaoh's daughter (ver 9)—the apartments of the women. Both of these were inclosed in a "court" of their own, styled in ver 8 "the other court," and in 2 K 20 4 m "the middle court." (3) S. of this stood the throne-room, and porch or hall of judgment, paneled in cedar "from floor to floor," i.e. from floor to ceiling (ver 7), overlaid with gold, and on either side of the throne, as well as of the six steps that led up to it, were lions. The hall served as an audience chamber, and for the administration of justice. (4) Yet farther S. stood the porch or hall of pillars, 50 cubits (75 ft.) long and 30 cubits (45 ft.)

broad, with a sub-porch of its own (ver 6). It is best regarded as a place of promenade and vestibule to the hall of judgment. (5) Lastly, there was the imposing and elaborate building known as "the house of the forest of Lebanon" (vs 2-5), which appears to have received this name from its multitude of cedar pillars. The scanty hints as to its internal arrangements have baffled the ingenuity of the commentators. The house was 100 cubits (150 ft.) in length, 50 cubits (75 ft.) in breadth, and 30 cubits (45 ft.) in height. Going round the sides and back there were apparently four rows of pillars (LXX has three rows), on which, supported by cedar beams, rested three tiers or stories of side-chambers (lit. "ribs," as in 6 5; cf RVm). In ver 3 it is disputed whether the number "forty and five; fifteen in a row" (as the Heb may be read) refers to the pillars or to the chambers; if to the former, the LXX reading of "three rows" is preferable. The windows of the tiers faced each other on the opposite sides (vs 4.5). But the whole construction is obscure and doubtful. The spacious house was used partly as an armory; here Solomon put his 300 shields of beaten gold (10 17).

IV. Furniture of the Temple.—We treat here.

IV. Furniture of the Temple.—We treat here, first, of the sanctuary in its two divisions, then of the (inner) court.

the (inner) court.

(1) The "d*bhīr."—In the most holy place, or d*bhīr, of the sanctuary stood, as before, the old

Mosaic ark of the covenant, with its two golden cherubim above the mercy-seat (see Ark of the Covenant; Tabernacle). Now, however, the symbolic element was increased by the ark being placed between two other figures of cherubim, made of olive wood, overlaid with gold, 10 cubits (15 ft.) high, their wings, each 5 cubits (7½ ft.) long, outstretched so that they reached from wall to wall of the oracle (20 cubits), the inner wings meeting in the center (1 K 6 23-28; 2 Ch 3 10-13). See Cherubim.

(2) The "hēkhāl."—In the holy place, or hēkhāl, the changes were greater. (a) Before the oracle, mentioned as belonging to it (1 K 6 22), stood the altar of incense, covered with cedar, and overlaid with gold (1 K 6 20.22; 7 48; 2 Ch 4 19; see Altar of Incense). It is an arbitrary procedure of criticism to attempt to identify this altar with the table of shewbread. (b) Instead of one golden candlestick, as in the tabernacle, there were now 10, 5 placed on one side and 5 on the other, in front of the oracle. All, with their utensils, were of pure gold (1 K 7 49; 2 Ch 4 7). (c) Likewise, for one table of shewbread, there were now 10, 5 on one side, 5 on the other, also with their utensils made of gold (1 K 7 48, where, however, only one table is mentioned; 2 Ch 4 8, "100 basins of gold"). As these objects, only enlarged in number and dimensions, are fashioned after the model of those of the tabernacle, further particulars regarding them are not given here.

(1) The altar.—The most prominent object in the Temple-court was the altar of burnt offering, or brazen altar (see Brazen Altar).

2. The The site of the altar, as already seen, was the rock es sakhrā, where Araunah had his threshing-floor. The notion of some moderns that the rock itself was introduced later, is devoid of plausibility. An altar is always something reared or built (cf. 2. S. 24. 18.25). The dimensions of the altar, which are not mentioned in 1 K, are given in 2 Ch. 4. 1 as 20 cubits (30 ft.) long, 20 cubits (30 ft.) broad, and 10 cubits (15 ft.) high. As utensils connected with it—an incidental confirmation of its historicity—are pots, shovels, basins and fleshhooks (1 K. 7. 40. 45; 2 Ch. 4. 11.16). It will be observed that the assumed halving proportions of the tabernacle are here quite departed from (cf. Ex. 27. 1).

(2) The molten (bronze) sea.—A new feature in the sanctuary court—taking the place of the "laver" in the tabernacle—was the "molten sea," the name being given to it for its great size. It was

an immense basin of bronze, 5 cubits (7½ ft.) high, 10 cubits (15 ft.) in diameter at the brim, and 30 cubits (45 ft.) in circumference, resting on 12 bronze oxen, and placed between the altar and the Temple-porch, toward the S. (1 K 7 23–26.39; 2 Ch 4 2–5.10). The bronze was a handbreadth in thickness. The brim was shaped like the flower of a lily, and encompassing the basin were ornamental knops. Its capacity is given as 2,000 baths (1 K 7 26; by error in 2 Ch 4 5, 3,000 baths). The oxen on which it rested faced the four cardinal points—three looking each way. The "sea," like the laver, doubtless supplied the water for the washing of the priests' hands and feet (cf Ex 30 18; 38 8). The view of certain scholars (Kosters, Gunkel, etc) that the "sea" is connected with Bab mythical ideas of the great deep is quite fanciful; no hint appears of such significance in any part of the narrative. The same applies to the lavers in the next paragraph.

(3) The lavers and their bases.—The tabernacle laver had its place taken by the "sea" just described, but the Temple was also provided with 10 lavers or basins, set on "bases" of elaborate design and moving upon wheels—the whole made of bronze (1 K 7 27-37). Their use seems to have been for the washing of sacrifices (2 Ch 4 6), for which purpose they were placed, 5 on the north side, and 5 on the south side, of the Temple-court. The bases were 4 cubits (6 ft.) long, 4 cubits broad, and 3 cubits (4½ ft.) high. These bases were of the nature of square paneled boxes, their sides being ornamented with figures of lions, oxen and cherubim, with wreathed work beneath. They had four feet, to which wheels were attached. The basin rested on a rounded pedestal, a cubit high, with an opening 1½ cubits in diameter to receive the laver (1 K 7 31). Mythological ideas, as just said, are here out of place.

of place.

V. History of the Temple.—The Temple was founded in the 4th year of Solomon's reign (1 K 6

1), and occupied 7½ years in building

1. Building (6 38); the royal buildings occupied 13 years (7 1)—20 years in all (the cation two periods, however, may in part synchronize). On the completion of the

Temple, the ark was brought up, in the presence of a vast assemblage, from Zion, and, with innumerable sacrifices and thanksgiving, was solemnly deposited in the Holy of Holies (1 K 8 1–21; 2 Ch 5; 6 1–11). The Temple itself was then dedicated by Solomon in the noble prayer recorded in 1 K 8 22–61; 2 Ch 6 12–42, followed by lavish sacrifices, and a 14 days' feast. At its inauguration the house was filled with the "glory" of Jeh (1 K 8 10. 11: 2 Ch 5 13.14).

The religious declension of the later days of Solomon (1 K 11 1-8) brought in its train disasters for the nation and the Temple.

Percented On Solomon's death the kingdom was

asters for the nation and the Temple.

2. Repeated On Solomon's death the kingdom was
Plunderings disrupted, and the Temple ceased to
be the one national sanctuary. It

had its rivals in the calf-shrines set up by Jeroboam at Beth-el and Dan (1 K 12 25-33). In the 5th year of Rehoboam an expedition was made against Judah by Shishak, king of Egypt, who, coming to Jerus, carried away the treasures of the Temple, together with those of the king's house, including the 300 shields of gold which Solomon had made (1 K 14 25-28; 2 Ch 12 2-9). Rehoboam's wife, Maacah, was an idolatress, and during the reign of Abijam, her son, introduced many abominations into the worship of the Temple (1 K 15 2.12.13). Asa cleared these away, but himself further depleted the Temple and royal treasuries by sending all that was left of their silver and gold to Ben-hadad, king of Syria, to buy his help against Baasha, king

of Israel (1 K 15 18.19). Again the Temple was foully desecrated by Athaliah (2 Ch 24 7), necessitating the repairs of Jehoash (2 K 12 4 ff; 2 Ch 24 4 ff); and a new plundering took place in the reign of Ahaziah, when Jehoash of Israel carried off all the gold and silver in the Temple and palace (2 K 14 14). Uzziah was smitten with leprosy for presuming to enter the holy place to offer incense (2 Ch 26 16-20). Jehoshaphat, earlier, is thought to have enlarged the court (2 Ch 20 5), and Jotham built a new gate (2 K 15 35; 2 Ch 27 3). The ungodly Ahaz went farther than any of his predecessors in sacrilege, for, besides robbing the Temple and palace of their treasures to secure the aid of the king of Assyria (2 K 16 8), he removed the brazen altar from its time-honored site, and set up a heathen altar in its place, removing likewise the bases and ornaments of the lavers, and the oxen from under the brazen (bronze) sea (2 K 16 10-17).

An earnest attempt at reform of religion was made by Hezekiah (2 K 18 1-6; 2 Ch 29 31), but even he was driven to take all the gold and 3. Attempts silver in the Temple and king's house

to meet the tribute imposed on him by at Reform Sennacherib, stripping from the doors and pillars the gold with which he himself had overlaid them (2 K 18 14-16; 2 Ch 32 31). Things became worse than ever under Manasseh, who reared idolatrous altars in the Temple-courts, made an Asherah, introduced the worship of the host of heaven, had horses dedicated to the sun in the Temple-court, and connived at the worst pollutions of heathenism in the sanctuary (2 K 21 3-7; 23 7.11). Then came the more energetic reforms of the reign of Josiah, when, during the repairs of the Temple, the discovery was made of the Book of the Law, which led to a new covenant with Jeh, a suppression of the high places, and the thorough cleansing-out of abuses from the Temple (2 K 22; 23 1-25; 2 Ch 34; 35). Still, the heart of the people was not changed, and, as seen in the history, and in the pages of the Prophets, after Josiah's death, the old evils were soon back in full force (cf

e.g. Ezk 8 7–18).

The end, however, was now at hand. Nebuchadnezzar made Jehoiakim his tributary; then, on his rebelling, came, in the reign of 4. Final Jehoiachin, took Jerus, carried off Overthrow the treasures of the Temple and palace, with the gold of the Temple vessels (part had already been taken on his first approach, 2 Ch 36 7), and led into captivity the king, his household and the chief part of the population (2 K 24 1–17). Eleven years later (586 BC), after a siege of 18 months, consequent on Zedekiah's rebellion (2 K 25 1), the Bab army completed the destruction of Jerus and the Temple. Only a few lesser utensils of value, and the brazen (bronze) pillars, bases and sea remained; these were now taken away, the larger objects being broken up (2 K 25 13–16). The Temple itself, with its connected buildings, and the houses in Jerus generally, were set on fire (ver 9). The ark doubtless perished in the conflagration, and is no more heard of. The residue of the population—all but the poorest—were carried away captive (vs 11.12; see Captivity). Thus ended the first Temple, after about 400 years of chequered existence.

II. EZEKIEL'S PROPHETIC SKETCH

1. Introductory.—Wellhausen has said that che 40-48 of Ezk "are the most important in his book, and have been, not incorrectly, called the key to the OT" (Prolegomena, ET, 167). He means that Ezekiel's legislation represents the first draft, or sketch, of a priestly code, and that subsequently,

on its basis, men of the priestly school formulated the PC as we have it. Without accepting this view, dealt with elsewhere, it is to be ad-

1. Relation mitted that Ezekiel's sketch of a reto History stored temple in chs 40-43 has imporof Temple tant bearings on the history of the Temple, alike in the fact that it presup-

poses and sheds back light upon the structure and arrangements of the first Temple (Solomon's), and that in important respects it forecasts the plans of the second (Zerubbabel's) and of Herod's temples

While, however, there is this historical relation, it is to be observed that Ezekiel's temple-sketch is

unique, presenting features not found in any of the actually built temples. 2. Conception Unique The temple is, in truth, an ideal conand Ideal struction never intended to be literally realized by returned exiles, or any other

body of people. Visionary in origin, the ideas embodied, and not the actual construction, are the main things to the prophet's mind. It gives Ezekiel's conception of what a perfectly restored temple and the service of Jeh would be under conditions which could scarcely be thought of as ever likely literally to arise. A literal construction, one may say, was impossible. The site of the temple is not the old Zion, but "a very high mountain" (40 2), occupying indeed the place of Zion, but entirely altered in elevation, configuration and general character. The temple is part of a scheme of a transformed land, partitioned in parallel tracts among the restored 12 tribes (47 13—48 7.23–29), with a large area in the center, likewise stretching across the whole country, hallowed to Jeh and His service (48 8-22). Supernatural features, as that of the flowing stream from the temple in ch 47, abound. It is unreasonable to suppose that the prophet looked for such changes—some of them quite obviously symbolical—as actually impending.

The visionary character of the temple has the effect of securing that its measurements are perfectly

symmetrical. The cubit used is de-3. Its Sym-fined as "a cubit and a handbreadth" metrical (40 5), the contrast being with one or Measuremore smaller cubits (see Cubit). In the diversity of opinion as to the precise ments length of the cubit, it may be assumed

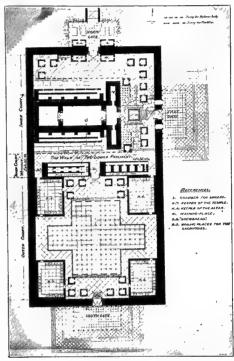
here that it was the same sacred cubit employed in the tabernacle and first Temple, and may be treated, as before, as approximately equivalent to 18 inches.

II. Plan of the Temple.—Despite obscurities and corruption in the text of Ezk, the main outlines of the ideal temple can be made out without much difficulty (for details the comms. must be consulted; A. B. Davidson's "Ezekiel" in the Cambridge Bible series may be recommended; of also Keil; a very lucid description is given in Skinner's "Book of Ezk," in the Expositor's Bible, 406-13; for a different view, see Caldecott, The Second Temple in Jerus).

The temple was inclosed in two courts—an outer and an inner—quite different, however, in character and arrangement from those of the first.

1. Outer Temple. The outer court, as shown by the separate measurements (cf Keil on 40 27), was a large square of 500 cubits (750 ft.), bounded by a wall 6 cubits (9 ft.) thick and 6 cubits high (40 5). The wall was pierced in the middle of its north, east and south sides by massive gateways, extending into the court to a distance of 50 cubits (75 ft.), with a width of 25 cubits (37½ ft.). On either side of the passage in these gateways were three guardrooms, each 6 cubits square (ver 7 m), and each gateway terminated in a "porch." 8 cubits (12 ft.) long (ver 9), and apparently (thus LXX, ver 14; the Heb text seems corrupt), 20 cubits across. The ascent to the gateways was by seven steps (ver 6; cf vs 22.26), showing that the level of the court was to this extent higher than the ground outside. Round the court, on the three sides named—its edge

in line with the ends of the gateways—was a "pavement," on which were built, against the wall, chambers, 30 in number (vs 17.18). At the four corners were inclosures (40 cubits by 30) where the sacrifices were cooked (cf 46 21-24)—a fact which suggests that the cells were mainly for purposes of feasting. (The "arches" ['ēlammim] of vs 16.21, etc [RVm "colonnade"], if distinguished from the "porch" ['ulām]—A. B. Davidson and others identify them—are still parts of the gateway—vs 21 etc.



Ezekiel's Temple Plan.

The inner court was a square of 100 cubits (150 ft.), situated exactly in the center of the larger court (40 47).

It, too, was surrounded by a wall, and had gateways, with guardrooms, etc. similar to those of the outer court, saving that the gateways projected outward (50 cubits), not inward. The gates of outer and inner courts were opposite to each other on the N., E., and S., a hundred cubits apart (vs 19.23.27; the whole space, therefore, from wall to wall was 50 and 100 and 50 =200 cubits). The ascent to the gates in this case was by eight steps (ver 37), indicating another rise in level for the inner court. There were two chambers at the sides of the north and south gates respectively, one for Levites, the other for priests (vs 44-46; cf m); at the gates also (perhaps only at the north gate) were of this inner court was the great altar of burnt offering (43 14-17)—a structure 18 cubits (27 ft.) square at the base, and rising in four stages (1, 2, 4, and 4 cubits high respectively, vs 14.15), till it formed a square of 12 cubits (18 ft.) at the top or hearth, with four horns at the corners (vs 15.16). Steps led up to it on the E. (ver 17). See Altar of Burnt Offering.

The inner court was extended westward by a second square of 100 cubits, within which, on a platform elevated another 6 cubits (9 ft.), stood the temple

The inner court was extended westward by a second square of 100 cubits, within which, on a platform elevated another 6 cubits (9 ft.), stood the temple proper and its connected buildings (41 8).

Building This platform or basement is shown by the measurements to be 60 cubits broad (N. and S.) and 105 cubits long (E. and W.)—

5 cubits projecting into the eastern square.

The ascent to the temple-porch was by 10 suilding consisting, like Solomon's, of three parts—a porch at the entrance, 20 cubits (30 ft.) broad by 12 cubits (18 ft.) deep (so most, following LXX, as required by the other measurements); the holy place or hēkhāl, 40 cubits (60 ft.) long by 20 cubits (30 ft.) broad; and the most holy place, 20 cubits by 20 (40 48.49; 41 1-4); the measurements are internal. At the sides of the porch stood two pillars (40 49), corresponding to the Jachin and Boaz of the older Temple. The holy and the most

holy places were separated by a partition 2 cubits in thickness (41 3; so most interpret). The most holy place was empty; of the furniture of the holy place mention is made only of an altar of wood (ver 22; see Altar A, III, 7; B, III, 3). Walls and doors were ornamented with cherubim and palm trees (vs 18.25). The wall of the temple building was 6 cubits (9 ft.) in thickness (41 5), and on the north, south, and west sides, as in Solomon's Temple, there were side-chambers in three stories. 30 in number (41 6; in each story?), with an outer wall 5 cubits (7½ ft.) in thickness (ver 9). These chambers were, on the basement, 4 cubits broad; in the 2d and 3d stories, owing, as in the older Temple, to rebatements in the wall, perhaps 5 and 6 cubits broad respectively (vs 6.7; in Solomon's Temple the side-chambers were 5. 6, and 7 cubits, 1 K 6 6). These dimensions give a total external breadth to the house of 50 cubits (with a length of 100 cubits), leaving 5 cubits on either side and in the front as a passage round the edge of the platform on which the building stood (described as "that which was left") (vs 9.11). The western end, as far as the outer wall, was occupied, the whole breadth of the inner court, by a large building (ver 12); all but a passage of 20 cubits (30 ft.) between it and the temple, belonging to what is termed "the separate place" (gizrâh, vs 12.13, etc). The temple-platform being only 60 cubits broad, there remained a space of 20 cubits (30 ft.) on the north and south sides, running the entire length of the platform; this, continued round the back, formed the gizrâh for 50 cubits (75 ft.) were other chambers, apparently in two rows, the inner 100 cubits, the outer 50 cubits, long, with a walk of 10 cubits between (42 1-14; the passage, however, is obscure; some, as Keil, place the "walk" outside the chambers). These chambers were assigned to the priests for the eating of "the most holy things" (ver 13). See Gallery.

Such, in general, was the sanctuary of the prophet's vision, the outer and inner courts of which, and, crowning all, the temple itself, rising in successive terraces, presented to his inner eye an imposing spectacle which, in labored description, he seeks to enable his readers likewise to visualize.

III. THE TEMPLE OF ZERUBBABEL

I. Introductory. -- Forty-eight years after Nebuchadnezzar's destruction of the first Temple, the Bab empire came to an end (538 BC),

and Persia became dominant under Cyrus. In the year following, Cyrus 1. The Decree of made a decree sanctioning the return Cyrus of the Jews, and ordering the rebuilding of the Temple at Jerus (2 Ch 36 23; Ezr 1 He not only caused the sacred vessels of the old Temple to be restored, but levied a tax upon his western provinces to provide materials for the building, besides what was offered willingly (Ezr 1 6-11; 6 3 ff). The relatively small number of exiles who chose to return for this work (40,000) were led by Sheshbazzar, "the prince of Judah" (Ezr 1 11), whom some identify with Zerubbabel, likewise named "governor of Judah" (Hag 1 1). With

these, if they were distinct, was associated Joshua the high priest (in Ezr and Neh called "Jeshua").

The first work of Joshua and Zerubbabel was the building of the altar on its old site in the 7th month

of the return (Ezr 3 3 ff). Masons 2. Founding and carpenters were engaged for the of the building of the house, and the Phoenicians were requisitioned for cedar wood from Lebanon (ver 7). In the Temple 2d year the foundations of the temple were laid

with dignified ceremonial, amid rejoicing, and the weeping of the older men, who remembered the

former house (vs 8-13).

The work soon met with opposition from the mixed population of Samaria, whose offer to join it had been refused; hostile representa-

tions, which proved successful, were made to the Pers king; from which 3. Opposition and Completion causes the building was suspended of the Work about 15 years, till the 2d year of Darius Hystaspis (520 BC; Ezr 4). On the other hand, the prophets Haggai and Zecharith the building and the building and the publishers.

riah stimulated the flagging zeal of the builders, and, new permission being obtained, the work was resumed, and proceeded so rapidly that in 516 BC the temple was completed, and was dedicated with joy (Ezr 5, 6).

II. The Temple Structure.—Few details are available regarding this temple of Zerubbabel. It

stood on the ancient site, and may have been influenced in parts of its plan by the descriptions of the temple in Ezk. The inferiority to the first 1. The House Temple, alluded to in Ezr 3 12 and Hag 2 3, plainly cannot refer to its size, for its dimensions as specified in the decree of Cyrus, viz. 60 cubits in height, and 60 cubits in breadth (Ezr 6 3; there is no warrant for confining the 60 cubits of height to the porch only; cf Jos, Ant, XI, i), exceed considerably those of the Temple of Solomon (sidechambers are no doubt included in the breadth). The greater glory of the former Temple can only refer to adornment, and to the presence in it of objects wanting in the second. The Mish declares that the second temple lacked five things present in the first—the ark, the sacred fire, the $sh^k kh\bar{\imath}n\bar{n}h$, the Holy Spirit, and the Urim and Thummim $(Y\bar{o}m\bar{a}',$ xxi.2). The temple was divided, like its predecessor,

into a holy and a most holy place, doubtless in similar proportions. In 1 Macc 1 22
2. Its Dimention is made of the "veil" between visions and the two places. The most holy place,

as just said, was empty, save for a stone on which the high priest, on the Furniture great Day of Atonement, placed his censer (Yōmā', v.2). The holy place had its old furniture, but on the simpler scale of the tabernacle—a golden altar of incense, a single table of shewbread, one 7-branched candlestick. These were taken away by Antiochus Epiphanes (1 Macc 1 21.22). At the cleansing of the sanctuary after its profanation by this prince, they were renewed by Judas Maccabaeus (1 Macc 4 41 ff). Judas pulled down also the old desecrated altar, and built a new one (vs 44 ff).

The second temple had two courts—an outer and an inner (1 Macc 4 38.48; 9 54; Jos, Ant, XIV, xvi, 2)—planned apparently on the model of those in Ezk. A. R. S. Kennedy infers from the measurements in the Haram that "the area of the great court of the second temple, before it was enlarged by Herod on the S. and E., followed that of Ezekiel's outer court—that is, it measured 500 cubits each way with the sacred rock precisely in the center" (Expos T, XX, 182). The altar on this old sakhra site—the first thing of all to be "set on its base" (ExT 3 3)—is shown by 1 Macc 4 47 and a passage quoted by Jos from Hecataeus (CAp, I, xxii) to have been built of unhewn stones. Hecataeus gives its dimensions as a square of 20 cubits and 10 cubits in height. There seems to have been free access to this inner court till the time of Alexander Jannaeus (104-78 BC), who, pelted by the crowd as he sacrificed, fenced off the part of the court in front of the altar, so that no layman could come farther (Jos, Ant, XIII, xiii, 5). The courts were colonnaded (Ant, XI, iv, 7; XIV, xvi, 2), and, with the house, had numerous chambers (cf Neh 12 44; 13 4 ff, etc).

A brief contemporary description of this Temple and its worship is given in Aristeas, 83-104. This writer's interest, however, was absorbed chiefly by the devices for carrying away the sacrificial blood and by the technique of the officiating priests.

The vicissitudes of this temple in its later history are vividly recorded in 1 Macc and in Jos. In Ecclus 50 is given a glimpse of a certain Simon, son of Onias, who repaired Later the temple, and a striking picture is furnished of the magnificence of the **Fortunes** worship in his time. The desecration and pillaging of the sanctuary by Antiochus, and its cleansing and restoration under Judas are alluded to above (see Hasmoneans; Maccabeans). At length Judaea became an integral part of the Rom empire. In 66 BC Pompey, having taken the temple-hill, entered the most holy place, but kept his hands off the temple-treasures (Ant, XIV, iv, 4). Some years later Crassus carried away everything of value he could find (Ant, XIV, vii, 1). The people revolted, but Rome remained victorious. This brings us to the time of Herod, who was nominated king of Judaea by Rome in 39 BC, but did not attain actual power until two years later.

IV. THE TEMPLE OF HEROD

I. Introductory.—Herod became king de facto by the capture of Jerus in 37 BC. Some years later he built the fortress Antonia 1. Initiation to the N. of the temple (before 31 BC).

of the Work Midway in his reign, assigning a
religious motive for his purpose, he rengious motive for his purpose, he formed the project of rebuilding the temple itself on a grander scale (Jos gives conflicting dates; in Ant, XV, xi, 1, he says "in his 18th year"; in BJ, I, xxi, 1, he names his 15th year; the latter date, as Schürer suggests $[GJV^4]$, I, 369], may refer to the extensive preparations). To allay the distrust of his subjects, he undertook that the materials for the new building should be collected before the old was taken down; he likewise trained 1,000 priests to be masons and carpenters for work upon the sanctuary; 10,000 skilled workmen altogether were employed upon the task. The building was commenced in 20-19 BC. The naos, or temple proper, was finished in a year and a half, but it took 8 years to complete the courts and cloisters. The total erection occupied a much longer time (cf Jn 2 20, "Forty and six years," etc.); indeed the work was not entirely completed till 64 AD—6 years before its destruction by the Romans.

Built of white marble, covered with heavy plates of gold in front and rising high above its marble-cloistered courts—themselves a succes-

Clostered courts—themselves a succession of terraces—the temple, compared by Jos to a snow-covered mountain (BJ, V, v, 6), was a conspicuous and dazzling object from every side. The general structure is succinctly described by G. A. Smith: "Herod's temple consisted of a house divided like its predecessor into the Holy of Holies, and the Holy Place; a porch; an immediate fore-court with an altar of burnt offering; a Court of Israel; in front of this a Court of Women; and round the whole of the preceding, a Court of the Gentiles" (Jerus, II, 502). On the "four courts," of Jos, CAp, II, viii.

On the "four courts," cf Jos, CAp, II, viii.

The original authorities on Herod's temple are chiefly the descriptions in Jos (Ant, XV, xi, 3, 5; BJ, V, v, etc., and the tractate Middoth in the Mish.

3. Authori— The data in these authorities, however, do not always agree. The most helpful modern descriptions, with plans, will be found, with differences in details, in Keil, Bib. Archaeology, I, 187 ff; in Fergusson, Temples of the Jews; in the arts. "Temple" in HDB (T. Witton Davies) and EB (G. H. Box); in the important series of papers by A. R. S. Kennedy in Expos T (vol XX), "Some Problems of Herod's Temple" (cf his art. "Temple" in one-vol DB); in Sanday's Sacred Sites of the Gospels (Waterhouse); latterly in G. A. Smith, Jerus, II, 499 ff.

Differences of opinion continue as to the sacred cubit. A. R. S. Kennedy thinks the cubit can be definitely fixed at 17.6 in. (Expos T. XX, 24 ff); G. A. Smith reckons it at 20.67 in. (Jerus, II, 504); T. Witton Davies estimates urements it at about 18 in. (HDB, IV, 713), etc. W. S. Caldecott takes the cubit of Jos and the Middoth to be 1½ ft. It will suffice in this sketch to treat the cubit, as before, as approximately equivalent to 18 in.

II. The Temple and Its Courts.—Jos states that

II. The Temple and Its Courts.—Jos states that the area of Herod's temple was double that of its predecessor (BJ, I, xxi, 1). The

1. Temple Mish (Mid., ii.2) gives the area as 500 cubits (roughly 750 ft.); Jos (Ant, XV, xi, 3) gives it as a stadium (about 600 Gr ft.); but neither measure is quite exact. It is generally agreed that on its east west and south sides Herod's that on its east, west and south sides Herod's

area corresponded pretty nearly with the limits of the present Haram area (see Jerusalem), but that it did not extend as far N. as the latter (Kennedy states the difference at about 26 as compared with 35 acres, and makes the whole perimeter to be about 1,420 yards, ut supra, 66). The shape was an irregular oblong, broader at the N. than at the The whole was surrounded by a strong wall, with several gates, the number and position of some of which are still matters of dispute. Jos mentions four gates on the W. (Ant, XV, xi, 5), the principal of which, named in Mid., i.3, "the gate of Kiponos," was connected by a bridge across the Tyropæon with the city (where now is Wilson's The same authority speaks of two gates on These are identified with the "Huldah" Arch). the S. (mole) gates of the Mish—the present Double and Triple Gates—which, opening low down in the wall, slope up in tunnel fashion into the interior of the court. The Mish puts a gate also on the north and one on the east side. The latter may be represented by the modern Golden Gate—a Byzantine structure, now built up. This great court—known later as the "Court of the Gentiles," because open to every-one—was adorned with splendid porticos or clois-The colonnade on the south side—known as the Royal Porch—was specially magnificent. It consisted of four rows of monolithic marble columns 162 in all—with Corinthian capitals, forming three aisles, of which the middle was broader and double the height of the other two. The roofing was of carved cedar. The north, west, and east sides had only double colonnades. That on the east side was the "Solomon's Porch" of the NT (Jn 10 23; Acts 3 11; 5 19). There were also chambers for officials, and perhaps a place of meeting for the Sanhedrin (bēth dīn) (Jos places this elsewhere). In the wide spaces of this court took place the buying and selling described in the Gospels (Mt 21 12 and ||'s;

Jn 2 13 ff).
(1) Wall, "ħēl," "ṣōrēgh," gates.—In the upper or northerly part of this large area, on a much higher level, bounded likewise by a 2. Inner wall, was a second or inner inclosurewan, was a second of the stricter sense (Jos, BJ, V, v, 2)—comprising the court of the women, the court of Israel Sanctuary Inclosure and the priests' court, with the temple itself (Jos, Ant, XV, xi, 5). The surrounding wall, according to Jos (BJ, V, v, 2), was 40 cubits high on the outside, and 25 on the inside—a difference of 15 cubits; its thickness was 5 cubits. Since, however, the inner courts were considerably higher than the court of the women, the difference in height may have been some cubits less in the latter than in the former (cf the different measurements in Kennedy, ut supra, 182), a fact which may explain the difficulty felt as to the number of the steps in the ascent (see below). Round the wall without, at least on three sides (some except the W.), at a height of 12 (Mid.) or 14 (Jos) steps, was an embankment or terrace, known as the $\hbar \bar{e}l$ (fortification), 10 cubits broad (Mid. says 6 cubits high), and inclosing the whole was a low balustrade or stone parapet (Jos says 3 cubits high) called the soregh, to which were attached at intervals tablets with notices in Gr and Lat, prohibiting entry to foreigners on pain of death (see Partition, Wall of). From within the sōrēgh ascent was made to the level of the hēl by the steps aforesaid, and five steps more led up to the gates (the reckoning is probably to the lower level of the women's court). Nine gates, with two-storied gatehouses "like towers" (Jos, BJ, V, v, 3), are mentioned, four on the N., four on the S., and one on the E.—the last probably to be identified, though this is still disputed (Waterhouse, etc), with the "Gate

of Nicanor" (Mid.), or "Corinthian Gate" (Jos),

which is undoubtedly "the Beautiful Gate" of Acts 3 2.10 (see for identification, Kennedy, ut supra, 270). This principal gate received its names from being the gift of a wealthy Alexandrian Jew, Nicanor, and from its being made of Corinthian brass. It was of great size—50 cubits high and 40 cubits wide—and was richly adorned, its brass glittering like gold (Mid., ii.3). See BEAUTIFUL GATE. The other gates were covered with gold and silver (Jos, BJ, V, v, 3).

(2) Court of the women.—The eastern gate,

approached from the outside by 12 steps $(\overline{M}id.,$ ii.3; Maimonides), admitted into the court of the women, so called because it was accessible to women as well as to men. Above its single colonnades were galleries reserved for the use of women. Its dimensions are given in the Mish as 135 cubits square (Mid., ii.5), but this need not be precise. At its four corners were large roofless rooms for storage and other purposes. Near the pillars of the colonnades were 13 trumpet-shaped boxes for receiving the money-offerings of the people (of the incident of the widow's mite, Mk 12 41 ff; Lk 21 1 ff); for which reason, and because this court seems to have been the place of deposit of the temple-treasures generally, it bore the name "treasury" (gazophuldkion, Jn 8 20). See TREASURY.

(3) The inner court.—From the women's court,

the ascent was made by 15 semicircular steps (Mid., ii.5; on these steps the Levites chanted, and beneath them their instruments were kept) to the inner court, comprising, at different levels, the court of Israel and the court of the priests. Here, again, at the entrance, was a lofty, richly ornamented gate, which some, as said, prefer to regard as the Gate of Nicanor or Beautiful Gate. Probably, however, the view above taken, which places this gate at the outer entrance, is correct. The Mish gives the total dimensions of the inner court as 187 cubits long (E. to W.) and 135 cubits wide (Mid., ii.6; v.1). Originally the court was one, but disturbances in the time of Alexander Jannaeus (104–78 BC) led, as formerly told, to the greater part being railed off for the exclusive use of the part being railed off for the exclusive use of the priests (Jos, Ant, XIII, xiii, 5). In the Mish the name "court of the priests" is used in a restricted sense to denote the space—11 cubits—between the altar and "the court of Israel" (see the detailed measurements in Mid., v.1). The latter—"the court of Israel"—2½ cubits lower than "the court of the priests," and separated from it by a pointed the priests, and separated from it by a pointed than the court of the priests. the priests, and separated from the by a pointed fence, was likewise a narrow strip of only 11 cubits (Mid., ii.6; v.1). Jos, with more probability, carries the 11 cubits of the "court of Israel" round the whole of the temple-court (BJ, V, vi). Waterhouse (Sacred Sites, 112) thinks 11 cubits too small for a court of male Israelites, and supposes a much larger inclosure, but without warrant in the authorities (cf Kennedy, ut supra, 183; G. A. Smith,

Jerus, II, 508 ff).
(4) The altar, etc.—In the priests' court the principal object was the great altar of burnt offering, in front of the porch of the temple (at 22 cubits distance—the space "between the temple and the altar" of Mt 23 35). The altar, according to the Mish (Mid., iii.1), was 32 cubits square, and, like Ezekiel's, rose in stages, each diminishing by a cubit: one of 1 cubit in height, three of 5 cubits, which, with deduction of another cubit for the priests to walk on, left a square of 24 cubits at the top. It had four horns. Jos, on the other hand, gives 50 cubits for the length and breadth, and 15 cubits for the height of the altar (BJ, V, v, 6)—his reckoning perhaps including a platform (a cubit high?) from which the height is taken (see Altar). The altar was built of unhewn stones, and had on the

S. a sloping ascent of like material, 32 cubits in length and 16 in width. Between temple and altar, toward the S., stood the "laver" for the priests. In the court, on the north side, were rings, hooks, and tables, for the slaughtering, flaying and suspending of the sacrificial victims.
(1) House and porch.—Yet another flight of 12

steps, occupying most of the space between the

temple-porch and the altar, led up to the platform (6 cubits high) on which stood the temple itself. This mag-3. The Temple nificent structure, built, as said before, Building of blocks of white marble, richly ornamented with gold on front and sides, exceeded in

dimensions and splendor all previous temples.

Parkina a a

Front Elevation of Temple.

The numbers in the Mish and in Jos are in parts discrepant, but the general proportions can readily be made out. The building with its platform rose to the height of 100 cubits (150 ft.; the 120 cubits in Jos, Ant, XV, xi, 3, is a mistake), and was 60 cubits (90 ft.) wide. It was fronted by a porch of like height, but with wings extending 20 cubits (30 ft.) are the ride of the toronte. ft.) on each side of the temple, making the total breadth of the vestibule 100 cubits (150 ft.) also. The depth of the porch was 10 or 11 cubits; probably at the wings 20 cubits (Jos). The entrance, without doors, was 70 cubits high and 25 cubits wide (Mid. makes 40 cubits high and 20 wide). Above it Herod placed a golden eagle, which the Jews afterward pulled down (Ant, XVII, vi, 3).

The porch was adorned with gold.

(2) "Hēkhāl" and "d*bhīr."—Internally, the temple was divided, as before, into a holy place (hēkhāl) and a most holy (d*bhīr)—the former measuring, as in Solomon's Temple, 40 cubits (60 ft.) in length, and 20 cubits (30 ft.) in breadth; the height, however, was double that of the older Temple—60 cubits (90 ft.; thus Keil, etc, following Jos, BJ, V, v, 5). Mid., iv.6, makes the height only 40 cubits; A. R. S. Kennedy and G. A. Smith make the debhir a cube—20 cubits in height only. In the space that remained above the holy places, upper rooms (40 cubits) were erected. place was separated from the holiest by a partition one cubit in thickness, before which hung an embroidered curtain or "veil"—that which was rent at the death of Jesus (Mt 27 51 and ||'s; Mid., iv.7, makes two veils, with a space of a cubit between them). The Holy of Holies was empty; only a stone stood, as in the temple of Zerubbabel, on which the high priest placed his censer on the Day of Atonement (Mish, Yōmā', v.2). In the holy place were the altar of incense, the table of shewbread (N.), and the seven-branched golden candlestick (S.). Representations of the two latter are seen in the carvings on the Arch of Titus (see Shewbread, Table of; Candlestick, Golden). The spacious entrance to the holy place had folding doors, before which hung a richly variegated Bab curtain. Above the entrance was a golden vine with clusters as large as a man (Jos, Ant, XV, xi, 3: BL, V, v. 4).

3; BJ, V, v, 4).

(3) The side-chambers.—The walls of the temple appear to have been 5 cubits thick, and against these, on the N., W., and S., were built, as in Solomon's Temple, side-chambers in three stories, 60 cubits in height, and 10 cubits in width (the figures, however, are uncertain), which, with the outer walls, made the entire breadth of the house 60 or 70 cubits. Mid., iv.3, gives the number of the chambers as 38 in all. The roof, which Keil speaks of as "sloping" (Bib. Archaeology, I, 199), had gilded spikes to keep off the birds. A balustrade surrounded it 3 cubits high. Windows are not mentioned, but there would doubtless be openings for light into the holy place from above the side-chambers.

HII. NT Associations of Herod's Temple.—
Herod's temple figures so prominently in NT history
that it is not necessary to do more
than refer to some of the events of
Incidents which it was the scene. It was here,
before the incepse alter that the

before the incense altar, that the aged Zacharias had the vision which assured him that he should not die childless (Lk 1 11 ff). Here, in the women's court, or treasury, on the presentation by Mary, the infant Jesus was greeted by Simeon and Anna (Lk 2 27 ff). In His 12th year the boy Jesus amazed the temple rabbis by His understanding and answers (Lk 2 46 ff).

The chronological sequence of the Fourth Gospel depends very much upon the visits of Jesus to the temple at the great festivals (see 2. Jesus in Jesus Christ). At the first of these the Temple occurred the cleansing of the temple—court—the court of the Gentiles—from the dealers that profaned it (Jn 2 13 ff), an incident repeated at the close of the ministry (Mt 21 12 ff and ||'s). When the Jews, on the first occasion, demanded a sign, Jesus spoke of the temple of His body as being destroyed and raised up in three

dent repeated at the close of the ministry (Mt 21 12 ff and | 's). When the Jews, on the first occasion, demanded a sign, Jesus spoke of the temple of His body as being destroyed and raised up in three days (Jn 2 19), eliciting their retort, "Forty and six years was this temple in building," etc (ver 20). This may date the occurrence about 27 AD. At the second cleansing He not only drove out the buyers and sellers, but would not allow anyone to carry anything through this part of the temple (Mk 11 15-17). In Jn His zeal flamed out because it was His Father's house; in Mk, because it was a house of prayer for all nations (cf Isa 56 7). With this non-exclusiveness agrees the word of Jesus to the woman of Samaria: "The hour cometh, when neither in this mountain [in Samaria], nor in Jerus, shall ye worship the Father" (Jn 4 21). During the two years following His first visit, Jesus repeatedly, at festival times, walked in the temple-courts, and taught and disputed with the Jews. We find Him in Jn 5 at "a feast" (Passover or Purim?); in Jn 7, 8, at "the feast of tabernacles," where the temple-police were sent to apprehend Him (7 32. 45 ff), and where He taught "in the treasury" (8 20); in Jn 10 22 ff, at "the feast of the dedication" in winter, walking in "Solomon's Porch." His teaching on these occasions often started from some familiar temple scene—the libations of water carried by the priests to be poured upon the altar (Jn 7 37 ff), the proselytes (Greeks even) in the great portico (Jn 12 20 ff), etc. Of course Jesus,

not being of the priestly order, never entered the sanctuary; His teaching took place in the several courts open to laymen, generally in the "treasury" (see Jn 8 20).

The first days of the closing week of the life of Jesus—the week commencing with the Triumphal

3. The Passion-Week Entry—were spent largely in the temple. Here He spoke many parables (Mt 21, 22 and ||'a); here He delivered His tremendous arraignment of the Pharisees (Mt 23 and ||'a): here as He

Pharisees (Mt 23 and ||*s); here, as He "sat down over against the treasury," He beheld the people casting in their gifts, and praised the poor widow who cast in her two mites above all who cast in of their abundance (Mk 12 41 ff and ||'s). It was on the evening of His last day in the temple that His disciples drew His attention to "the goodly stones and offerings" (gifts for adornment) of the building (Lk 21 5 and ||'s) and heard from His lips the astonishing announcement that the days were coming—even in that generation—in which there should not be left one stone upon another (ver 6 and ||'s). The prediction was fulfilled to the letter in the destruction of the temple by the Romans in 70 AD.

Seven weeks after the crucifixion the Pentecost of Acts 2 was observed. The only place that fulfils the topographical conditions of the

4. Apostolic great gatherings is Solomon's Porch. Church

The healing of the lame man (Acts
3 1 ff) took place at the "door
called Beautiful" of the temple, and the multitude after the healing ran together into "Solomon's Porch" or portico (ver 11). Where also were the words of Lk 24 53, they "were continually in the temple, blessing God," and after Pentecost (Acts 2 46), "day by day, continuing stedfastly . . . in the temple," etc, so likely to be fulfilled? For long the apostles continued the methods of their Master in daily teaching in the temple (Acts 4 1 ff). Many years later, when Paul visited Jerus for the last time, he was put in danger of his life from the myriads of Jewish converts "all zealous for the law" (Acts 21 20), who accused him of profaning the temple by bringing Greeks into its precincts, i.e. within the soregh (vs 28-30). But Christianity had now begun to look farther afield than the temple. Stephen, and after him Saul, who became Paul, preached that "the Most High dwelleth not in houses made with hands" (Acts 7 48; 17 24), though Paul himself attended the temple for ceremonial and other purposes (Acts 21 26).

From the time that the temple ceased to exist, the Talm took its place in Jewish estimation; but

it is in Christianity rather than in Judaism that the temple has a perpetual existence. The NT writers make no distinction between one temple and another. It is the idea rather than the building which is perpetuated in

the building which is perpetuated in Christian teaching. The interweaving of temple associations with Christian thought and life runs through the whole NT. Jesus Himself supplied the germ for this development in the word He spoke concerning the temple of His body (Jn 2 19.21). Paul, notwithstanding all he had suffered from Jews and Jewish Christians, remained saturated with Jewish ideas and modes of thought. In one of his earliest Epp. he recognizes the "Jerus that is above" as "the mother of us all" (Gal 4 26 AV). In another, the "man of sin" is sitting "in the temple of God" (2 Thess 2 4). The collective church (1 Cor 3 16.17), but also the individual believer (1 Cor 6 19), is a temple. One notable passage shows how deep was the impression made upon Paul's mind by the incident connected with Trophimus the Ephesian (Acts 21 29). That "middle

wall of partition" which so nearly proved fatal to him then was no longer to be looked for in the Christian church (Eph 2 14), which was "a holy temple" in the Lord (ver 21). It is naturally in the Ep. to the He that we have the fullest exposition of ideas connected with the temple, although here the form of allusion is to the tabernacle rather than the temple (see Tabernacle; of Westcott on Hebrews, 233 ff). The sanctuary and all it included were but representations of heavenly things. Finally, in Rev, the vision is that of the heavenly temple itself (11 19). But the church—professing Christendom?—is a temple measured by God's command (11 1.2 ff). The climax is reached in 21 22-23: "I saw no temple therein [i.e. in the holy city]: for the Lord God the Almighty, and the Lamb, are the temple thereof and the lamp thereof is the Lamb." Special ordinances are altogether superseded.

ordinances are altogether superseded.

LITERATURE.—In general on the temples see Keil, Rib. Archaeology, I, in which the older lit. is mentioned; Fergusson, Temples of the Jews; Comms. on K, Ch, Ext, Neh, and Ezk; arts. in the dicts. and encs (DB, HDB, EB); G. A. Smith, Jerus and similar works. On Solomon's Temple, cf Benzinger, Heb. Archäologie. On Ezekiel's temple, see Skinner's "Book of Ezk" in Expositor's Bible. On Zerubbabel's temple, cf W. Shaw Caldecott, The Second Temple in Jerus. The original authorities on Herod's temple are chiefly Jos. Ant. XV, xi, and BJ, V, v; and the Mish, Middöth, ii (this section of the Middöth, from Barclay's Talm, may be seen in App. I of Fergusson's work above named). The Ger. lit. is very fully given in Schürer, HJP, I, 1, 438 ff (GJV4, I, 392 f). See also the arts. of A. R. S. Kennedy in Expos T. XX, referred to above, and P. Waterhouse, in Sanday, Sacred Sites of the Gospels, 106 ff. On symbolism, cf Westcott, Hebrews, 233 ff. See also arts. in this Encyclopaedia on parts, furniture, and utensils of the temple, under their several headings.

W. Shaw Caldecott

W. Shaw Caldecott JAMES ORR

B. IN CRITICISM

- I. ALLEGED WANT OF HARMONY BETWEEN EARLIER
 (K) AND LATER (CH) VERSIONS OF TEMPLE BUILDING
 1. Second Version Not a Facsimile of First
 2. The Two Versions Differ as to the Builder
 3. The Earlier Version Silent about Things Recorded in Later Version
 II. DETAILED OBJECTIONS AGAINST CHRONICLER'S

 - DETAILED OBJECTIONS AGAINST CHRONICLER'S
 ACCOUNT
 1. Reason for Interdicting David's Purpose to
 Build a Temple
 2. Impossibility of David in His Old Age Collecting
 Materials Enumerated by the Chronicler
 3. Supernaturally Received Pattern of the Temple
 Said to Have Been Given by David to Solomon
 4. Alleged Organization of the Temple-Service by
 David
 5. Assertion by Solomon That the Temple Would
- Assertion by Solomon That the Temple Would Be Used as a Central Sanctuary LITERATURE

B. In Criticism

Modern criticism does not challenge the existence of a Solomonic Temple on Mt. Moriah, as it does that of a Mosaic tabernacle in the wilderness. Only it maintains that historic value belongs exclusively to the narrative in K, while the statements in Ch are pure ornamentation or ecclesiastical trimming dating from post-exilic times. All that is true about the Temple, says criticism, is (1) that David originally, i.e. on coming to the throne of all Israel, contemplated erecting such a structure upon Araunah's threshing-floor, but was prohibited from doing so by Nathan, who at first approved of his design but was afterward directed by Jeh to stay the king's hand, and to inform the king that the work of building a house for Jeh to dwell in was not to be his (the king's) task and privilege but his son's, and that as a solatium for his disappoint-ment Jeh would build him a house, by establishing the throne of his kingdom forever (2 S 7 4-17) (2) that after David's death Solomon called to mind the pious purpose of his father of which he had been informed and the express promise of Jeh that David's successor on the throne should execute that purpose, and accordingly resolved to "build a house for the name of Jeh his God" (1 K 5 3-5); and

(3) that 7½ years were employed in the work of construction, after which the finished Temple was dedicated in the presence of the congregation of Israel, with their princes, priests and Levites, in a speech which rehearsed the fact that David had intended to build the house but was prevented, and with a prayer which once more connected the Temple with the pious intention of David (1 K 8 18-20).

All the rest is simply embellishment (Wellhausen, GI, 181–92; art. "Temple" in EB): (1) that David's purpose to build the Temple was interdicted because he had been a man of war and had shed blood (1 Ch 28 3), which in Wellhausen's judgment should rather have been a qualification for the business; (2) that David in his old and feeble age made elaborate preparations for the construction of the house he was not to see-which, again writes Wellhausen, was like "making the bread so far ready that his son only required to shove it into the oven"; (3) that David gave to his son Solomon the pattern of the house in all its details as the Lord had caused him to understand in writing ("black upon white," as Wellhausen expresses it) by His (the Lord's) hand upon him-which was different from the way in which Moses received instruction about the tabernacle, viz. by a pattern shown to him in the Mount, and carried in his recollection; (4) that David before his death arranged all the musical service for the Temple, invented musical instruments, appointed all the officers to be associated with the Temple priests, Levites, porters and singers, distributing them in classes and assigning them their duties by lot (1 Ch 23 2-26; 2 Ch 8 12-16)—exactly as these things were afterward arranged in the second or post-exilic temple and were now carried back to David as the legislation of the PC was assigned to Moses; and (5) that David's son Solomon assures Hiram (RV "Huram") that the Temple will be used as a central sanctuary "to burn before him [Jeh] incense of sweet spices, and for the continual showbread, and for the burnt-offerings morning and evening, on the sabbaths, and on the new moons, and on the set feasts of Jeh our God" (2 Ch 2 3 ff), i.e. for Divine service, which, according to criticism, was of post-exilic origin.

The questions that now fall to be considered are: (1) whether the statements of the Chronicler are inconsistent with those in the Books of S and K; and (2) if not, whether they are in themselves such as to be incredible.

I. As to the Want of Harmony between the Earlier and Later Versions of the Temple Build-ing.—It does not seem reasonable to

1. The Versions Not the Same

hold that this has been established. The circumstance that the second account is not a facsimile of the first does not warrant the conclusion that the first alone is fact and the second fiction.

is quite conceivable that both might be true. David might have had it in his mind, as the first account states and the second acknowledges, to build a house for Jeh, and yet not have been able to carry his purpose into effect, and have been obliged to hand over its execution to his son. David, moreover, might have been hindered by Jeh (through His prophet Nathan) from building the Temple for more reasons than one—because the proposal was premature, God having it in His mind to build a house for David, i.e. to establish his dynasty, before requiring a permanent habitation for Himself; and also because the time was unpropitious, David having still much to do in the subjugation of his country's enemies; and because it was more fitting that a temple for the God of Peace should not be erected by one who had been a man of war from his youth. The first of these reasons is stated in S, the second and third are recorded in Ch.

agreement.

The earlier version does not say that David built the house, but that his son was to do it, and this the later version does not contra-2. Supposed dict; the later version does not claim Contrathat the idea originated with Solomon, but ascribes it to David, precisely as the earlier version does. In this there diction is no disharmony, but rather underlying harmony. Both versions assert that David purposed and that Solomon performed, in which surely there is perfect

The silence of the earlier version about the things recorded in the later version, such as the preparation of material and the organization of the silence of the earlier version, such as the preparation of the silence of material and the organization of the Temple-service, does not prove that these things were not known to the author of the earlier version, or had not taken place when he wrote. No writer is obliged to cram into his pages all he knows, but only to insert as much of his information as will subserve his aim in writing. Nor does his omission to set down in his narrative this or that particular fact or incident amount to a demonstration that the unrecorded fact or incident had not then occurred or was not within his cognizance. Least of all is it expected that a writer of civil history shall fill his pages with details that are purely or chiefly ecclesiastical. In short, if the omission from K of David's preparations and arrangements for the Temple testifies that no such preparations or arrangements were made, the omission from C of David's sin with Bath-sheba and of Nathan's parable of the Ewe Lamb should certify that either these things never happened or they were not known after the exile. It is usual to say they were purposely left out because it was the Chronicler's intention to encircle David with a nimbus of glory (Wellhausen), but this is simply critical hypothesis, the truth of which is disputed. On critical principles either these incidents in David's life were not true or the Chronicler was not aware of them. But the Chronicler had as one main source for his composition "the earlier historical books from Gen to K" (Driver), and "the tradition of the older source only has historical value" (Wellhausen).

**Heateled Objections against the Chronicler's

II. Detailed Objections against the Chronicler's Account.—Examining now in detail the above-stated objections, we readily see that they are by no means so formidable as at first sight they look, and certainly do not prove the Chronicler's account to be incredible.

That David's purpose to build a temple should have been interdicted because he had been a man

of war and had shed blood appears to Wellhausen to be a watermark of non-historicity. Benzinger in EB (art. 1. Interdiction of non-historicity. "Temple") goes beyond this and says: David "There is no historical probability that

David had thoughts of building a temple." But if David never thought of building a temple, then not only was the Chronicler mistaken in making Solomon say (2 Ch 6 7) that it was in the heart of his father so to do, but he was chargeable with something worse in making the Lord say to David, "Whereas it was in thy heart to build a house for my name, thou didst well in that it was in thy heart" (2 Ch 6 8), unless he was absolutely certain that the statement was true which it was not if Benzinger may be relied on.

Nor is it merely the Chronicler whose character for intelligence and piety suffers, if David never thought of building a temple; the reputation of the author or authors of S and K must also go, since they both declare that David did entertain the purpose which Benzinger denies (2 S 7 2; 1 K 5 3); and an impartial reasoner will hesitate before he sacrifices the good name even of two unknown ancient writers at the *ipse dixit* of any modern scholar.

We may therefore limit our remarks to Wellhausen's objection and reply that the reason assigned by Ch for prohibiting David from carrying out his purpose, viz. that he had been a man of war, might have been an argument for permitting him to do so, or at least for his seeking to do so, had his object been to erect a monument to his own glory or a thank offering to God for the victories he had won; but not if the Temple was designed to be a habitation

wherein God might dwell among His people to receive their worship and bless them with His grace. Strange as it may seem (Winer) that David should have been debarred from carrying out his purpose for the reason assigned, yet there was reason in the interdict, for not only was it fitting that peaceful works should be carried out by peaceful hands (Merz in PRE^2), but David's vocation was not temple-building but empire-building (to use a modern phrase); and many campaigns lay before him ere the leisure could be found or the land could be ready for the execution of his sacred design.

That David in his old and feeble age could not possibly have collected all the materials enumerated by 1 Ch 29 might possibly have been

2. Quantity true, had David been an impecunious of Materials chieftain and had he only in the last years of his life commenced to amass treasure. But David was a powerful and wealthy eastern potentate and a valiant warrior besides, who had conquered numerous tribes, Philis, Moabites, Syrians, Edomites and Ammonites, and had acquired from his victories large spoil, which from an early stage in his career he had been accustomed to dedicate to the Lord (2 S 8 11). Hence it is little better than trifling to put forward as an inherent mark of incredibility the statement that David in his old age could not have made extensive and costly preparations for the building of the Temple—all the more that according to the narrative he was assisted by "the princes of the fathers' houses, and the princes of the tribes of Israel, and the captains of thousands and of hundreds, with the rulers over the king's work," and "the people" generally, who all "offered willingly for the service of the house of God."

willingly for the service of the house of God."

No doubt the value in sterling money of these preparations is enormous—the gold and silver alone being variously reckoned at 8 (Keil), 16 (Bertheau), 81 (Michaelis), 450 (Kautzsch), 1,400 (Rawlinson) millions of pounds—and might reasonably suggest either that the text has become corrupt, or the numbers were originally used loosely to express the idea of an extraordinary amount, or were of set purpose exagerated. The first of these explanations is adopted by Rawlinson; the second by Bertheau; the third by Wellhausen, who sees in the whole section (1 Ch 22-29) "a frightful example of the statistical plantasy of the Jews, which delights itself in immense sums of gold upon paper." But even conceding that in each of these explanations a measure of truth may lie, it does not seem justifiable to wipe out as unhistorical and imaginary the main statement of the Chronicler, that David's preparations were both extensive and costly, all the less that 1 K 10 14.15 bears witness to the extraordinary wealth of Solomon, whose income is stated to have been 666 talents of gold or about 3 millions sterling, a year, besides that he had of the merchantmen, and of the traffic of the spice merchants, and of all the kings of Arabia and of the governors of the country. If David's annual income was anything like this, and if he had command of all the treasures accumulated in previous years, it does not look so impossible as criticism would make out that David could have prepared for the future Temple as the Chronicler reports.

That David gave to Solomon the pattern of the Temple in a writing which had been prepared by him under direct supernatural guidance can be objected to only by those 3. Plan of the Temple who deny the possibility of such Divine communications being made by God to man. If criticism admits, as it sometimes does, the possibility of both revelation and inspiration, the objection under consideration must fall to the ground. That the method of making David acquainted with the pattern of the Temple was not in all respects the same as that adopted for showing Moses the model of the tabernacle, only proves that the resources of infinite wisdom are not usually exhausted by one effort, and that God is not necessarily tied down to one particular way of uttering His thoughts.

But criticism mostly rejects the idea of the supernatural and accordingly dismisses this statement

about the God-given pattern as altogether fanciful -pointing (1) to the fact that similar temples already existed among the Canaanites, as e.g. at Shechem (Jgs 9 46) and at Gaza (Jgs 16 29), which showed there was no special need for a Divinely prepared plan; and (2) to the circumstance that Solomon fetched Hiram, a Tyrian worker in brass, to assist in the erection of the Temple, which again, it is urged, renders probable the conclusion that at least Phoen ideas entered into its structure (Duncker, Benzinger). Suppose, however, it were true that the Temple was fashioned on a Phoen, Can. or Egyp model, that would not disprove the statement that David was guided by Divine inspiration in drawing up the outline of the building.

statement that David was guided by Divine inspiration in drawing up the outline of the building.

That David's organization of the Temple-service, both as to officers and instruments, as to ritual and music, corresponded exactly (or nearly so)

4. The with what afterward existed in the second temple-service to the supposition that Ch deliberately "transformed the old history into church history" by ascribing to David "the holy music and the arrangement of the Temple personals" which belonged to the post-exilic age, precisely as the author or authors of the PC, which dated from the same age (according to criticism), attributed this to Moses (Wellhausen, GI, 187)—in other words, by stating what was not true in either case, by representing that as having happened which had not happened. Whether this was originally intended to deceive and was a wilful fraud, as some hold, and whether it was legitimate then "to do evil that good might come," to persuade men that David organized the musical service which was performed in the second temple in order to secure for it popular acceptance, it may be left to each reader to determine; it must always be wrong to ascribe doubtful practices to good men like the authors of the PC and of Ch unless one is absolutely sure that they were guilty of such practices. Undoubtedly the fair and reasonable thing is to hold that the Chronicler wrote the truth until it is proved that he did not; and for his statement it may be claimed that at least it has this in its favor, that in the earlier sources David is distinctly stated to have been a musician (1 S 16 23), to have composed a song, Ps 18 (2 S 22 1), and to have been designated "the sweet psalmist of Israel." No doubt on the critical hypothesis this might explain why the thought occurred to the Chronicler to credit David with the organization of the Temple-service; but without the critical hypothesis it equally accounts for the interest David took in preparing "the music and the personals" for the Temple which his son was to build. "The

That the Temple-service was carried out in accordance with the regulations of the PC does not

prove that the Ch account is unreliable, unless it is certain that the post-5. The exilic PC was an entirely new ritual Temple a which had never existed before, which Central Sanctuary some modern critics do not admit. But, if it was merely, as some main-

tain, a codification of a cultus that existed before, then no sufficient reason exists for holding that Solomon's Temple was designed to be a private chapel for the king (Benzinger), erected partly out of piety but partly also out of love of splendor and statecraft (Reuss), rather than a central sanctuary for the people. A study of Solomon's letter to Hiram (2 Ch 2 4) shows that the Temple was intended for the concentration of the nation's sacrificial worship which had up till then been frequently offered at local shrines, though originally meant for celebration at the Mosaic tabernaclefor the burning of sweet incense (Ex 30 1), the offering day by day continually of the burnt offering (Ex 29 39). And though, it is admitted, the letter to Hiram as reported in 1 K makes no mention of this intention, yet it is clear from 1 K 8 62-65, that Solomon, after dedicating the Temple by prayer, used it for this purpose. Wherefore, if Ch simply transferred to the consecration of the Temple a ritual that had no existence till after the exile, the author of K did the same, which again would destroy Wellhausen's admission that historical validity attaches to the earlier source. A much more likely supposition is that the ritual reported by both historians was not that of a PC manufactured for the second temple, but that which had been published by Moses for the tabernacle, in place of which it had come. That local shrines for many years existed alongside of the Temple only proves that Solomon's original idea was not perfectly carried out either by himself or his people.

LITERATURE.—The Comms. of Bertheau and Keil on Ch; Reuss, Geschichte der heiligen Schriften des Alten Testaments; arts. on "Temple" in Sch-Herz; Riehm, Handwörterbuch; HDB; EB; Wellhausen, Prolegomena zur Geschichte Israels.

T. WHITELAW TEMPLE KEEPERS (SERVANTS): After the conquest of Midian, "Moses took one drawn out of every fifty, both of man and of beast, and gave them unto the Levites, that kept the charge of the tabernacle of Jeh" (Nu 31 47; cf ver 30). Similarly, after the deception of Joshua by the Gibeonites, "Joshua made them that day hewers of wood and drawers of water for the congregation, and for the altar of Jeh, unto this day" (Josh 9 27). The object of these notices, evidently, is to explain how a non-Israelitish class of sanctuary servants had taken their origin. Their existence at the time of Ezekiel, however, is the object of one of the latter's severest denunciations: "Ye have brought in foreigners, uncircumcised in heart and uncircumcised in flesh, to be in my sanctuary, to profane it. And ye have not kept the charge of my holy things; but ye have set keepers of my charge in my sanctu-ary for yourselves" (Ezk 44 7 f). In place of these servants or "keepers" Ezekiel directs that such Levites are to be employed as have been degraded from priestly privileges for participating in idolatrous worship. On them shall devolve all the various duties of the temple except the actual offering of sacrifices, which is reserved for "the priests the Levites, the sons of Zadok" (44 10-15). For the use of this deposed class, "the priests, the keepers of the charge of the house," is reserved a special room in the inner court of the temple (40 44 f). See, further, NETHINIM. BURTON SCOTT EASTON

TEMPLES, tem'p'lz (הָּבָּה, rakkāh, "thinness," "upper cheeks"): The original signifies the thinnest part of the skull (Jgs 4 21.22; 5 26). In Cant 4 3; 6 7, the bride's cheeks are likened to pomegranates because of the rich coloring of a slice of this fruit.

TEMPLES, ROBBERS OF (ἱερόσυλοι, hierósuloi; AV "robbers of churches," Acts 19 37): To explain this as "sacrilegious persons" is irreconcilable with the contrast in Rom 2 22. In Dt 7 25, the Jews were commanded entirely to destroy the gold and silver idols, ornaments of the heathen temples. The sin reproved is that of making that a matter of gain which, without regard to its value, they should have destroyed. "Dost thou, who regardest the mere touch of an idol as a horrible defilement, presume to rob their temples?" There is abundant evidence to show that this crime was not unusual. When the town-clerk of Ephesus declares the companions of Paul innocent of such charge, his words imply that the fact that they were Jews rendered them liable to such suspicion. So Jos goes out of his way (Ant, IV, viii, 10) to deny that Jews ever committed the crime.

H. E. JACOBS TEMPT, temt, TEMPTATION, temt-tā'shun (ΤΟΣ), nāṣāh, "to prove," "try," "tempt," ΤΟΣ, maṣṣāh, "a trial," "temptation"; πειράζω, peirázō,

"to try," "prove," πειρασμός, peirasmós, "a trial," "proof"): The words have a sinister connotation in present-day usage which has not always attached to them. Originally the words were of neutral content, with the sense of "putting to the proof," the testing of character or quality. Thus God is "tempted" by Israel's distrust of Him, as if the people were actually challenging Him to show His perfections (Ex 17 2; Ps 78 18; Acts 15 10; He 3 9, and often); Abraham is "tempted," being called upon to offer up Isaac (Gen 22 1); and Jesus is "tempted" to a spectacular Messiahship (Mt 4 and | passages [see Temptation of Christ]). No evil is implied in the subject of these temptations. Temptation therefore in the Scripture sense has possibilities of holiness as well as of sin. For as all experience witnesses, it is one thing to be tempted, another thing to fall. To be tempted one may rejoice in that (Jas 1 2), since in temptation, by conquering it, one may achieve a higher and nobler manhood.

"Why comes temptation but for man to meet And master and make crouch beneath his foot, And so be pedestalled in triumph?"

Holiness in its best estate is possible only under conditions which make it necessary to meet, resist and triumph over temptation. Thus Jesus Himself became our Great High Priest in that, being tempted in all points like as we are, He never once yielded, but fought and triumphed (He 4 15).

One must not deceive one's self, however, in thinking that, because by the grace of God one may have profit of virtue through temptation as an instrument, all temptation is equally innocent and virtuous. It is noticeable in the case of Jesus that His temptation was under the direction of the Spirit (Mk 1 12); He Himself did not seek it, nor did He fear it. Temptations encountered in this way, the way of duty, the way of the Spirit, alone constitute the true challenge of saintship (Jas 1 12); but it is the mark of an ignoble nature to be perpetually the center of vicious fancies and tempers which are not of God but of the devil (Jas 1 13-15). One may not escape entirely such buffetings of faith, but by any sound nature they are easily disposed of. Not so easily disposed of are the trials (temptations) to faith through adversity, affliction, trouble (Lk 22 28; Acts 20 19; Jas 1 2; 1 Pet 1 6); and yet there is no lack of evidence to the consoling fact that God does not suffer His own to be tempted above what they are able to bear (1 Cor 10 13) and that for every crisis His grace will be sufficient (2 Cor 12 8.9). CHARLES M. STUART

TEMPTATION OF CHRIST: The sources for this event are Mk 1 12.13; Mt 4 1-11; Lk 4 1-13; cf He 2 18; 4 15.16, and see

1. The Gethsemane. Mk is probably a con-

densation; Mt and Lk have the same Sources source, probably the discourses of Mt is usually regarded as nearest the

original, and its order is here followed.

The Temptation is put immediately after the Baptism by all the synoptists, and this is psychologically necessary, as we shall see. The place was the wilderness; it was "up" from the Jordan valley (Mt), 2. Time and Place

and was on the way back to Galilee The traditional site, Mt. Quarantana, is (Lk). probably a good guess.

At His baptism, Jesus received from heaven the final confirmation of His thought that He was the Messiah. It was the greatest conception which ever entered a human 3. Signifimind and left it sane. Under the irresistible influence of the Spirit, Under the cance

He turned aside to seek out in silence and alone the

principles which should govern Him in His Messianic This was absolutely necessary to any wise prosecution of it. Without the slightest precedent Jesus must determine what a Messiah would do, how He would act. Radical critics agree that, if such a period of meditation and conflict were not recorded, it would have to be assumed. By this conflict, Jesus came to that clearness and decision which characterized His ministry throughout. It is easy to see how this determination of guiding principles involved the severest temptation, and it is noteworthy that all the temptation is represented as coming from without, and none from within. Here too He must take His stand with reference to all the current ideas about the Messiah and His work.

Jesus alone can be the original reporter. To this oltzmann and J. Weiss agree. The report was Holtzmann and J. Weiss agree. given for the sake of the disciples, for 4. The the principles wrought out in this conflict are the guiding principles in the whole work of the kingdom of Reporter

God on earth. (1) Fasting.—Jesus was so intensely absorbed that He forgot to eat. There was nothing ascetic

or ritualistic about it, and so this is 5. Expono example for ascetic fasting for us. sition It is doubtful whether the text demands absolute abstinence from food; rather,

long periods of fasting, and insufficient food when He had it. At the end of the forty days, He woke to the realization that He was a starving man.

the realization that He was a starving man.

(2) The first temptation is not a temptation to doubt His Messiahship, nor is the second either. "If thou art the Son of God," i.e. "the Messiah," means, simply, "since thou art the Son of God" (see Burton, Moods and Tenses, secs. 244, 245; Robertson, Short Grammar, 161). There was not the slightest doubt on this point in Jesus' mind after the baptism, and Satan knew it. There is no temptation to prove Himself the Messiah, por any hint of such a thing in Jesus' renlies. The nor any hint of such a thing in Jesus' replies. very point of it all is, How are you going to act, since you are Messiah? (Mt 4 3 || Lk 4 3).

The temptation has these elements: (a) The per-

feetly innocent craving for food is imperious in the starving man. (b) Why should He not satisfy His hunger, since He is the Son of God and has the power? Jesus replies from Dt 8 3, that God can and will provide Him bread in His own way and in His own time. He is not referring to spiritual food, which is not in question either here or in Dt (see Broadus' just and severe remark here). He does not understand how God will provide, but He will wait and trust. Divinely assured of Messiahship, He knows that God will not let Him perish. Here emerges the principle of His ministry; He will never use His supernatural power to help Himself. Objections based on Lk 4 30 and Jn 10 39 are worthless, as nothing miraculous is there implied. The walking on the water was to help the apostles' faith. But why would it have been wrong to have used His supernatural power for Himself? Because by so doing He would have refused to share the human lot, and virtually have denied His incarnation. If He is to save others, Himself He cannot save (Mt 27 42). In passing, it is well to notice that "the temptations all turn on the conflict which arises, when one, who is conscious of supernatural power, feels that there are occasions, when it would not be right to exercise it." So the miraculous is here most deeply imbedded in the first principles of Messianic action.
(3) The second temptation.—The pinnacle of the

temple was probably the southeast corner of the roof of the Royal Cloister, 326 ft. above the bottom of the Kidron valley. The proposition was not to

leap from this height into the crowd below in the temple courts, as is usually said, for (a) there is no hint of the people in the narrative; (b) Jesus' reply does not fit such an idea; it meets another temptation entirely; (c) this explanation confuses the narrative, making the second temptation a short road to glory like the third; (d) it seems a fantastic temptation, when it is seriously visualized. Rather Satan bids Jesus leap into the abyss outside the temple. Why then the temple at all, and not some mountain precipice? asks Meyer. Because it was the sheerest depth well known to the Jews, who had all shuddered as they had looked down into it (Mt 4 5-7 | Lk 4 5-8).

The first temptation proved Jesus a man of faith, and the second is addressed to Him as such, asking Him to prove His faith by putting God's promise to the test. It is the temptation to fanaticism, which has been the destruction of many a useful servant of God. Jesus refuses to yield, for yielding would have been sin. It would have been (a) wicked presumption, as though God must yield to every unreasonable whim of the man of faith, and so would have been a real "tempting" of God; (b) it would have deedled His incarnation in principle, like the first temptation; (c) such fanaticism would have destroyed His ministry. So the principle was evolved: Jesus will not, of self-will, run into dangers, but will avoid them except in the clear path of duty, He will be no fanatic, running before the Spirit, but will be led by Him in paths of holy sanity and heavenly wisdom. Jesus waited on God.

(4) The third temptation.—The former tests have proved Jesus a man of faith and of common sense. Surely such a man will take the short and easy road to that universal dominion which rightfully belongs to the Messiah. Satan offers it, as the prince of this world. The lure here is the desire for power, in itself a right instinct, and the natural and proper wish to avoid difficulty and pain. the final object is to set up a universal kingdom of God in righteousness adds to the subtlety of the temptation. But as a condition Satan demands that Jesus shall worship him. This must be symbolically interpreted. Such worship as is offered God cannot be meant, for every pious soul would shrink from that in horror, and for Jesus it could constitute no temptation at all. Rather a compromise with Satan must be meant—such a compromise as would essentially be a submission to him. Recalling the views of the times and the course of Jesus' ministry, we can think this compromise nothing else than the adoption by Jesus of the program of political Messiahship, with its worldly means of war, intrigue, etc. Jesus repudiates the offer. He sees in it only evil, for (a) war, esp. aggressive war, is to His mind a vast crime against love, (b) it changes the basis of His kingdom from the spiritual to the external, (c) the means would defeat the end, and involve Him in disaster. He will serve God only, and God is served in righteousness. Only means which God approves can be used (Mt 4 8-11 | Lk 4 9-13). Here then is the third great principle of the kingdom: Only moral and spiritual means to moral and spiritual ends. He turns away from worldly methods to the slow and difficult way of truth-preaching, which can end only with the cross. Jesus must have come end only with the cross. from His temptation with the conviction that His ministry meant a life-and-death struggle with all the forces of darkness.

As we should expect of Jesus, He throws the story of the inner conflict of His soul into story form.

So only could it be understood by all classes of men in all ages. It was a 6. The real struggle, but pictorially, symbolically described. This seems to be Character of the proved by various elements in the story, viz. the devil can hardly be Narrative conceived as literally taking Jesus from place to place. There is no mountain from which all the

This view of kingdoms of the world can be seen. the matter relieves all the difficulties.

The difficulty is that there can be no drawing toward an object unless the object seems desirable.

But the very fact that a sinful object seems desirable is itself sin. How then How can a sinless person really be tempted at all? Possibly an analysis of each temptation will furnish the answer. Could a Sinless Christ be Tempted? In each case the appeal was a real appeal to a perfectly innocent natural

instinct or appetite. In the first temptation, it was to hunger; in the second, to faith; in the third, to power as a means of establishing righteousness. In each case, Jesus felt the tug and pull of the natural instinct; how insistent is the demand of hunger, for instance! Yet, when He perceived that the satisfaction of these desires was sinful under the conditions, He immediately refused their clamorous appeal. It was a glorious moral victory. It was not that He was metaphysically not able to sin, but that He was so pure that He was able not to sin. He did not prove in the wilderness that He could not be tempted, but that He could overcome the tempter. If it is then said that Jesus, never having sinned, can have no real sympathy with sinners, the answer is twofold: (1) Not he who falls at the first assault feels the full force of temptation, but he who, like Jesus, resists it through long years to the end. (2) Only the victor can help the van-quished; only he, who has felt the most dreadful assaults and yet has stood firm, can give the help needed by the fallen.

LITERATURE.—Broadus on Mt, in loc.; Rhees, Life of Jesus of Nazareth, sees. 91-96; Sanday, Outlines of the Life of Christ, sec. 13; Holtzmann, Hand-Commentar, 1, 67 f; J. Weiss, Die Schriften des NT, I, 227 f; Weiss, Life of Christ, I, 337-54; Dods, art. "Temptation," in DCG; Garvie, Expos T, X (1898-99).

F. L. ANDERSON TEN (פֹעֵּעֶׁר, 'eser; δέκα, déka). See Number.

TEN COMMANDMENTS, THE:

THE TEN COMMANDMENTS AN ISRABLITISH CODE
THE PROMULCATION OF THE DECALOGUE
ANALYSIS OF THE DECALOGUE WITH BRIEF EXEGETICAL NOTES
1. How Numbered
2. How Grouped
3. Original Form
4. Brief Exegetical Notes
JESUS AND THE TEN COMMANDMENTS
SATURE

IV. JESUS LITERATURE

In the OT the Decalogue is uniformly referred to as "the ten words" (Ex 34 28 m; Dt 4 13 m; 10 4 m), or simply as "the words" spoken by Jeh (Ex 20 1; 34 27; Dt 5 22; 10 2), or as "the words of the covenant" (Ex 34 28). In the NT they are called "commandments" (Mt 19 17; Eph 6 2), as with us in most Christian lands.

I. The Ten Commandments an Israelitish Code.— The "ten words" were spoken by Jeh to the people whom He had but recently delivered from Egyp bondage, and then led out into the wilderness, that He might_teach them His laws. It was to Israel that the Decalogue was primarily addressed, and not to all mankind. Thus the reason assigned for keeping the 5th commandment applies to the people who were on their way to the land which had been given to Abraham and his descendants (Ex 20 12); and the 4th commandment is enforced by reference to the servitude in Egypt (Dt 5 15). It is possible, then, that even in the Ten Commandments there are elements peculiar to the Mosaic system and which Our Lord and His apostles may not make a part of faith and duty for Christians. See Sab-BATH.

Of the "ten words," seven were perhaps binding on the consciences of enlightened men prior to the days of Moses: murder, adultery, theft and false

witness were already treated as crimes among the Babylonians and the Egyptians; and intelligent men knew that it was wrong to dishonor God by improper use of His name, or to show lack of respect to parents, or to covet the property of another. No doubt the sharp, ringing words in which these evils are forbidden in the Ten Commandments gave to Israel a clearer apprehension of the sins referred to than they had ever had before: and the manner in which they were grouped by the Divine speaker brought into bold relief the chief elements of the moral law. But the first two prohibitions were novelties in the religious life of the world; for men worshipped many gods, and bowed down to images of every conceivable kind. The 2d commandment was too high even for Israel to grasp at that early day; a few weeks later the people were dancing about the golden calf at the foot of Sinai. The observance of the Sabbath was probably unknown to other nations, though it may have been already known in the family of Abraham.

II. The Promulgation of the Decalogue.—The "ten words" were spoken by Jeh Himself from the top of the mount under circumstances the most awe-inspiring. In the early morning there were thunders and lightnings and a thick cloud upon the mount, and the voice of a trumpet exceeding loud. It is no wonder that the people trembled as they faced the smoking and quaking mount, and listened to the high demands of a holy God. Their request that all future revelations should be made through Moses as the prophet mediator was quite natural. The promulgation of the Ten Commandments stands out as the most notable event in all the wilderness sojourn of Israel. There was no greater day in history before the coming of the Son of God

into the world. After a sojourn of 40 days in the mount, Moses came down with "the two tables of the testimony, tables of stone, written with the finger of God. At the foot of the mount, when Moses saw the golden calf and the dancing throng about it, he east the tables out of his hands and broke them in pieces (Ex 31 18; 32 15-20). Through the intercession of Moses, the wrath of Jeh was averted from Israel: and Jeh invited Moses to ascend the mount with two new tablets, on which He would write the words that were on the first tables, which were broken. Moses was commanded to write the special precepts given by God during this interview; but the Ten Commandments were written on the stone tablets by Jeh Himself (Ex 34 1-4.27-29; Dt 10 1-5). These precious tablets were later deposited in the ark of the covenant (Ex 40 20). Thus in every way possible the Ten Commandments are exalted as the most precious and directly Divine of all the precepts of the Mosaic revelation.

precepts of the Mosaic revelation.

III. Analysis of the Decalogue with Brief Exegetical Notes.—That there were "ten words" is expressly stated (Ex 34 28; Dt 4 13; 10 4); but just 1. How how to delimit them one from another is how to delimit them one from another is Exegetical a task which has not been found easy. Numbered a task which has not been found easy. See Dillmann, Exodus, 201-5, to whom we are indebted for much that is here set forth.

(1) Jos is the first witness for the division now common among Protestants (except Lutherans), viz. (a) foreign gods, (b) images, (c) name of God, (d) Sabbath, (e) parents, (f) murder, (g) adultery, (h) theft, (f) false witness, (j) coveting. Before him, Philo made the same arrangement, except that he followed the LXX in putting adultery before murder. This mode of counting was current with many of the church Fathers, and is now in use in the Greek Catholic church and with most Protestants.

(2) Augustine combined foreign gods and images (Ex 20 2-6) into one commandment, and following the order of Dt 5 21 (Heb 18) made the 9th commandment a prohibition of the coveting of a neighbor's wife, while the 10th prohibits the coveting of his house and other property. Roman Catholics and Lutherans accept Augustine's mode of reckoning, except that they follow the order in Ex 20 17, so that the 9th command-Augustine combined foreign gods and

ment forbids the coveting of a neighbor's house, while the 10th includes his wife and all other property.

(3) A third mode of counting is that adopted by the Jews in the early Christian centuries, which became universal among them in the Middle Ages and so down to the present time. According to this scheme, the opening statement in Ex 20 2 is the "first word," Ex 20 3-6 the second (combining foreign gods with images), while the following eight commandments are as in the common Protestant arrangement.

The division of the prohibition of covering into two

the following eight commandments are as in the common Protestant arrangement.

The division of the prohibition of coveting into two commandments is fatal to the Augustinian scheme; and the reckoning of the initial statement in Ex 20 2 as one of the "ten words" seems equally fatal to the modern Jewish method of counting. The prohibition of images, which is introduced by the solemn formula, "Thou shalt not," is surely a different "word" from the command to worship no god other than Jeh. Moreover, if nine of the "ten words" are commandment, it would seem reasonable to make the remaining "word" a commandment, if this can be done without violence to the subjectmatter. See Eerdmans, Expos, July, 1909, 21 ff.

(1) The Jews, from Philo to the present, divide the "ten words" into two groups of five each. As there were two tables, it would be natural to suppose that five commandments were recorded on each tablet, though the fact that the comtend on each tablet, though the fact that the force of the argument for an equal division. Moreover, the first pentad, in the present text of Ex and Dt, is more than four times as long as the second.

(2) Augustine supposed that there were three commandments on the first table and seven on the second. According to his method of numbering the commandments to the first table and six to the second. This has the advantage of assigning all duties to God to the first table and all duties to men to the second. It also accords with Our Lord's reduction of the commandments to two (Mt 22 34-40).

A comparison of the text of the Decalogue in Dt 5 with that in Ex 20 reveals a goodly number of differences, esp. in the reasons assigned 3. Original for the observance of the 4th and 5th commandments, and in the text of the Form 10th commandment. A natural explanation of these differences is the fact that Dt

employs the free-and-easy style of public discourse. The Ten Commandments are substantially the same

in the two passages.

From the days of Ewald to the present, some of the leading OT scholars have held that originally all the commandments were brief and without the addition of any special reasons for their observance. According to this hypothesis, the 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th, and the 10th commandments were probably as follows: "Thou shalt not make unto thee any graven image"; "Thou shalt not take the name of Jeh thy God in vain"; "Remember the Sabbath day to keep it holy"; "Honor thy father and thy mother"; "Thou shalt not covet thy neighbor's hours." mother"; "Thou shalt not covet thy neighbor's house." This early critical theory would account for the differences in the two recensions by supposing that the motives for keeping the 2d, 3d, 4th, and 5th commandments, as well as the expansion of the 10th, were additions made through the influence of the prophetic teaching. If accompanied by a full recognition of the Divine origin of the ten words in the Mosaic era, this hypothesis might be acceptable to a thorough believer in revelation. Before acquiescing in the more radical theories of some recent scholars, such a believer will demand more cogent arguments than the critics have been able to bring forward. Thus when we are told that the Decalogue contains prohibitions that could not have been incorporated into a code before the days of Manasseh, we demand better proofs than the failure of Israel to live up to the high demands of the 2d and the 10th commandments, or a certain theory of the evolution of the history that may commend itself to the mind of naturalistic critics. Jeh was at work in the early history of Israel; and the great prophets of the 8th cent., far from creating ethical monotheism, were reformers sent to demand that Israel should embody in daily life the teachings of the Torah.

Goethe advanced the view that Ex 34 10-28 originally contained a second decalogue.

Wellhausen (CH, 331 f) reconstructs this so-called decalogue as follows:

(1) Thou shalt worship no other god (ver 14).

(2) Thou shalt make thee no molten gods (ver 17).

(3) The feast of unleavened bread shalt thou keep (ver 18a).

(4) Every firstling is mine (ver 19a).

(5) Thou shalt observe the feast of weeks (ver 22a).

(6) And the feast of ingathering at the year's end (ver 22c).

(ver 22c).

(7) Thou shalt not offer the blood of my sacrifice with

(7) Thou shalt not offer the blood of my sacrifice with leavened bread (ver 25a).
(8) The fat of my feast shall not remain all night until the morning (23 18b; cf 34 25b).
(9) The best of the first-fruits of thy ground shalt thou bring to the house of Jeh thy God (ver 26a).
(10) Thou shalt not seethe a kid in its mother's milk

(10) Thou shalt not seethe a kid in its mother's milk (ver 26b).

Addis agrees with Wellhausen that even this simpler decalogue must be put long after the time of Moses (EB, 1051).

Now, it is evident that the narrative in Ex 34 27 f, in its present form, means to affirm that Moses was commanded to write the precepts contained in the section immediately preceding. The Ten Commandments, as the foundation of the covenant, were written by Jeh Himself on the two tablets of stone (31 18; 32 15 f; 34 28). It is only by free critical handling of the narrative that it can be made to appear that Moses wrote on the two tables the supposed decalogue of 34 14-26. Moreover, the supposed decalogue of 34 14-26. Moreover, the law of the Sabbath (34 21), which is certainly appropriate amid the ritual ordinances of Ex 34, must be omitted altogether, in order to reduce the precepts to ten; also the command in ver 23 has to be deleted. It is interesting to observe that the prohibition of molten gods (34 17), even according to radical critics, is found in the earliest body of Israelitish laws. There is no sufficient reason for denying that the 2d commandment was promulgated in the days of Moses. Jeh's requirements have always been in advance of the practice of His people.

(1) The 1st commandment prohibits the worship of any god other than Jeh. If it be said that this

4. Brief Exegetical Notes

precept inculcates monolatry and not monotheism, the reply is ready to hand that a consistent worship of only one God is, for a people surrounded by idolaters, the best possible approach

to the conclusion that there is only one true God. The organs of revelation, whatever may have been the notions and practices of the mass of the Israelitish people, always speak in words that harmonize with a strict monotheism.

(2) The 2d commandment forbids the use of images in worship; even an image of Jeh is not to be tolerated (cf Ex 32 5). Jeh's mercy is greater than His wrath; while the iniquity of the fathers descends to the third and the fourth generation for those who hate Jeh, His mercy overflows to thousands who love Him. It is doubtful whether the rendering 'showing mercy to the thousandth generation' (Ex 20 6) can be successfully defended.

(3) Jeh's name is sacred, as standing for His person; therefore it must be employed in no vain or false way. The commandment, no doubt, includes more than false swearing. Cursing, blasphemy and every profane use of Jeh's name are forbidden.

(4) As the 1st commandment inculcates the unity of God and the 2d His spirituality, so also the 3d commandment guards His name against irreverent use and the 4th sets apart the seventh day as peculiarly His day, reserved for a Sabbath. Ex 20 11 emphasizes the religious aspect of the Sabbath, while Dt 5 14 lays stress on its humane aspect, and Dt 5 15 links it with the deliverance from bondage

in Egypt.
(5) The transition from duties to God to duties
(5) The transition from duties to Fith commandment, to men is made naturally in the 5th commandment, which inculcates reverence for parents, to whom their children should look up with gratitude, as all men should toward the Divine Father.

(6) Human life is so precious and sacred that no

man should dare to take it away by violence.

(7) The family life is safeguarded by the 7th commandment.

(8) The 8th commandment forbids theft in all its forms. It recognizes the right of personal ownership of property.

(9) The 9th commandment safeguards honor and good name among men. Slander, defamation, false testimony in court and kindred sins are included.

(10) The 10th commandment is the most searching of them all, for it forbids the inward longing, the covetous desire for what belongs to another. The presence of such a deeply spiritual command among the "ten words" shows that we have before us no mere code of laws defining crimes, but a body of ethical and spiritual precepts for the moral education of the people of Jeh.

IV. Jesus and the Ten Commandments. Our Lord, in the interview with the rich young ruler, gave a recapitulation of the commandments treating of duties to men (Mk 10 19; Mt 19 18 f; Lk 18 20). He quotes the 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th and 9th command-The minor variations in the reports in the ments. three Synoptic Gospels remind the student of the similar variations in Ex 20 and Dt 5. Already in the Sermon on the Mount Jesus had quoted the 6th and 7th commandments, and then had gone on to show that anger is incipient murder, and that lust is adultery in the heart (Mt 5 27-32). He takes the words of the Decalogue and extends them into the realm of thought and feeling. He may have had in mind the 3d commandment in His sharp prohibition of the Jewish habit of swearing by various things (Mt **5** 33-37). As to the Sabbath, His teaching and example tended to lighten the onerous restrictions of the rabbis (Mk **2** 23-28). Duty to parents He elevated above all supposed claims of vows and offerings (Mt 15 4-6). In further extension of the 8th commandment, Jesus said, "Do not defraud" (Mk 10 19); and in treating of the ethics of speech, Jesus not only condemns false witness, but also includes railing, blasphemy, and even an idle word (Mt 15 19; 12 31.36 f). In His affirmation that God is spirit (Jn 4 24), Jesus made the manufacture of images nothing but folly. All his ethical teaching might be said to be founded on the 10th commandment, which tracks sin to its lair in the mind and soul of man.

Our Lord embraced the whole range of human obligation in two, or at most three, commands: (1) "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, and with all thy soul, and with all thy mind"; (2) "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself" (Mt 22 37-40; cf Dt 6 5; Lev 19 18). With love such as is here described in the heart, man cannot trespass against God or his fellow-men. At the close of His ministry, on the night of the betrayal, Jesus gave to His followers a third commandment, not different from the two on which the whole Law hangs, but an extension of the second great commandment upward into a higher realm of self-sacrifice (Jn 13 34 f; 15 12 f.17; cf Eph 5 2; Gal 6 10; 1 Jn 3 14-18). "Thou shalt love" is the first word and the last in the teaching of Our Lord. His teaching is positive rather than negative, and so simple that a child can understand it. For the Christian, the Decalogue is no longer the highest summary of human duty. He must ever read it with sincere respect as one of the great monuments

of the love of God in the moral and religious education of mankind; but it has given place to the higher teaching of the Son of God, all that was permanently valuable in the Ten Commandments having been taken up into the teaching of Our Lord and His apostles.

LITERATURE.—Oehler, OT Theology, I, 267 ff; Dillmann, Ex-Lev, 200-219; Kuenen, Origin and Composition of the Hexateuch, 244; Wellhausen, CH, 331 ff, Rothstein, Das Bundesbuch; Baenstch, Das Bundesbuch; Meissner, Der Dekalog; Driver, "Dt," ICC; Addis, Documents of the Hexateuch, I, 136 ff; R. W. Dale, The Ten Commandments; G. D. Boardman, University Lectures on the Ten Commandments (Philadelphia, 1889).

JOHN RICHARD SAMPEY TEN STRINGS (לְשׁוֹר , 'āsōr). See Music, I, 1, (2), (c).

TENDER, ten'der: The usual (11 out of 16 t) tr of 77, rakh, "soft," "delicate," with the noun 77, of 1, rakh, "soft," "delicate," with the noun 37, rōkh, in Dt 28 56 and the vb. 327, rākhakh, in 2 K 22 19 || 2 Ch 34 27. Attention need be called only to the following cases: In Gen 29 17, "Leah's eyes were tender," a physical defect is described ("weak-eyed"; see BLINDNESS). "Tenderhearted" in 2 Ch 13 7 means "faint-hearted," while in 2 K 22 19 || 2 Ch 34 27 ("because thy heart was tender"), it means "penitent." Contrast the modern use in Eph 4 32 the modern use in Eph 4 32.

Throughout Pss (10 t) and Prov (12 10), but not elsewhere (AV has "tender love" in Dnl 1 9, RV "compassion"), EV translates רְחָבִים, rahāmīm, "bowels," by "tender mercies," and this tr has mīm, "bowels," by "tender mercies," and this tr has been carried into the NT as "tender mercy" (RVm "heart of mercy") for the corresponding Gr phrase splágchna eléous ("bowels of mercy") in Lk 178; cf "tenderhearted" for eusplagchnos ("right boweled") in Eph 4 32, based upon the idea of psychology widely spread among Sem people, which considers the "bowels" (kerebh) as the seat of all tender emotions of kindness and mercy. See BOWELS. AV also has "of tender mercy" in Jas 5 11 without justification in the Gr (oiktirmon, RV "merciful").

word is not quite certain, but RV's "blossom" (except 7 12 m) is probably right. "Tender grass" in 2 8 23 4; Prov 27 25; RV Dt 32 2 (AV "tender herb"); Job 38 27 (AV "tender herb"); Isa 15 6; 66 14 for RV Dt 3, deshe', "grass" (Aram. R) 7, deshe', Dnl 4 15.23). The context in these passages and the meaning of the cognates of deshe' in other Sem languages make this tr probable, but RV's usage is not consistent (cf Gen 1 11.12; Job 6 5; Ps 23 2, etc). Isa 53 2 has "tender plant" for plant", yōnēķ, "a sapling." while Job 14 7 has "tender branch" for the allied word רוֹנֶקָת, yōneketh, usually rendered "shoot" (Job 8 16, etc). Finally, "tender" in Mk 13 28 | Mt 24 32 is for $\alpha \pi a \lambda \delta s$, hapalós, "soft." The running sap of springtime softens the branches that were stiff during the winter.

The vb. "tender" occurs in 2 Macc 4 2, AV "[he had] tendered his own nation," in the modern sense of "tend." The tr is a paraphrase of the noun κηδεμών, kōdemôn, "a protector," RV "the guardian of his fellow-countrymen."

BURTON SCOTT EASTON

TENON, ten'un (77, yādh): This word, occurring in Ex 26 and 36, is used in the account of the tabernacle to describe the "hand" or yādh by which its 48 boards were kept in place. Each board had two tenons which were mortised into it (Ex 36 22 m). These tenons would be made of harder wood than the acacia, so as better to stand the strain of wind and weather. When in use the tenons were sunk into the "sockets" (q.v.), and allowed of a speedy reërection of the tabernacle at its every remove.

Sockets are also mentioned as in use for the stand-

ards of the tabernacle court (Ex 27 10 ff), but there is no mention of tenons. It may be that the base of each standard was let into its socket, without the use of any tenon. This would give it sufficient stability, as the height of each standard was but 5 cubits (7½ ft.) (Ex 27 18).

For Professor A. R. S. Kennedy's different theory of "tenons," see Tabernacle, and his own

art. on the "Tabernacle" in HDB, IV

W. SHAW CALDECOTT TENT, tent (סֹהָלֹל, 'ōhel; σκηνή, skēné; 'ōhel is a derivative of אָהֵל , 'āhal, "to be clear," "to shine"; hence 'ōhel, "to be conspicuous from a distance"): In the great stretches of uncultivated lands in the interior of Syria or Arabia, which probably have much the same aspect today as in Abraham's time, much the same aspect today as in Advantam's time, it is an easy matter to espy an encampment of roving Bedouin, "a nation . . . that dwelleth without care . . . that have neither gates nor bars' (Jer 49 31). The peaks of their black (cf Cant 1 5) goats' hair tents stand out in contrast against the lighter colors of the soil.

There seems to be little doubt about the antiquity of the Arab tent, and one can rightly believe that the dwelling-places of Abraham, Sarah, Jacob, and their descendants were made on the same pattern and of the same materials (Gen 4 20; 9 27; 12 8; 13 3; 18 6; 31 25.33; Ps 78 55; He 11 9, etc). Long after the children of Israel had given up their tents for houses they continued to worship in tents (2 S 7 1-6; 2 Ch 1 3.4) (for the use of tents in connection with religious observances see

TABERNACLE).

The Arab tents (called bait sha'r, "house of hair" are made of strips of black goats' hair cloth, sewed together into one large piece (see Goats' Hair; Weaving). Poles are placed under this covering at intervals to hold it from the ground, and it is stretched over these poles by ropes of goats' hair or hemp (cf Job 4 21; Isa 54 2; Jer 10 20), fastor help (cf 305 \(\frac{2}{2} \); Isa \(\frac{4}{2} \); Jer IU 2U), Iastened to hard-wood pins driven into the ground (Isa \(\frac{54}{2} \); Jgs \(\frac{2}{2} \); \(\frac{5}{26} \). A large wooden mallet for driving the pegs is part of the regular camp equipment (Jgs \(\frac{4}{2} \)); \(\frac{5}{26} \). The sides (curtains) of the tent (Isa \(\frac{54}{2} \)) are made of strips of goats' hair eloth, or from mats woven from split cane or rushes (see illustration, p. 2948). Where more than one family occupies the same tent or the animals are provided with shelter under the same roof (cf 2 Ch 14 15), curtains of the same materials mentioned above form the dividing walls. A corner of the matting where two ends meet is turned back to form the door of the tent (Gen 18 1). In the summer time the walls are mostly removed. New tents are not water-proof, and the condition of the interior after a heavy rain is not far from squalid. The tent material becomes matted by use, esp. if wool has been woven into the fabric, and is then a better protection against the rain. It is the women's duty to pitch the tents.

The poorer Arabs have no mats to cover the ground under their tents. Straw mats, goats' hair or woolen rugs (cf Jgs 4 18), more or less elaborate as the taste and means of the family allow, are the usual coverings for the tent floor. The food supusual coverings for the tent floor. The food supplies are usually kept in goats' hair bags, the liquids, as oil or milk products, in skins. One or two tinned copper cooking-vessels, a shallow tray of the same material, a coffee set consisting of roasting pan, mortar and pestle, boiling-pot and cups, make up the usual camp furniture. The more thrifty include bedding in their equipment, but this increases the difficulties of moving, since it might require more than the one animal, sometimes only a donkey, which carries all the earthly belongings of the family. A sheikh or chief has several tents, one for himself and

guests, separate ones for his wives and female servants, and still others for his animals (cf Gen 31 33).

Other Heb words trd "tent" are forms of אָדְּהָּ hānāh (Nu 13 19; 1 S 17 53; 2 K 7 16; 2 Ch 31 2; Zec 14 15); אָבָּרָ בּנְיִּרָ אָנָאָרָת , sukkāh (2 S 11 11; 22 12); מְשְׁבָּנִרְם , mishkenāth (Cant 1 8).

Figurative: "Neither shall the Arabian pitch tent there" typified utter desolation (Isa 13 20). "Enlarge the place of thy tent . . . stretch forth the curtains . . . lengthen thy cords . . . strengthen thy stakes" prophesied an increase in numbers and prosperity of God's people (Isa 54 2; cf 33 20; Lk 16 9; 2 Cor 5 4). Tent cords plucked up denoted death (Job 4 21). Jer 10 20

Paul dwelt with Aquila and Priscilla, and worked with them at tent-making (cf Acts 20 34). See also Crafts, II, 18.

TEPHON, tē'fon (ἡ Tεφά, hē Tephō): In 1 Macc 9 50, a city of Judaea fortified by Bacchides, probably the "Beth-tappuah" of Josh 15 53, near Hebron. Jos (Ant, XII, i, 3) calls it "Tochoa."

TERAH, tē'ra (Τ΄), teraḥ; LXX Θάρρα, Thárra, or [with NT] Θάρα, Thára; on the name see esp. HDB, s.v.): The son of Nahor and father of Abraham, Nahor and Haran (Gen 11 24 f). At Abraham's birth Terah was 70 years old (11 26), and after Abraham's marriage, Terah, Abraham, Sarah



ARAB TENT.

Tent. 2. Curtain of goats' hair. 2a. Curtain of split reed. 2b. Curtain of rushes.
 Tent rug. 4. Warp of loom (see Weaving).
 Reinforcing of narrow goats' hair strip to hold rope, similar reinforcing under pole.
 Tent rope.
 One of the seams showing manner of sowing. (Behind 2a are bags of flour, etc.)

is a picture of a destroyed household as applied to Judah. Hezekiah in his sickness bewails that his dwelling (life) had been carried away as easily as a shepherd's tent is plucked up (Isa 38 12). Isaiah compared the heavens to a tent spread out (Isa 40 22). "They shall pitch their tents against her" i.e. they shall make war (Jer 6 3).

JAMES A. PATCH

TENTH. See TITHE.

TENTH DEAL, dēl (קְשִׁרֹּך, לְשִּׂרֹר, 'issārōn'): The tenth part of an ephah, and so rendered in RV (Nu 28, 29). It was used in connection with the sacrifices for measuring flour.

TENT-MAKER, tent'māk-ēr (σκηνοποιός, skē-nopoiós): Mentioned only once (Acts 18 3). Paul's native province of Cilicia was noted for its goats' hair cloth which was exported under the name of cilicium and was used largely for tentmaking. We are told in the passage mentioned that

and Lot emigrated from Ur of the Chaldees on the road into the land of Canaan, but stopped in Haran (11 31). When Abraham was 75 years old he and his nephew resumed their journey, leaving Terah in Haran, where 60 years later he died (11 32). St. Stephen, however, states (Acts 7 4) that Terah was dead when Abraham left Haran, an impression that is easily gained from Gen 11-12 if the dates are not computed. As there is no reason to suppose that St. Stephen was granted inspiration that would preserve him from such a purely formal error, the contradiction is of no significance and attempts at "reconciliation" are needless. In particular, the attempt of Blass (Stud. u. Kril., 1896, 460 ff) to alter the text of Acts is quite without foundation. For further discussion see esp. Knowling, Expos Gr Test., ad loc. It is worth noting that Philo makes the same error (Migr. Abr. 177 [§32]), perhaps indicating some special Jewish tradition of NT times. In Josh 24 2 Terah is said to have been an idolater. In Jub 12 this is softened into explaining that

through fear of his life Terah was forced to yield outward conformity to the idolatrous worship of outward conformity to the holatrous worship of his neighbors. On the other hand certain Jewish legends (e.g. Ber. Rab. 17) represent Terah as actually a maker of idols. Otherwise in the Bible Terah is mentioned only by name in 1 Ch 1 26; Lk 3 34.

Burton Scott Easton

TERAH (B, Τάραθ, Tárath, A, Θάραθ, Thárath): A wilderness camp of the Israelites between Tahath and Mithkah (Nu 33 27.28). See Wanderings of

TERAPHIM, ter'a-fim. See Astrology: Divina-TION; IMAGES.

TEREBINTH, ter'ė-binth: (1) אַרְּאָר, 'ēlāh (Isa 6 13, AV "teil tree"; Hos 4 13, AV "elms"); in Gen 35 4 (AV "oak"); Jgs 6 11.19; 9 6 (AV "plain"); 2 S 18 9.10.14; 1 K 13 14; 1 Ch 10 12; Isa 1 30; Ezk 6 13, trd "oak," and in m "terebinth"; "vale of Elah," m "the terebinth" in 1 S 17 2.19; 21 9. (2) אֶלִים, 'ēlīm (Isa 1 29, "oaks," m "terebinths"). (3) τις , 'allāh (Josh 24 26, EV "oak," but LXX τερέβινθος, terébinthos). (4) אָלְלֹּגְי, 'ĕlōn, ''oak [m "terebinth"] of Zaanannim" (Josh 19 33; Jgs 4 11); "oak [RVm "terebinth," AV "plain"] of Tabor" (1 S 10 3); also Gen 12 6; 13 18; 14 13; 1 S 10 3; Dt 11 30; Jgs 6 19 all trd "oak" or "oaks," with m "terebinth" or "terebinths." (5) In Gen 14 6 LXX has τερέβινθος, terebinths." binthos, as the tr of the el of El-paran. (6) In Ecclus 24 16 τερέμ(β)ινθος, terém(b)inthos, AV "turpentine tree," RV "terebinth."

It is clear that the translators are uncertain which tr is correct, and it would seem not improbable that then there was no clear distinction between oak and terebinth in the minds of the OT writers; yet the two are very different trees to any but the most

superficial observation.

The terebinth—Pistacia terebinthus (N.O. Anacardiaceae), Arab. Bum—is a tree allied to the P. vera, which produces the pistachio nut, and to the familiar "pepper tree" (Schinus molle) so extensively cultivated in modern Pal. Like the latter the terebinth has red berries, like small immature grapes. The leaves are pinnate, four to six pairs, and they change color and fall in autumn, leaving the trunk bare (cf Isa 1 30). The terebinth is liable to be infected by many showy galls, some varieties looking like pieces of red coral. In Pal, this tree assumes noble proportions, esp. in situations when, from its association with some sacred tomb, it is allowed to flourish undisturbed. It is in such situations not infrequently as much as 40 ft. high and spreads its branches, with their thick, dark-green foliage, over a wide area (cf 2 S 18 9 f.14; Ecclus 24 16). Dwarfed trees occur among the brushwood all over

From this tree a kind of turpentine is obtained, hence the alternative name "turpentine tree" (Ecclus 24 16 AV, RV "terebinth").

E. W. G. MASTERMAN

TERESH, tē'resh (Ετρ., teresh [Est 2 21; 6 2]; BA Nomit, N. m., Θάρας, Tháras, and Θάρρας, Tháras): A chamberlain of King Ahasuerus. Oppert compares the name with Tiri-dates, the name of the governor of Persepolis in the time of Alexander. Another explanation identifies it with the Pers word turš, "firm"; Scheft links it with the Pers tarsha, "desire."

TERRACE, ter'ās (חֹבֶּסְבְּׁה, mṣṣillāh): Solomon is said, in 2 Ch 9 11, to have made of the algum trees brought him from Ophir "terraces," or raised

walks, for the house of Jeh. In the \parallel 1 K 10 12, the word used is rendered "pillars," m "'a railing'; Heb 'a prop.'"

TERRIBLE, ter'i-b'l, TERROR, ter'ër (אָרָד', yārë', "to be feared," "reverenced," אָרָר', 'ārīç, "powerful," "tyrannical," אָר', 'ayōm, "aweinspiring," חַתְּלָּהָה , hittīth, "terror," בַּלַהָה, ballāhāh, "a worn-out or wasted thing," "Τ'ΩΝ, 'ēmāh, "fright"; φοβερόs, phoberós, "dreadful," φόβοs, phóbos, "fear"): The above terms, and many others which are employed, denote whatever, by horrible aspect. or by greatness, power, or cruelty, affrights men (Dt 1 19; 26 8; Dnl 2 31). God is terrible by reason of His awful greatness, His infinite power, reason of His awful greatness, His infinite power, His inscrutable dealings, His perfect holiness, His covenant faithfulness, His strict justice and fearful judgments (Ex 34 10; Dt 7 21; Neh 9 32; Job 6 4; 37 22; Ps 65 5; 88 15 f; Joel 2 11; Zeph 2 11; He 12 21). The term is also applied to the enemies of God and of His people (Isa 13 11; 25 3 ff; 49 25; Dnl 7 7; 1 Pet 3 14). "The terror [RV "fear"] of the Lord" (2 Cor 5 11) denotes the reverence or fear inspired by the thought that Christ is judge (ver 10).

M. O. Evans

TERTIUS, tûr'shi-us (Τέρτιος, Tértios): The amanuensis of Paul who wrote at his dictation the Ep. to the Rom. In the midst of Paul's greetings to the Christians in Rome he interpolated his own, "I Tertius, who write the epistle, salute you in the Lord" (Rom 16 22). "It is as a Christian, not in virtue of any other relation he has to the Romans, that Tertius salutes them" (Denney). Some identify him with Silas, owing to the fact that shallsh is the Heb for "third [officer]," as tertius is the Lat. Others think he was a Rom Christian residing in Corinth. This is, however, merely conjecture. Paul seems to have dictated his letters to an amanuensis, adding by his own hand merely the concluding sentences as "the token in every epistle" (2 Thess 3 17; Col 4 18; 1 Cor 16 21). How far this may have influenced the style of his letters is discussed in Sanday-Headlam, Romans, Intro, lx.
S. F. Hunter

TERTULLUS, ter-tul'us, ter-(Τέρτυλλος, Tértullos, diminutive of Lat tertius, "third"): An orator who descended with Ananias the high priest and Felix the Rom governor (Acts 24 1). Tertullus was a hired pleader whose services were necessary that the case for the Jews might be stated in proper form. Although he bore a Rom name, he was not necessarily a Roman; Rom names were common both among Greeks and Jews, and most orators were at this time of eastern extraction. Nor is it definitely to be concluded from the manner of his speech (Acts 24 2-8) that he was a Jew; it has always been customary for lawyers to identify themselves in their pleading with their clients. His speech before Felix is marked by considerable ingenuity. It begins with an adulation of the governorship of Felix that was little in accord with history (see Fellx); and the subsequent argument is an example of how a strong case may apparently be made out by the skilful manipulation of half-truths. Thus the riot at Jerus was ascribed to the sedition-mongering of Paul, who thereby proved himself an enemy of Rom rule and Jewish religion, both of which Felix was pledged to uphold. Again, the arrest of Paul was not an act of mob violence, but was legally carried out by the high priests and elders in the interests of peace; and but for the unwarranted interference of Lysias (see Lysias), they would have dealt with the prisoner in their own courts and thus have avoided trespassing on the time of Felix. They were, however, perfectly willing to submit the whole case to his jurisdiction. It is interesting to compare this speech of Tertullus with the true account, as given in Acts 21 27-35, and also with the letter of Lysias (Acts 23 26-30). C. M. Kerr

TESTAMENT, tes'ta-ment: The word διαθήκη, diathékē, almost invariably rendered "covenant," was rendered in AV "testament" in He 9 16.17, in the sense of a will to dispose of property after the maker's death. It is not easy to find justification for the retention of this tr in RV, "esp. in a book which is so impregnated with the language of the LXX as the Ep. to the He" (Hatch). See COVENANT IN THE NT.

TESTAMENT, NEW, CANON OF THE. CANON OF THE NEW TESTAMENT.

TESTAMENT, NEW, TEXT AND MANUSCRIPTS OF THE. See TEXT AND MSS OF THE

TESTAMENT OF ISAAC. See APOCALYPTIC LITERATURE, IV, 3.

TESTAMENT, OLD, CANON OF THE. See CANON OF THE OLD TESTAMENT.

TESTAMENT, OLD, TEXT OF THE. TEXT OF THE OLD TESTAMENT. See

TESTAMENTS, BETWEEN THE. See BE-TWEEN THE TESTAMENTS.

TESTAMENTS OF THE TWELVE PA-TRIARCHS. See Apocalyptic Literature, IV, 1.

TESTIMONY, tes'ti-mō-ni, ARK OF THE (Ex 25 21 f). See ARK OF THE COVENANT.

TETA, tē'ta. See Ateta.

TETH, teth (D): The 9th letter of the Heb alphabet; transliterated in this Encyclopaedia as t (intense t). It came also to be used for the number 9; and with $w\bar{a}w$ for 15, with $z\bar{a}yin$ for 16 (i.e. 9+6) and 9+7) to avoid forming regular series with the abbreviation for Jeh. For name, etc, see Alphabet.

TETRARCH, tē'trärk, tet'rärk (τετράρχης, tetrárchēs): As the name indicates it signifies a prince, who governs one-fourth of a domain or kingdom. The Greeks first used the word. Thus Philip of Macedon divided Thessaly into four "tetrarchies." Later on the Romans adopted the terrarchies. Later on the Romans adopted the term and applied it to any ruler of a small principality. It is not synonymous with "ethnarch," at least the Romans made a distinction between Herod "tetrarch" of Galilee, Philip "tetrarch" of Trachonitis, Lysanias "tetrarch" of Abilene, and Archeläus "ethnarch" of Judaea (BJ, II, vi, 3; Ant, XVII, xi, 4). The title was often conferred and terradian princes by the Romans, and semetimes on Herodian princes by the Romans, and sometimes it was used courteously as a synonym for king (Mt 14 9; Mk 6 14). In the same way a "tetrarchy" was sometimes called a kingdom.

HENRY E. DOSKER TETTER, tet'er (פְהַבּם, bōhaḥ; αλφος, álphos): The term "freckled spot" in AV is thus rendered in RV. The eruption referred to in Lev 13 39 is a pale white spot on the skin. This is described by Gorracus as an eruption arising from a diseased state of the system without roughness of skin, scales or ulceration. It did not render the sufferer unclean, although it is difficult of cure. The disease is commonly known by its Lat name vitiligo. Pliny rec-

ommended the use of capers and lupins to remove it. See Freckled Spot; Leprosy.

TEXT AND MANUSCRIPTS OF THE NEW TESTAMENT:

- I. Sources of Evidence for the Text of the NT
 1. Autographs of the NT Writers
 2. Papyrus Fragments of the Greek NT
 3. Greek Copies or MSS of the NT Text
 4. List of MSS of the Greek NT
 (1) Uncials
 (2) Minuscules
 5. Vernacular Versions
 6. Patristic Quotations
 7. Lectionaries and Service-Books
 II. Necessity of Stfting and Criticizing the Evidence
 EVIDENCE
 II. METHODS OF CRITICAL PROCEDURE
- METHODS OF CRITICAL PROCEDURE HISTORY OF THE PROCESS

LITERATURE

The literary evidence to the text of the NT is vastly more abundant than that to any other series of writings of like compass in the entire range of ancient letters. Of the sacred books of the Heb Bible there is no known copy antedating the 10th cent. AD. Of Homer there is no complete copy earlier than the 13th cent. Of Herodotus there is no MS earlier than the 10th cent. Of Vergil but one copy is earlier than the 4th cent., and but a fragment of all Cicero's writings is even as old as this. Of the NT, however, we have two splendid MSS of the 4th cent., at least ten of the 5th, twentyfive of the 6th and in all a total of more than four thousand copies in whole or in part of the Gr NT. To these copies of the text itself may be added the very important and even more ancient evidence of the VSS of the NT in the Lat, Syr, and Egyp tongues, and the quotations and clear references to the NT readings found in the works of the early Church Fathers, as well as the inscriptions and monumental data in Syria, Asia Minor, Africa, Italy, and Greece, dating from the very age of the apostles and their immediate successors. It thus appears that the documents of the Christian faith are both so many and so widely scattered that these very facts more than any others have embarrassed the final determination of the text. Now, however, the science of textual criticism has so far advanced and the textual problems of the Gr Testament have been so well traversed that one may read the Christian writings with an assurance approximating certainty.

Professor Eberhard Nestle speaks of the Gr text of the NT issued by Westcott and Hort as the "nearest in its approach to the goal." Professor Alexander Souter's student's edition of the Revisers' Gr NT, Oxford, 1910, no doubt attains even a higher watermark. It is the purpose of the present article to trace, as far as it can be done in a clear and untechnical manner, the process of connection between the original writings and this, one of the

latest of the editions of the Gr NT. I. Sources of Evidence for the Text of the NT.—Until very recent times it has not been customary to take up with any degree of confidence, if at all, the subject of NT 1. The Autographs autographs, but since the researches of the NT in particular of Dalman, Deissmann, Moulton (W. F.) and Milligan (George), Writers the task is not only appropriate but incumbent upon the careful student. The whole tendency of recent investigation is to give less place to the oral tradition of Christ's life and teaching and to press back the date of the writing of the Synoptic Gospels into the period falling be-tween Pentecost and the destruction of Jerus. Sir William M. Ramsay goes so far as to claim that "antecedent probability founded on the general character of personal and contemporary Greek of Gr-Asiatic society" would indicate "that the first Christian account of the circumstances connected with the death of Jesus must be presumed to have been written in the year when Jesus died" (Letters to the Seven Churches, 7). W. M. Flinders Petrie argues to the same end and says: "Some generally accepted Gospels must have been in circulation before 60 AD. The mass of briefer records and Logia which the habits and culture of that age would produce must have been welded together within 10 or 20 years by the external necessities" (The Growth of the Gospels, 7).

The autographs of the NT writers have long been

sometimes with a sentence or two at the end. The method of personal research was pursued, as well as compilation of diverse data including folklore and genealogies, together with the grouping of cognate matters in artistic forms and abundant quotation in writings held in high esteem by the readers, as in the First and Third Gospels and the Book of Acts. The presentation copy of one's works must have been written with unusual pains in case of their dedication to a patrician patron, as Lk to "most excellent Theophilus." For specula-

КАІСҮВНОАССІНН 10УАДОУАДМОСС ХДХІСТИСІЄМТОР ARYGINISH TO HOP ARYGINISH TO THE PROPERTY OF TOTCH PUBLICANON KANECACTOY CMAP RANCONTOYCHAFT,
HIGHKOCHHAPA
JONHONZIONON
LOYWAINOMENOY
LOTEFOCKAIHEM
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LOYWAINOMENO
LOYWA AKTEMOTOTICHORA ICDEXOCDNIIPOC TWEADWINITGE
HYPHICWAPTED
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ΚΑΜΊΑΙ ΜΕΛΙΑ ΑΠΝΑΙΑΑΧΗ ΚΟΝΤΑ ΚΑΝΙΑΙΑΚΑΙΑ YNCXGALLICYNCK PAN ANAXOPTIC NIGO ACAPACICANO TAIKATONAPTOT GICHOACTONGIO GICHARANGO GEICHARANGO KYJČOJEKCIEME DEKLICEJEKI ŠIJE HYNJONICEJEHU DEKLICEJEKI ŠEJE HYNJONICEJEHU ANGHICOCOLMER ACITATHIODANC ZHIINTOHEAION TOYALIOAGCCAYF AAKCTOLICATON AAKCTOHCALON KALHIMMILLEPA AYTOYNYK LOCKAL ANCXCOPHICENEL CALLYH LONKALIH GKICCOCTHICTENY HICHEODHIOPHOT YHOKYALATOYTH GENLTYHTOYEKA CEALTYHTOYEKA CSAIL ALLONGKY YECKION ANWOA DECHADALICIAD OTICNETICXOUS HOTONMARDE EOVWOOLIYCIY KYKIOOLIYYY NEINENHYNIYO NEINENHAUINC TOYCHALACTOY CNEHOLCHKAL CNITACITOICPRO AYTHCHIOAIETE INICATURE THE INICATURE INICATURE TAIWAMAI WA TAIWAMAI WA TAIWAMAI WA TAIWAMAI WA TAIWAMAI WA TAIWAMAI WA TOTECHAH PUMH

TOPTE ACTAINGE MICY TOTTHE SHE TOYAL TOTTHE SHE KAJOAYPMO TIOAF PAXHAKANOYCH PAXHAKANOYCH TEKNAAT HEKA CONGINDAKHILA OYKHOEXENIIX IXHOHNXIO'HOY KCICIN КСІСІМ КЕТОУПРОВИЦІО ВЕТОУПРОВИЦІА КОУБІТЕВОВІЎ ФАІМСТАЙІЎЛІОМЯ ТОЙОСНФСМАЇ ТУПТОВСТОМЕ *TEPOEICHAPAAAK* TOHAMIONKAHII icontryciniy beyoyeteriniik mbyyatoakyite OLENTOYNICCIUM YXXHNIOYIICAH OXECTOTOICIIXIC KATTINMPARY 10) KAICICHAOCNEI THNIIIX THOUSE AKOÇCACKĞİLAÇ XEAKOCKACIKEYCI TICCOYKALKOKINI TOYLIÇCAY IOYHIŞI KOYCOKILDICIĞI KILCKOĞINXYIMA HOOCICACIAXIONA KNEXCOPHECNE TAMEPHTHETAXI AAIXOKAJEXOON NATORLICGNOR INATORNICENCIC FIONINACIOMENII NAZAPEFONIOC FIAHPOOHTOPHO-AIATTORNI POOHIL OTHINAZOPALOC KAHOHCCTAL ZENACTAICHMCPCC T CKCINAICHAPAICI

RAPTICT HOBBITS A MICONTRIP

CONCLUDE THE PRE
METANGOTICHS
M PIXONKAMINE KAIZONIINKCE MATINIINIICE HINOCOYNAYE) HACTYOSPHIEST TOYAKPIĞCCIVAN HOYAKIJACCIAN MARIJOH JOTECZCHOPCIA HOHJOCOXYMAŁKI HACAFIJOYAĆ N HACAFIJOYAĆ N HACAFIJOYAĆ N KAJEKAJTIZOH KAJEKAJTIZOH KAJEKAJTIZOH ENTOTOYAANH HOTAMOCSONE KOLOVMENO) FACKMAPTIACKY HON TADH KEHOKAOY TON DAPICATON KAICKAAOYKAIL ETXOMENOYCE HITOKKITICMA EHICA AYTOICH NHMATAEXIAHI HOTESTONIO

Fig. 1. -Facsimile of Cod. Sinaiticus.

lost, but the discovery during the last few years of contemporary documents enables us to form fairly clear notions as to their general literary character and condition. In the first place papyrus was prob-ably the material employed by all the NT writers, even the original Gospel of Mt and the general Ep. of Jas, the only books written within Pal, not being excepted, for the reason that they were not originally written with a view to their liturgical use, in which case vellum might possibly have been employed. Again the evidence of the writings themselves witnesses to the various literary processes followed during the 1st cent. Dictation was largely followed by St. Paul, the names of at least four of his secretaries, Tertius, Sosthenes, Timothy, and Sylvanus, being given, while the master himself, as in many of the Egyp papyri, appended his own signature,

tion as to the probable dimensions of the original papyrus rolls of NT books, one will find Professor J. Rendel Harris and Sir F. G. Kenyon extremely suggestive, and from opposite viewpoints; cf Kenyon, Handbook of the Textual Criticism of the NT; Harris, NT Autographs.

Comparatively few papyrus fragments of the NT are now known to be extant, and no complete book of the NT has as yet been found, though the successes in the field of contemporary Gr writings inspire confidence that ere long the rubbish heaps of Egypt will reward the diligent explorer. Of the LXX (Gr OT) somewhat more has come to light than the NT, while the papyrus copies and fragments of Homer are almost daily increasing.

The list below is condensed from that of Sir Frederick G. Kenyon's Handbook of the Textual Criticism of the

NT, 2d ed, 1912, 41 ff, using Dr. Gregory's method of notation.

of notation.

| Mt 1 1-9.12.14-20. 3d cent. Found at Oxyrhynchus in 1896, now in the University of Pennsylvania.

See illustration under Papyrus.

2. Papyrus

Fragments
of the
Greek NT

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Gr copies or MSS of the NT text have hitherto been and probably will continue to be the chief

source of data in this great field. For determining the existence of the text 3. Greek in its most ancient form the auto-Copies or MSS of the graphs are of supreme value. For NT Text determining the content or extent of the text the VSS are of highest worth.

For estimating the meaning and at the same time for gaining additional data, both as to existence and extent of usage of the NT, the quotations of its text by the Church Fathers, whether as apologists, preachers, or historians, in Assyria, Greece, Africa, Italy or Gaul, are of exceeding importance. But for determining the readings of the text itself the Gr MSS or copies of the original autographs are still the principal evidence of criticism. About 4,000 MSS, in whole or in part, of the Gr NT are now known. These MSS furnish abundant evidence for determining the reading of practically the entire NT, while for the Gospels and most important Epp. the evidence is unprecedented for quantity and for clearness. They are usually divided into two classes: Uncial, or large hand, and Minuscule, or small hand, often called Cursive. The term "cursive" is not satisfactory, since it does not coördinate with the term "uncial," nor are so-called cursive features such as ligatures and oval forms confined to minuscule MSS. The uncials comprise about 140 copies extending from the 4th to the 10th cents. The minuscules include the remaining MSS and fall between the 9th cent. and the invention of printing. Herewith is given a brief description of a few of the chief MSS, both uncial and minuscule, of the NT.

(1) Uncials.—N. Cod. Sinaiticus found by Tischendorf at St. Catherine's Monastery on Mt. Sinai

and now in the Imperial Library at
4. List of St. Petersburg; 4th cent. This is the
MSS of the only uncial which contains the NT entire. It also has the Ep. of Barnabas Greek NT and part of the Shepherd of Hermas and possibly originally the *Didache*. The marks of many correctors are found in the text. It is written on 147½ leaves of very thin vellum in four narrow columns of 48 lines each. The pages measure 15×13½ in., and the leaves are arranged in quaternions of four sheets. The open sheet exposing eight columns resembles greatly an open papyrus roll. There is but rudimentary punctuation and no use of accent or initial letters, but the Eusebian section numbers are found on the margin of the Gospels. Fig. 1 is from the photographic facsimile of &, published by the

Oxford University Press in 1911.

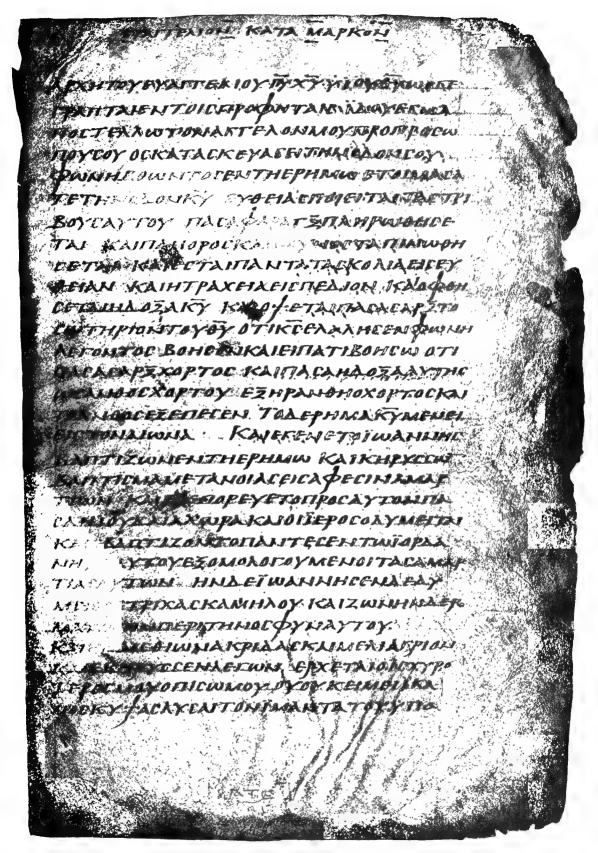
A. Cod. Alexandrinus, so named since it was supposed to have come from Alexandria, being the gift of Cyril Lucar, at one time Patriarch of that Province, though later of Constantinople, to Charles I, through the English ambassador at the Turkish court in 1627, and in 1757 presented to the Royal Library and now in the British Museum. It doubtless belongs to the 5th cent., and contained the entire NT, lacking now only portions of Mt, Jn, and 1 Cor, as well as the two Epp. of Clement of Rome and the Ps Sol. It is written on thin vellum in two columns of 41 lines to the page, which is $12\frac{5}{8}$ 103 in.; employs frequent initial capitals, and is divided into paragraphs, but has no marginal signs except in the Gospels. Several different hands are discovered in the present state of the MS.

B. Cod. Vaticanus, since 1481, at least, the chief treasure of the Vatican Library, and universally esteemed to be the oldest and best MS of the Gr NT; 4th cent. Written on very fine vellum, the leaves nearly square in shape, $10 \times 10^{\frac{1}{2}}$ in., with three narrow columns of 40-44 lines per column and five sheets making the quire. A part of the Ep. to the He and the Pastorals, Philem and Rev are lacking. It is without accents, breathings or punctua-tion, though corrected and retraced by later hands. In the Gospels the divisions are of an earlier date than in Cod. S. The theory of Tischendorf that Codd. & and B were in part prepared by the same hand and that they were both among the 50 MSS made under the direction of Eusebius at Caesarea in 331 for use in the emperor Constantine's new

capital, is not now generally accepted.
C. Cod. Ephraemi Rescriptus. This is the great palimpsest (twice written) MS of the uncial group, and originally contained the whole NT. Now, however, a part—approximately half—of every book is lacking, and 2 Thess and 2 Jn are entirely gone. It belongs to the 5th cent., is written on good vellum $9\times12\frac{1}{2}$ in. to the page of 41 lines, and of one column in the original text, though the superimposed writings of St. Ephraem are in two. Enlarged initials and the Eusebian marginal sections are used and several hands have corrected the MS. See Fig. 2. Brought to Italy from the East in the 16th cent., it came to France with Catherine de' Medici and is now in the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris

D. Cod. Bezae. This is the early known MS which Theodore Beza obtained in 1562 from the monastery of St. Irenaeus at Lyons and which he gave in 1581 to the University of Cambridge, where it now is. It is a Gr-Lat text, the Gr holding the chief place on the left-hand page, measuring 8×10 in., and dates probably from the end of the 5th Both Gr and Lat are written in large uncials and divided into short clauses, corresponding line for line. The hands of no less than nine correctors have been traced, and the critical questions arising from the character of the readings are among the most interesting in the whole range of Bib. criticism and are still unsettled. It contains only the Gospels and Acts with a fragment of 3 Jn.
W. Cod. Washingtoniensis. The United States

has now in the National Library (Smithsonian) at the capital one of the foremost uncial MSS of the





Gr NT. It is a complete codex of the Gospels, in a slightly sloping but very ancient hand, written upon good vellum, in one column of 30 lines to the page, and 6×9 in. in size. By all the tests ordi-

Mr. C. L. Freer of Detroit, who obtained the MS in Egypt in 1906, and is edited by Professor H. A. Sanders for the University of Michigan Press, 1911. See accompanying page insert.

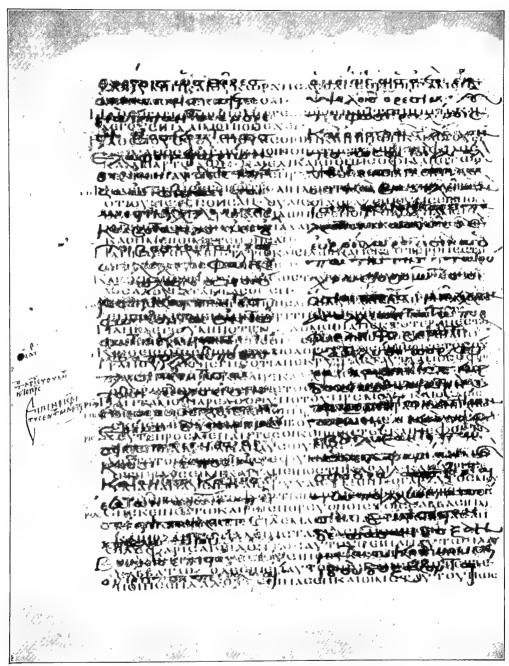


Fig. 2.—Facsimile of Cod. Ephraemi Rescriptus.

narily given, it belongs to the period of the earliest codices, possibly of the 4th cent. Like Cod. D, it has the order of the Gospels: Mt, Jn, Lk, Mk, and contains an apocryphal interpolation within the longer ending of Mk for which no other Gr authority is known, though it is probably referred to by St. Jerome. It has been published in facsimile by

(2) Minuscules.—Out of the thousands of minuscule MSS now known only the four used by Erasmus, together with one now found in the United States, will be enumerated.

1. This is an 11th-cent. codex at Basel. It must have been copied from a good uncial, as its text often agrees with Codd. X and B.

Books

1r. Of the 12th cent., and now at Mayhingen, This is the only MS Erasmus had for Rev in his editio princeps, and being defective at the end, 22 16-21, he supplied the Gr text by retranslating from the Lat; cf TR and AV. Generally speaking, this MS is of high quality.

2. This is a 15th-cent. MS at Basel, and was that on which Erasmus most depended for his 1st ed, 1516. It reflects a good quality of text.

2ap. Some have assigned this MS to the 12th cent., though it was probably later. It is at Basel, and was the principal text used by Erasmus in the Acts and Epp.

667. As illustrating a good type of minuscule of the Gospels, see Fig. 3, taken from Evangelistaria 667, which came from an island of the Sea of Marmora; purchased in Constantinople by Dr. Albert L. Long in 1892 and now in the Drew Semi-

nary Library at Madison, N.J. Vernacular VSS, or translations of the Scriptures into the tongues of western Christendom,

were, some of them, made as early 5. Vernacu- as the 2d cent., and thus antedate lar Versions by several generations our bestknown Greek text. It is considered by many as providential that the Bible was early trd into different tongues, so that its corruption to any large extent became almost if not altogether an impossibility, since the VSS of necessity belonged to parts of the church widely removed from one another and with very diverse doctrinal and institutional tendencies. The testimony of tr^s to the exact form of words used either in an autograph or a Gr copy of an author is at best not beyond dispute, but as evidence for the presence or absence of whole sections or clauses of the original, their standing is of prime importance. Such extreme literalness frequently prevails that the vernacular idiom is entirely set aside and the order and construction of words in the original sources are slavishly followed and even transliterated, so that their bearing on many questions at issue is direct and convincing. Although the Gr NT has now been trd into all the principal tongues of the earth, comparative criticism is confined to those VSS made during the first eight centuries.

Patristic quotations afford a unique basis of evidence for determining readings of the NT. So able and energetic were the

6. Patristic Church Fathers of the early centu-Quotations ries that it is entirely probable that the whole text of the Gr NT could be

recovered from this source alone, if the writings of apologists, homilists and commentators were carefully collated. It is also true that the earliest heretics as well as the defenders of the faith recognized the importance of accurately determining the original text, so that their remains also comprise no mean source for critical research. It is evident that the value of patristic quotations will vary according to such factors as the reliability of the reading, as quoted, the personal equation or habit of accuracy or looseness of the particular writer, and the purity or corruption of the text he employs. One of the marked advantages of this sort of evidence arises from the fact that it affords additional ground for localizing and dating the various classes of texts found both in original copies and in VSS. For general study the more prominent Church Fathers of the 2d, 3d and 4th cents. are sufficient, though profitable investigation may be made of a much wider period. By the beginning of the 5th cent., however, the type of text quoted almost universally was closely akin to that now known as the TR.

Lectionaries and service-books of the early Christian period afford a source of considerable

value in determining the general type of texts, together with the order and 7. Lectionaries and contents and distribution of the several books of the Canon. As the lection-Serviceary systems both of the eastern and western churches reach back to post-

apostolic times and all are marked by great verbal conservatism, they present data of real worth for determining certain problems of textual criticism. From the very nature of the case, being compiled for a liturgical use, the readings are often introduced and ended by set formulas, but these are easily separated from the text itself, which generally follows copy faithfully. Even the systems of chapter headings and divisions furnish clues for classifying

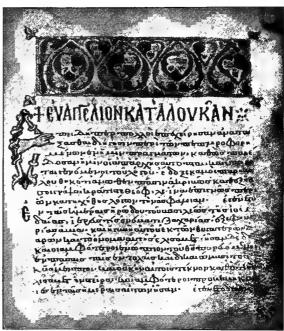


Fig. 3.—Facsimile Minuscule Manuscript.

and comparing texts, for there is high probability that texts with the same chapter divisions come from the same country. Probably the earliest system of chapter divisions is preserved in Cod. Vat., coming down to us from Alexandria probably by way of Caesarea. That it antedates the codex in which it appears is seen from the fact that the Pauline Epp. are numbered as comprising a continuous book with a break between Gal and Eph and the dislocated section numbers attached to He which follows 2 Thess here, though the numbers indicate its earlier position after Gal. Another system of chapter divisions, at least as old as the 5th cent., found in Cod. Alex., cuts the text into much larger sections, known as Cephalia Majora. In all cases the enumeration begins with the 2d section, the 1st being considered introductory. Bishop Eusebius developed a system of text division of the Gospels based upon an earlier method attributed to Ammonius, adding a series of tables or Canons. The first table contained sections giving events common to all four evangelists, and its number was written beneath the section number on the margin in each Gospel, so that their parallels could readily be found. The 2d, 3d and 4th Canons contain lists of sections in which three of the Gospels have passages in common (the combination Mk, Lk, Jn, does not occur). The 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th and 9th contain lists in which two combine (the combination Mk, Jn, does not occur). Canon 10 contains those peculiar to some one of the Gospels.

II. Necessity of Sifting and Criticizing the Evidence.—Criticism from its very nature concerns itself entirely with the problems suggested by the errors of various kinds which it brings to light. In the writings of the NT the resources of textual evidence are so vast, exceeding, as we have seen, those of any other ancient literature, sacred or secular, that the area of actual error is relatively quite appreciable, though it must be remembered that this very abundance of textual variety ultimately makes for the integrity and doctrinal unity of the teaching of the NT books. Conjectural emendation which has played so large a part in the restoration of other writings has but slight place in the textual criticism of the NT, whose materials are so abundant that the difficulty is rather to select right renderings than to invent them. We have catalogued the principal sources of right readings, but on the most casual investigation of them discover large numbers of wrong readings mingled with the true, and must proceed to consider the sources of error or various readings, as they are called, of which approximately some 200,000 are known to exist in the various MSS, VSS, patristic citations and other data for the text.

and other data for the text.

"Not," as Dr. Warfield says, "that there are 200,000 places in the NT where various readings occur, but that there are nearly 200,000 readings all told, and in many cases the documents so differ among themselves that many various readings are counted on a single word, for each document is compared in turn with one standard and the number of its divergences ascertained, then these sums are themselves added together and the result given as the number of actually observed variations." Dr. Ezra Abbott was accustomed to remark that "about nineteen-twentieths of the variations have so little support that, although there are various readings, and nineteen-twentieths of the remainder are of so little importance that their adoption or rejection would cause no appreciable difference in the sense of the passages in which they occur." Dr. Hort's view was that "upon about one word in eight, various readings exist supported by sufficient evidence to bid us pause and look at it; about one word in sixty has various readings upon it supported by such evidence as to render our decision nice and difficult, but that so many variations are trivial that only about one word in every thousand has upon it substantial variation supported by such evidence as to call out the efforts of the critic in deciding between the readings." The oft-repeated dictum of Bentley is still valid that "the real text of the sacred writings is competently exact, nor is one article of faith or moral precept either perverted or lost, choose as awkwardly as you will, choose the worst by design, out of the whole lump of readings." Despite all this, the true scholar must be furnished rightly to discriminate in the matter of diverse readings. of diverse readings.

From the very nature of the case it is probable that errors should be frequent in the NT; indeed, even printed works are not free from them, as is seen in the most carefully edited editions of the Eng. Bible, but in MSS the difficulty is increased in direct proportion to the number of various copies still extant. There are two classes of errors giving rise to various readings, unconscious or unintentional and conscious or intentional.

Of the first class, that of unconscious errors, there are five sorts:

(1) Errors of the eye, where the sight of the copyist confuses letters or endings that are similar, writing e.g. C for C; C for C for C; C for CTTAN for TIAN; M for $\Lambda\Lambda$. Here should be named homoeoteleuton, which arises when two successive lines in a copy end in the same word or syllable and the eye catches the second line instead of the first and the copyist omits the intervening words as in Cod. Cof Jn 6 39.

(2) Errors of the pen.—Here is classed all that body of variation due to the miswriting by the penman of

what is correctly enough in his mind but through carelessness he fails rightly to transfer to the new copy. Transposition of similar letters has evidently occurred in Codd. E. M., and H of Mk 14 65, also in H₂L₂ of Acts 13 23.

(3) Errors of speech.—Here are included those variations which have sprung from the habitual forms of speech to which the scribe in the particular case was accustomed and which he therefore was inclined to write. Under this head comes "itacism," arising from the confusion of vowels and diphthongs, esp. in dictation. Thus \(\epsilon\) is constantly written \(\epsilon\) and vice versa; \(\alpha\) for \(\epsilon\) and \(\epsilon\) is the prove of \(\epsilon\) and \(\epsilon\) for \(\epsilon\) and \(\epsilon\) is the switing down what he saw there." Here are classed the numerous petty changes in the order of words and the substitution of synonyms, as \(\epsilon\) for \(\epsilon\) for \(\epsilon\) for \(\epsilon\) for \(\epsilon\) and \(\epsilon\) for \(\

"the prophets."
(3) Harmonistic corrections.—These are quite frequent in the Gospels, e.g. the attempted assimilation of the Lord's Prayer in Lk to the fuller form in Mt, and quite possibly the addition of the words "of sin" to the phrase in Jn 8 34, "Every one that doeth sin is a slave." A certain group of harmonistic corruptions where scribes allow the memory parkaps unconsciously to affect the

certain group of harmonistic corruptions where scribes allow the memory, perhaps unconsciously, to affect the writing may rightly be classed under (4) above.

(4) Doctrinal corrections.—Of these it is difficult to assert any unquestioned cases unless it be the celebrated Trinitarian passage (AV 1 Jn 5 7.8a) or the several passages in which fasting is coupled with prayer, as in Mt 17 21; Mk 9 29; Acts 10 30; 1 Cor 7 5.

(5) Liturgical corrections.—These are very common, esp. in the lectionaries, as in the beginning of lessons, and are even found in early unclais, e.g. Lk 8 31; 10 23, etc.

III. Methods of Critical Procedure.—Here as in other human disciplines necessity is the mother of invention, and the principles of critical procedure rest almost entirely on the data connected with the errors and discrepancies which have consciously or unconsciously crept into the text. The dictum of Dr. George Salmon that "God has at no time given His church a text absolutely free from ambiguity" is true warrant for a free and continued inquiry into this attractive field of study. process of textual criticism has gradually evolved certain rules based upon judgments formed after patiently classifying and taking into account all the documentary evidence available, both internal and external.

(1) An older reading is preferable to one later, since it is presumed to be nearer the original. However, mere age is no sure proof of purity, as it is now clear that very many of the corruptions of the text became current at an early date, so that in some cases it is found that later copies really represent a more ancient reading.

(2) A more difficult reading, if well supported, is preferable to one that is easier, since it is the tendency of copyists to substitute an easy, well-known and smooth reading for one that is harsh, unusual and ungrammatical. This was commonly done with the best of intentions, the scribe supposing he was rendering a real service to truth.

(3) A shorter is preferable to a longer reading, since here again the common tendency of scribes is toward additions and insertions rather than omissions. Hence arose, in the first place, the marginal glosses and insertions between the lines which later transcribers incorporated into the text. Although this rule has been widely accepted, it must be applied with discrimination, a longer reading being in some cases clearly more in harmony with the style of the original, or the shorter having arisen from a case of homoeoteleuton.

(4) A reading is preferable, other things being equal, from which the origin of all alternative readings can most clearly be derived. This principle is at once of the utmost importance and at the same time demands the most careful application. It is a sharp two-edged sword, dangerous alike to

the user and to his opponents.

(5) A reading is preferable, says Scrivener, "which best suits the peculiar style, manner and habits of thought of an author, it being the tendency of copyists to overlook the idiosyncrasies of the writer. Yet habit or the love of critical correction may sometimes lead the scribe to change the text to his author's more usual style as well as to depart from it through inadvertence, so that we may securely apply the rule only where the external evidence is not unequally balanced."

(6) A reading is preferable which reflects no doctrinal bias, whether orthodox on the one side or heretical on the other. This principle is so obvious that it is accepted on all sides, but in practice wide divergence arises, owing to the doctrinal bias of the

critic himself.

These are the main Canons of internal evidence. On the side of external evidence may be summarized what has already been implied:

(1) A more ancient reading is usually one that

is supported by the most ancient MSS.

(2) A reading which has the undoubted support of the earliest MSS, VSS and patristic writers is unquestionably original.

(3) A disagreement of early authorities usually indicates the existence of corruption prior to them all.

(4) Mere numerical preponderance of witnesses (to a reading) of any one class, locality or time, is of comparative insignificance.

(5) Great significance must be granted to the testimony of witnesses from localities or times widely apart, and it can only be satisfactorily met by a balancing agreement of witnesses also from

different times and localities.

These rules, though they are all excellent and each has been employed by different critics with good results, are now somewhat displaced, or rather supplemented, by the application of a principle very widely used, though not discovered, by Westcott and Hort, known as the principle of the genealogy of MSS. The inspection of a very broad of the state of the North health of the control of the state o range of witnesses to the NT text has led to their classification into groups and families according to their prevailing errors, it being obvious that the greater the community of errors the closer the relationship of witnesses. Although some of the terms used by WH, as well as their content, have given rise to well-placed criticism, yet their grouping of MSS is so self-convincing that it bids fair, with but slight modification, to hold, as it has thus far done, first place in the field. Sir Frederick G. Kenyon has so admirably stated the method that the gist of his account will be given, largely using his identical words (Handbook to the Textual Criticism of the NT, 2d ed, London, 1912). As in all scientific criticism, four steps are followed by WH: (a) The individual readings and the authorities for them are studied; (b) an estimate is formed of the character of the several authorities; (c) an effort is made to group these authorities as descendants of a common ancestor, and (d) the individual readings are again taken up and the first provisional estimate of their comparative probability revised in the light of the knowledge gained as to the value and interrelation of the several authorities.

Applying these methods, four groups of texts emerge from the mass of early witnesses: (a) The Antiochian or Syrian, the most popular of all and at the base of the Greek TR and the English AV in the Gospels the great uncials A and C support it as well as N, Σ and Φ , most of the later uncials and almost all minuscules, the Pesh-Syr version and the bulk of the Church Fathers from Chrysostom; (b) the Neutral, a term giving rise to criticism on all sides and by some displaced by the term Egyptian; this group is small but of high antiquity, including & BLTZ, A and C, save in the Gospels, the Coptic VSS (esp. the Bohairic) and some of the minuscules, notably 33 and 81; (c) the Alexandrian, closely akin to the Neutral group, not found wholly in any one MS but traceable in such MSS as *CLX, 33, and the Bohairic version, when they differ from the other members headed by B; (d) the Western, another term considered ambiguous, since it includes some important MSS and Fathers very ancient and very Eastern; here belong $DD^2 E^2F^2G^2$ among the uncials, 28, 235, 383, 565 614, 700, and 876 among the minuscules, the Old Syr and Old Lat and sometimes the Sahidic VSS

Of these groups by far the most superior is the Neutral, though WH have made it so exclusively to coincide with Cod. B that they appear at times to have broken one of the great commandments of a philologist, as quoted by Dr. Nestle from a German professor, "Thou shalt worship no codices." Now, the only serious dispute centers on the apparent slight which this system may have put upon the so-called Western type of text in group four. The variants of this family are extensive and important and appear due to an extremely free handling of the text at some early date when scribes felt themselves at liberty to vary the language of the sacred books and even to insert additional passages of consider-

able length.

Although this type of text is of very early origin and though prevalent in the East was very early carried to the West, and being widely known there has been called Western, yet, because of the liberties above referred to, its critical value is not high, save in the one field of omissions. In Egypt, however, and esp. Alexandria, just as in the case of the OT, the text of the NT was critically considered and conserved, and doubtless the family called Neutral, as well as the so-called Alexandrian, springs up here and through close association with Caesarea becomes prevalent in Pal and is destined to prevail every-The WH contention that the Antiochian text arose as a formal attempt at repeated revision of the original text in Antioch is not so convincing, but for want of a better theory still holds its place. Their objections, however, to its characteristic readings are well taken and everywhere accepted, even von Soden practically agreeing here, though naming it the koing text. It is also interesting to find that von Soden's Hesychian text so closely parallels the Neutral-Alexandrian above, and his Jerusalem family the Western. And thus we arrive at the present consensus of opinion as to the genea-

logical source of the text of the NT.

IV. History of the Process.—Abundant evidence exists and is constantly growing to show that critical opinion and methods were known at least from the very days of the formation of the NT Canon, but in such a sketch as the present the history can only be traced in modern times. The era of printing necessarily marks a new epoch here. Among available MSS choice must be made and a standard set, and in view of the material at hand it is remarkable

how ably the work was done. It began in Spain under Cardinal Ximenes of Toledo, who printed at Alcala (Complutum) in 1514 the NT volume of his great Polyglot, though it was not actually issued until 1522. Meanwhile the great Erasmus, under patronage of Froben the printer of Basel, had been patronage of Froben the printer of Basel, had been preparing a Gr NT, and it was published early in 1516 in a single volume and at low cost, and had reached its 3d ed by 1522. His 4th ed in 1537 contains Erasmus' definitive text, and, besides using Cardinal Ximenes', had the advantage of minuscule MSS already named. The next important step was taken by Robert Estienne (Stephanus), whose 3d ed, "Regia," a folio published in Paris in 1550, was a distinct advance, and, though based directly upon the work of Ximenes and Erasmus, had marginal readings from 15 new MSS, one of which was Cod. Bezae (D). The learned Theodore Beza himself worked with Stephanus' son Henri, and brought out no less than nine editions of the NT, but no great critical advance was made in them. The same may be said of the seven Elzevir editions brought out at Leyden and Amsterdam between 1624 and 1678, the second, that of 1633, in the preface of which occurs the phrase, "Textum ergo habes nunc ab omnibus receptum," becoming the continental standard, as the 1550 edition of Stephanus has for England. Thus we arrive at the TR, and the period of preparation is closed.

The second period, or that of discovery and research, was ushered in by the great London Polyglot of 1657, edited by Brian Walton (later Bishop of Chester) with collations by Archbishop Ussher of 15 fresh MSS, including Cod. A and Cod. 59. But Dr. John Mill of Oxford was the Erasmus of this period, and in 1707 after 30 years of labor brought out the Gr TR with fresh collations of 78 MSS, many VSS and quotations from the early Fathers. His MSS included ABDEK, 28, 33, 59, 69, 71, the Peshito, Old Lat and Vulg, and his Prolegomena set a new standard for textual criticism. This apparatus was rightly appreciated by Richard Bentley of Cambridge and a revised text of the Gr and of the Vulg NT was projected along lines which have prevailed to this day. The work and wide correspondence of Bentley had stirred up continental scholars, and J. A. Bengel published in 1734 at Tübingen a Gr NT with the first sug-gestion as to genealogical classification of MSS. J. J. Wetstein of Basel and Amsterdam, though a very great collector of data and the author of the system of MS notation which has continued ever since, made little critical advance. J. S. Semler, taking Wetstein's material, began rightly to interpret it, and his pupil J. J. Griesbach carried the work still farther, clearly distinguishing for the first time a Western, an Alexandrian and a Constantinopolitan recension.

With Carl Lachmann began the last epoch in NT criticism which has succeeded in going behind the TR and establishing an authentic text based on the most ancient sources. He applied the critical methods with which he was familiar in editing the classics, and with the help of P. Buttmann produced an edition in 1842-50 which led the way directly toward the goal; but they were limited in materials and Tischendorf soon furnished these. Constantin Tischendorf, both as collector and editor, is the foremost man thus far in the field. His 8th ed, 1872, of the Gr NT, together with his Prolegomena, completed and published, 1884-1894, by C. R. Gregory, set a new standard. Dr. Gregory's German edition of the Prolegomena, 1900-1909, supplemented by his Die griechischen Handschriften des NT, 1908, marks the further advance of the master through his master pupil. Meanwhile, S. P. Tregelles was doing almost as prodigious and

valuable a work in England, and was thus preparing for the final advances at Cambridge. F. H. A. Scrivener also ranks high and did extremely valuable, though somewhat conservative, work in the same direction. In 1881 "the greatest edition ever published," according to Professor Souter, was brought out in England coincident with the RV of the Eng. NT. This, together with the introduction, which the same writer characterizes as "an achievement never surpassed in the scholarship of any country," was the joint product of B. F. Westcott and F. J. A. Hort, friends and co-workers for many years in the University of Cambridge. Thus with the end of the 19th cent. the history of the process may be said to close, though both process and progress still advance with everincreasing triumph.

Von Soden's ed of the NT appeared during the summer of 1913 and is of first importance. differs from all others in the extreme weight laid on Tatian's Diatessaron as the source of the bulk of the errors in the Gospels. This theory is not likely to command the assent of scholars and the text (which does not differ greatly from Tischendorf's) is consequently of doubtful value. Nevertheless, for fulness of material, clearness of arrangement, and beauty of printing, von Soden's ed must inevitably supersede all others, even where the text is dissented from. Dr. Gregory promises a new ed at some day not too far in the future which, in turn, will probably supersede von Soden's.

bly supersede von Soden's.

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CHARLES FREMONT SITTERLY

TEXT OF THE OLD TESTAMENT:

TEXT OF THE OLD TESTAMENT:

EARLIEST FORM OF WRITING IN ISRAEL

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2. The Cuneiform

3. References to Writing in the OT

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THE TWO HEBREW SCRIPTS

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ATURE TX XII.

I. Earliest Form of Writing in Israel.—The art of writing is not referred to in the Book of Gen, even where we might expect a reference to it, e.g. in Gen 23, nor anywhere in the OT before the time of Moses (cf, however, Gen 38 18.25; 41 44, which speak of "sealing" devices, and see Seal; WRITING)

LITERATURE

About the year 1500 BC alphabetic writing was practised by the Phoenicians, but in Pal the syllabic Bab cuneiform was in use (see

1. Invention Alphabet). The Israelites probably of Alphabet did not employ any form of writing in their nomadic state, and when they entered Canaan the only script they seem ever to have used was the Phoen. This is not disproved by the discovery there of two cuneiform contracts of the 7th cent., as these probably belonged to strangers. There is only one alphabet in the world, which has taken many forms to suit the languages for which it was employed. This original alphabet was the invention of the Semites, for it has letters peculiar to the Semitic languages, and probably of the Phoenicians (so Lucan, *Pharsalia* iii.220; cf Herod. v.58), who evolved it from the Egyp hiero-

glyphics. Of the lit. of Canaan before the Israelites entered it the remains consist of a number of cuneiform

tablets found since 1892 at Lachish, Gezer, Taanach and Megiddo, but esp of the famous Am Tab, discovered 2. The Cuneiform in Egypt in 1887. Although this non-alphabetic script was in use in Canaan when the Israelites entered it, they do not seem to have adopted it.

The earliest reference to writing in the OT is The next is Ex 24 7, mentioning the Book of the Covenant (Ex 20-23). The Book of the Wars of Jeh is named Ex 17 14. 3. Referin Nu 21 14. Other early references ences to are Jgs 5 14 m; 8 14 m. By the time of the monarchy the king and nobles Writing in the OT could write (2 S 11 14; 8 17), but not the common people, until the time of Amos

and Hosea, when writing seems to have been

The Phoen script prevailed in Pal after the conquest as well as in the countries bordering on it. This is shown by the inscriptions which have been discovered. The chief of these are: the Baal Lebanon inscription found in Cyprus (beginning of the 9th cent.); the MS of about the year 896 of the

ordinary chronology; a Heb agricul-tural calendar of the 8th cent; fifteen 4. Inscriplion-weights from Nineveh of about tions after Settlement the year 700; the Siloam Inscription in Canaan of the time of Hezekiah; about a score of seals; and, in 1911, a large number

of ostraca of the time of Ahab.

In this oldest writing the vowels are rarely expressed, not even final vowels being indicated. The only mark besides the letters is a

5. Orthog- point separating the words. There raphy of the are no special forms for final letters. Period Words are often divided at the ends of lines. The writing is from right to left. The characters of the Siloam Inscription and the ostraca show some attempt at elegant writing

II. The Two Hebrew Scripts.—Two distinct scripts were used by the Hebrews, an earlier and a later. The Old Heb alphabet con-1. The tained 22 letters, all consonants. The Old Hebrew order of these letters is known from

Alphabet that of the Gr, taken in order of their numerical values, and later by the alphabetic pss, etc, and by the figure called 'at-bash (see Sheshach). In the acrostic passages, however, the order is not always the same; this may be due to corruption of the text. In the alphabet, letters standing together bear similar names. These are ancient, being the same in Gr as in Sem. They were probably given from some fancied resemblance which the Phoenicians saw in the original Egyp sign to some object.

The development of the Phoen alphabet called Aram. begins about the 7th cent. BC. It is found inscribed as dockets on the cuneiform

2. Ara-

clay tablets of Nineveh, as the Phoen letters were upon the lion-weights; maean on coins of the Pers satraps to the Alphabets time of Alexander; on Egyp inscriptions and papyri; and on the Palmyrene inscriptions. The features of this script are the following: The loops of the letters bēth, dāleth, tēth, kōph and rēsh, which are closed in the Phoen and Old Heb, are open, the bars of the letters he, waw, zayin, are open, the bars of the letters he, waw, zayın, hēth and tāw are lost, and the tails of kaph, lāmedh, mēm, pē and çādhē, which are vertical in the old Aram, begin in the Egyp Aram. to curve toward the left; words are divided, except in Palmyrene, by a space instead of a point; vowel-letters are freely used; and the use of ligatures involves a disjunction of initial medial and final forms. These tinction of initial, medial and final forms. There are of course no vowel-marks.

After the Jews returned from the exile, the Aram. language was the *lingua franca* of the Seleucid empire, displacing Assyr, Old Heb and 3. The Phoen. The Phoen script also had New Hegiven place to the Aram. in Mesopobrew Script tamia, Syria and Egypt. In Syria it divided into two branches, a northern which grew into Syriac, and a southern, or Jewish, from which the New Heb character was produced.

What is believed to be the oldest inscription in the modern Heb character is that in a cave at 'Arak al-'Amîr near Heshbon, which **Arak al-'Amîr near Heshbon, which was used as a place of retreat in the year 176 BC (Ant, XII, iv, 11; CIH, scriptions no. 1). Others are: four boundary stones found at Gezer; the inscriptions over the "Tomb of St. James," really of the Beni Hezir (1 Ch 24 15; Neh 10 20); that of Kefr Birim, assigned to the year 300 AD (CIH, no. 17), in which the transition to the New Heb script may in which the transition to the New Heb script may be said to be accomplished; and others have been

found all over the Rom empire and beyond. See ARCHAEOLOGY.

The inscriptions show that the familiar Heb character is a branch of the Aramaic. In the 3d cent.

BC the latter script was in general 5. Summary use in those countries where Assyr-Bab, Old Heb and Phoen had been used before. The Jews, however, continued to employ the Old Heb for religious purposes esp.,

and the Samaritans still retain a form of it in

their Bible (the Pent).

III. The Change of Script.—It is now almost universally agreed that the script in which the OT was written was at some time changed from the Phoenician to the Aramaic. But in the past many opinions have been held on the subject.

Rabbi Eleazar of Modin (d. 135 AD), from the mention of the hooks (waws) in Ex 27 10

and from Est 8 9, denied any change at all. Rabbi Jehuda (d. c 210) maintained that the 1. Various Theories Law was given in the New Heb,

which was later changed to the Old as a punishment, and then back to the New, on the people repenting in the time of Ezra. Texts bearing on the matter are 2 K 5 7; 18 26; Isa 8 1, from which various deductions have been drawn. There may have been two scripts in use at the same time, as in Egypt (Herod. ii.36).

In regard to the change in the Law, the oldest authority, Eleazar ben Jacob (latter part of the 1st

cent. AD), declared that a Prophet 2. Change at the time of the Return commanded in the Law to write the Torah in the new or square character. Next Rabbi Jose (a century later) states (after Ezr 4 7) that Ezra intro-

duced a new script and language. But the locus classicus is a passage in the Talm (Sanhedhrīn 21b): "Originally the Law was given to Israel in the Heb character and in the Holy Tongue; it was given again to them in the days of Ezra in the Assyr characters and in the Aram. tongue. Israel chose for herself the Assyr character and the Holy Tongue, and left the Heb character and the Aram. tongue to the hedhyōtōth." Here Heb=Old Hebrew: Assvr= the new square character, and hedhyōṭōth is the Gr idiōtai=the Heb 'am hō-'āreç, the illiterate multitude. From the 2d cent. on (but not before), the Talmudic tradition is unanimous in ascribing the change of script in the Law to Ezra. The testimony of Jos points to the Law at least being in the square character in his day (Ant, XII, ii, 1, 4). The Sam Pent was almost certainly drawn up in the time of Nehemiah (cf. 13 28; also Ant, XI, vii, 2), and points to the Old Heb being then in use. So Rabbi Hasda (d. 309) refers the word hedhyōtōth above to the Samaritans. On the other hand, the Sam Pent may have been the original Law, common to both Israel and Judah. In any case it is written in a form of the Old Heb character.

In regard to the other books, the old script was used after Ezra's time. Est 8 9 and Dnl 5 8 ff must refer to the unfamiliar Old Heb.

So Mt 5 18 implies the New, but only 3. Other

Books in the Law.

The Gr tr known as the LXX was made in Alexandria, and is hardly evidence for Pal. The Law was probably trd under Ptolemy II (284-

247 BC), and the other books by the

4. Evidence end of the 2d cent. BC (cf Ecclus, of LXX Prologue). The variations of the LXX from the MT point to an early form of the course bearing in use; but the Laws the square character as being in use; but the Jews of Egypt had used Aram. for some centuries before

The variations between parallel passages in the

MT itself, such as Josh 21 and 1 Ch 6; 2 S 23 and 1 Ch 11, etc, show that the letters most frequently confused are d and r, which are similar in both the Old and New Heb; b and d, which are more alike in the Old; w and y and several others, which are more alike in the New. Such errors evidently

וחו שלום כפקום הזהוכבל כקובות ושר אלוולה חלוום לוועשמשקוף חותתכאבולהבכעוושן

רלאל עורחטח רועורוח ולח בה אוול. מכואן גונההאהא שר רולון

ת אכגול מאכגור יי ካ ዲታነ6

New Hebrew Inscriptions.

1. From cave near Heshbon, reads: 'Arabiah—the first letter is still in the old character. 2, 2a. Boundary stones of Gezer, read: Thm Gzr, limit of Gezer—beginning of Christian era. 6. Tomb of the Beni Hézir, reads: This (is the grave) of Eleazar, Hanniah, Judah... Johanan, sons of Joseph... (Jojseph and Eleazar, sons of Hanniah... sons of Hezir. 17. Inscription of Keft Birim, reads: Peace be unto this place and upon all the places of Israel. Joseh the Levite, son of Levi, made this lintel: may blessing come upon his works.

arose from the use of the square character, and they arose subsequent to the LXX, for they are not, except rarely, found in it.

5. Evidence square character is, then, later than of the Text the LXX.

Itself The square character was ascribed to Ezra as the last person who could have made so great a change, the text after his time being considered sacred. This is disproved

by the fact of the coins of the Macca-bees and of Bar Cochba being in the old character. The Talm permits 6. Conclu-Jews resident outside Pal to possess

copies of the Law in Coptic, Median, Heb, etc. Here Heb can only mean the Old Heb script.

IV. Preservation of the Text.—Judaism has always been a book religion: it stands or falls with the OT, esp. with the Pent. Although . Internal no MS of the Heb OT is older than the Conditions 10th cent. AD, save for one minute

papyrus, we know, from citations, tr^s, etc, that the consonantal text of the OT was in the 1st cent. AD practically what it is today. The Jews transliterated as well as tr⁴ their Bible. All the most important tr⁴—the LXX, Aquila, Theodotion, Symmachus—were made by Jews and aimed at a more literal rendering of the Heb—that of Aquila being hardly Gr. The Syr (Peshitta) seems to be also by Jews or Jewish Christians. Great care was taken of the text itself, and the slightest variant readings of MSS were noted. One MS belonging to Rabbi Meir (2d cent.) is said to have omitted the references to "Admah and Zeboim" in Dt 29 23 and to Bethlehem in Gen 48 7, and to have had other lesser variations, some of which were found also in the MS which, among other treasures, decked the triumph of Vespasian (BJ, VII,

v, 7).

Religious persecution makes for the purity of the Scriptures by reducing the number of copies and

increasing the care bestowed on those saved. The chief moments in which 2. External saved. the existence of the Jewish Scriptures Circumwas threatened were the destruction of Jerus and the Temple under Nebustances

chadnezzar in 587 BC, in which the Book of Jashar and that of the Wars of the Lord may have been lost; the persecution under Antiochus Epiphanes, during which the possession of the sacred books was a capital offence (I Macc 1 56.57; Ant, XII, v), in which the sources used by the Chronicler may have perished; and the capture of Jerus by Titus

in 70 AD. By this time, however, the Law at least was known by heart. Jos says Titus made him a gift of the sacred books (Vita, 75). It is also said that at one time only three copies of the Law were left, and that a text was obtained by taking the readings of two against one. However that may be, it is a fact that there are no variant readings in the MT, such as there are in the NT.

The only ancient version which can come into competition with the MT is the LXX, and that on two grounds. First, the MSS of the 3. The LXX LXX are of the 4th cent. AD, those of

Version the MT of the 10th. Secondly, the
LXX tr was made before a uniform
Heb text, such as our MT, existed. The quotations
in the NT are mainly from the LXX. Only in the Book of Jer, however, are the variations striking, and there they do not greatly affect the sense of individual passages. The Gr has also the Apoc. The LXX is an invaluable aid to restoring the Heb where the latter is corrupt.

V. The Text in the 1st Century AD.—The MT of the 1st Christian cent. consisted solely of consonants of an early form of the square character. There was no division into chapters or, probably, verses, but words were separated by an interstice, as well as indicated by the final letters. The four vowel-letters were used most freely in the later books. A few words were marked by the scribes with dots placed over them.

The Sam Pent still employs the point found on the M S to separate words. This point was prob-ably dropped when the books came to 1. Word

be written in the square character. Separation Wrong division of words was not uncommon.

Tradition mentions 15 passages noted on the margin of the Heb Bible (Gen 30 11, etc) in which two words are written as one. One word is written as two in Jgs 16 25; 1 S 9 1, etc. Other passages in which tradition and text differ as to the word-division are 2 S 5 2; Ezk 42 9; Job 38 12; Ezr 4 12. The LXX frequently groups the letters differently from the MT, e.g. (see the comms.) Hos 11 2; 1 Ch 17 10; Ps 73 4; 106 7.

The verse-division was not shown in the prose books. The present division is frequently wrong and the LXX different from the Heb: e.g. Gen 49 19.

20. Other

Breaks in Neither was there any division into chapters, or even books. Hence the number of the Text hose is doubtful. The Gr counts Pss 9 and 10 as one, and also Pss 114 and 147. Some MSS make one ps of 42 and 43. In Acts 13 33, Cod. Bezae, Ps 2 appears as Ps 1.

Final forms of letters are a result of the employ-

Final forms of letters are a result of the employment of ligatures. In the Old Heb they do not

occur, nor apparently in the text used by the LXX. Ligatures begin to make Final their appearance in Egyp, Aram. and Forms of Palmyrene. Final forms for the letters Letters k, m, n, p, c, were accepted by the 1st cent., and all other final forms were apparently

rejected. The first rabbi to mention the final forms is Mathiah ben Harash (a pupil of Rabbi Eleazar who died in 117 AD), who refers them to Moses. They are often referred to in the Talm and by Jerome. The Sam Chronicle (11th cent.) refers The Sam Chronicle (11th cent.) refers them to Ezra. In point of fact, they are not so old as the LXX tr, as is proved by its variations in such passages as 1 S 1 1; 20 40; Ps 16 3; 44 5; Jer 16 19; 23 14.23.33; Hos 6 5; Nah 1 12; Zec 11 11; Ecclus 3 7. From the fact that the final forms make up the Heb expression for "from thy watchers," their invention was referred in the 3d cent, to the prophets (of Isa 52 8). ferred in the 3d cent. to the prophets (cf Isa 52 8; Hab 2 1).

After the adoption of the square character, therefore, the only breaks in the text of prose books were the spaces left between the words. Before the 1st cent. 5. Concluthere was much uncertainty as to the grouping of the letters into words. After that the word-division was retained in the copies, even when it was not read (as in 2 S 5 2, At first the final form would occur at the end of the ligature, not necessarily at the end of the word. Remains of this will be found in 1 Ch 27 12; Isa 9 6; Neh 2 13; Job 38 1; 40 6. When the ligatures were discarded, these forms were used to mark the ends of words. The wonder is that there are not more, or even an initial, medial and final form for every letter, as in Arab. and Syriac.

Arab. and Syriac.

The four letters, ', h, w, y, seem to have been used to represent vowel sounds from the first. They are found in the MSS, but naturally less freely on stone inscriptions than in books. The later the text the more freely they occur, though they are commoner in the Sam Pent than in the MT. The copies used by their tre of Am 9 12; Ezk 32 29; Hos 12 12, and other passages, The four letters occur on Jewish coins of the 2d cent. BC and AD.

In the 1st and 2d cents, the vowel-letters were retained in the text, even when not read (Hos 4 6; Mic 3 2, etc). In the Pent, Dt 32 13 seems to be the 7. Anoma-lous Forms in that in it the 3d person sing., masc., of the personal pronoun is used for the fem, which occurs only 11 t; Gen 2 12; 14 2; cf Isa 30 33; 1 K 17 15; Job 31 11. This phenomenon probably arises from the stage in the growth of the script when waw and yōdh were identical in form; cf Ps 73 16; Eccl 5 S. Frequently the 1st person sing. Perf. of the vb. is written defectively (Ps 140 13; 2 K 18 20; cf Isa 36 5); similarly the h of na'drāh (Dt 22). All this shows there was no attempt to correct the text. It was left as it was found.

When a scribe had miscopied a word he sometimes placed dots over it, without striking it out. There are

It was left as it was found.

When a scribe had miscopied a word he sometimes placed dots over it, without striking it out. There are 15 passages o marked in the OT, and the word nākūdh, "pointed," is generally placed in the margin. The word may also be read nākūdh, "speckled" (Gen 30 32), or nikkūdh, "punctuation." It is also possible that these points may denote that the word is doubtful. They occur in the following places: Gen 16 5; 18 9; 19 33; 33 4; 37 12; Nu 3 39; 9 10; 21 30; 29 15; Dt 29 28 (29); Ps 27 13; 2 S 19 20; Isa 24 49; Ezk 41 20; 46 22. For conjectures as to the meanings of the points in each passage, the reader must be referred to the commentaries.

These points are found even on synagogue rolls which

hearings of the points in each passage, the reader hust be referred to the commentaries.

These points are found even on synagogue rolls which have, with one exception, no other marks upon them, beyond the bare consonants and vowellecters. Only those in the Pent and Pss are mentioned in the Talm or Midrashim, and only one, Nu 9 10, in the Mish before the end of the 2d cent. by which time its meaning had been lost. The lower limit, therefore, for their origin is the end of the 1st cent. AD. They have been, like most things not previously annexed by Moses, assigned to Ezra; but the LXX shows no sign of them. They, therefore, probably were inserted at the end of the 1st cent. BC, or in the 1st cent. AD. As four only occur in the Prophets and one in the Hagiographa, most care was evidently expended on the collation of the Law. Blau thinks the reference originally extended to the whole verse or even farther, and became restricted to one or more letters.

to the whole verse or even farther, and became restricted to one or more letters.

In Nu 10, vs 35 and 36 are inclosed within two inverted nūns as if with brackets. In Ps 107 inverted nūns should stand before vs 23-28 and 40, with 10. Inverted a note in the foot margin. These nūns were originally dots (\$\overline{\chi} v \overline{\chi} v \overline{\ch

(LXX Nu 10 34-36).

Large letters were used as our capitals at the beginnings of books, etc. Thus there should be a capital nān at the beginning of the second part of Isa.

11. Large But they serve other purposes also. The large wāw in Lev 11 42 is the middle letter of the Torah; so in the Israelites' Credo (Dt 6 4). Other places are Dt 32 4.6; Ex 34 7.14; Lev 11 30; 13 33; Isa 56 10, and often. Buxtorf's Tiberias gives 31 large and 32 small letters. Examples of the latter will be found in Gen 2 4; 23 2; Lev 1 1; Job 7 5, etc. The explanations given are fanciful.

There are four letters suspended above the line in the MT. They will be found in Jgs 18 30; Job 38 13.15;

PS 80 14 (13). The last probably indicates the middle letter of the Psalter. The first points to Manasseh being put Letters and In Nu 25 12 will be found a wāw cut in Divided wāw two, perhaps to indicate that the covenant was in abeyance for a time.

Abbreviations are found on early Jewish inscriptions and on coins. Thus the letter shin stands for shānāh = "year"; yōdh sin="Israel"; 'dieph=1; bēt name Jeh seems to have been indicated energly by a yōdh, e.g. Ps 31 7 (6), "I hate" = LXX 30 7, "Thou hatest" (cf 5), and the yōdh of the Heb="O Jeh." In Jgs 19 18 the Heb "house of Jeh"=LXX "my house"; so Jer 6 11; 25 37. A curious example will be found Jer 3 19. The great corruption found in the numbers in the OT is probably due to letters or ciphers being employed. For wrong numbers of 2 S 10 18; 24 13; 1 K 4 26 with || passages; also cf Ezr 2 with Neh 7, etc. Possible examples of letters representing numbers are: Ps 90 12, "so" = kēn, and kāph+nūn=20+50=70; 1 S 13 1, bēn shānāh is perhaps for bēn n shānāh, "fifty years old"; in 14 14, an apparently redundant k is inserted after "twenty men"; k = 20.

Such was the Heb text in the 1st Christian cent. It was a Received Text obtained by collating MSS and rejecting variant readings. Hence-

14. Conclu- forward there are no variant readings. But before that date there were, for the Gr and Sam otten differ from the sion Heb. The Book of Jub (middle of 1st cent.) also varies. The fidelity of the scribes who drew up this text is proved by the many palpable errors which it

VI. Alteration of Original Documents.—For various reasons the original documents were altered

by the scribes, chiefly from motives 1. Jehovah of taste and religion. In the earliest and Baal literary period there was no objection to the use of the Divine name Jeh; later this was felt to be irreverent, and Elohim was put in its place; later still Jeh was written, but not pronounced. Hence in Pss 1-41, Yahweh occurs 272 t; 'Ĕlōhīm is hardly used as a proper name; in Pss 42-83 'Ĕlōhīm occurs 200 t, Yahweh, only 44; cf esp. Ps 14 with 53; 40 14-18 with 70; 50 7 with Ex 20 2. Lastly in Pss 90-150 Yahweh is again used, and 'Ĕlōhīm as a proper name does not occur except in citations in 108 and 144 9. Cf 20 with 2 Ch 24 27 A precisely. also 2 K 22 19 with 2 Ch 34 27. A precisely parallel change is that of Baal into bosheth ("shame"). At first there was no objection to compounding names with Baal meaning Jeh (Jgs 6 32; 8 35). Then objection was taken to it (Hos 2 16 or 18), and it was changed into Bosheth (Jer 3 24; Hos 9 10); hence Ishbosheth (2 S 2-4), Mephibosheth (2 S 4 4), Eliada (2 S 5 16), Jerrubesheth (11 21). Later still the objection lost force and the old form was restored, Eshbaal (1 Ch 8 33, 9 39), Merribaal (1 Ch 8 34), Beeliada (1 Ch 14 7; cf 3 8). The LXX follows the Heb: it treats Baal as feminio in Porbath nine, i.e. = Bosheth. So too Molech takes its vowels from Bosheth; it should be Melech.

Words have been changed from motives of taste, e.g. "bless" is put for "curse" or "blaspheme" (1 K
21 10, LXX 20 10; Job 1 5; 2 5.9,
2. Euphewhere the word "Lord" follows imperiors to the control of
where the word Lord follows immediately; otherwise Ex 22 27, etc).
Sometimes "the enemies of" was inserted (e.g. 2 S 12 14). Another use for the latter expression is 1 S 25 22, where it is not in the Gr. Cf further, 2 S 7 12.14; 24 1, with the presence in Ch.

with the | passages in Ch.

In some 18 places the text was slightly altered by the correction (tikkūn) of the scribes, without any indication being inserted to show that it had been altered. The following are the passages: Gen 18 22, which originally ran "Jeh stood before Abraham"; Nu 11 15; 12 12; 1 S 3 13; 2 S 16 12;

20 1; Ezk 8 17; Hab 1 12; Mal 1 13; Zec 2 8 (12); Jer 2 11; Job 7 20; Hos 4 7; Job 32 3; Lam 3 20; Ps 106 20. The remaining two, 3. Tikkun to make 18, may be accounted for sopherim either by the third containing more than one correction, or by counting the the sixth. The LXX ignores the supparallels to the sixth. The LXX ignores the supposed original forms of the text, except in the case of 1 S 3 13 and Job 7 20. The Syr has the supposed original form of Nu 12 12 and Siphrē of Nu 11 15, that is, it survived till the 2d cent. AD. But the rest must have been corrected very early. Like the rest indes indes indes in a vertice to the constant of the subtraction or deletion of the conjunction "and" in five places, viz. Gen 18 5; 24 55; Nu 31 2 and Ps 68 25 (26) before the word "after"; and in Ps 36 6 (7) before "thy judgments."

viz. Gen 18 5; 24 55; Nu 31 2 and Ps 68 25 (26) before the word "after"; and in Ps 36 6 (7) before "thy judgments."

VII. Scribal Errors in the Text.—The Heb text of the OT in no way resembles a text of one of the classics which is obtained by collating many MSS and eliminating all errors as far as possible. It is to all intents and purposes a MS, and displays all the forms of error found in all MSS. These are the following, classifying them according to their source.

Failure to understand the sense gives rise to wrong division into words, e.g. Am 6 12, "with oxen [collective] the sea."; Jer 15 10; 22 14; Ps 73 4 (cf above V, 1). Marginal notes may have found their way into the text, e.g. extending Ps 40 8.9, "In a volume of a book it is written "alay," referring to lik in ver 7; 2 S 1 18 (see Wellhausen).

Due to the eye are repetitions, transpositions, omissions, mistakiding one letter for another, and so forth. Repetitions will be found: 2 S 6 3.4

2. Errors of (LXX): 1 K 15 6 (=14 30); Ex 30 6 (LXX): 1 K 1

VIII. History of the Text.—The consonantal text of the OT was what it now is by the 1st or at latest the 2d Christian century. During the next four centuries it was minutely studied, the number of its words and even of its letters being counted. The results of this study are found chiefly in the Talm.

All such study was oral. During this period the text remained a purely consonantal text plus the puncta extraordinaria.

The text was not always read, however, exactly as it was written. Soon after the return from Baby-

lon changes were made. Perhaps the 1. Changes earliest was that the proper name Jeh Made in was read Adonai, whence the LXX, Reading and through it the NT "Lord." The reason will be found in Lev 24 11, where render "pronounced the name." Sometimes

the change was due to motives of taste (Dt 28 30: 1 S 6 11; 2 K 18 27); but the commonest ground was grammar or logic. Thus a word was (Jgs 20 13; 2 S 18 20); or a word was omitted in reading (2 S 15 21; 2 K 5 18); or the letters of a word were transposed, as in Josh 6 13; or one letter was put for another, esp. wāw for yōdh or you'd for waw; or words were divided in reading otherwise than in the text (see above V, 1). The written text is called the Kethibh ("written"); what was read is called the Kerē ("read").

The scribes during these centuries, besides

fixing the reading, took means to preserve the text

by counting the words and letters, and finding the middle verse (Jgs 10 8; Isa 33 21), and so forth. The middle verse of the Law is Lev 8 7, 2. Preservation of and the middle of the words falls in

10 16. The middle verse of the Heb Bible is Jer 6 7. Note was made of words written abnormally The middle verse of the Heb Bible is Jer (Hos 10 14; Mic 1 15; Isa 3 8) and lists were made up. All such lists were retained in the mind; nothing was written.

When the public reading of the Law was accom-

panied by an Aram. tr (Neh 8 8), the division of the text into verses would arise spon-3. Division taneously. The Mish gives rules for

into Verses the number of verses to be read at a time before translating. These verses were separated by a space only, as the words were. Hence VSS frequently divide differently for the Heb, as Hos 4 11; Isa 1 12. In the Heb itself there are 28 old verse divisions no longer observed (see Baer on Hos 1 2). The space is called piṣkā' and the verse pāṣūķ.

About the same time the Law was divided into sections $(p\bar{a}r\bar{a}sh\bar{a}h)$ for the annual reading. In Pal the Law was read through once in 31/2

4. Sections years; in Babylon once a year.
of the Law Hence the Law is divided into 54
sections (Gen 6 9; 12 1, etc) for the
annual reading. It is also divided into 379 "shut" sections, indicated by a space in the middle of a line. and 290 "open" sections, indicated by a space at the end of a line. In printed texts these sections are noted by the letters s and p, but, if they coincide with one of the 54, by sss or ppp. The Palestinian with one of the 54, by \$\$\$ or ppp. division was into 154 \$edhārīm.

From Maccabean times 54 passages (haphṭārōth) were selected from the Prophets for the purposes of the synagogue (Lk 4 17). The Proph-

5. Sections ets were also divided into smaller sections. As in the case of the Law (Ex 6 28), there are cases of false division of the **Prophets**

(Isa **56** 9; Hag **1** 15). In the Heb Bible certain passages were early written in a peculiar way to resemble the bricks in

the wall of a house, either in three columns, a half-brick upon a brick and a brick upon a half-brick (Ex 15; Jgs 5; 2 S 22), or in two columns, a 6. Poetical **Passages** half-brick upon a half-brick and a brick upon a brick (Dt 32; Josh 12; Est 9). In the LXX, Pss, Prov, Eccl, Cant, Job are written in sticks; but that this was not done in Heb seems proved by

the variations as to the number of lines (Ps 65 8; 90 2.11).

The number of books is 24, S, K, Ch each counting as one, Ezr including Neh, the twelve Minor Prophets

counting one book (Mic 3 12 is the 7. Division middle). The Law counts 5 books, into Books

Pss one, though the division of it into 5 books is ancient (cf Ps 106 48 with 1 Ch 16 35.36). By joining Ruth to Jgs and Lam to Jer, the number 22 was obtained—the number of letters in the Heb alphabet. When, probably about the 3d cent. AD, leather rolls gave place to parchment books, it would be possible to have the whole Bible in one volume and the question of the order of the books would arise. The order in the Talm is as follows: The Law (5), the Prophets (8), Josh, Jgs, S, K, Jer, Ezk, Isa, and the XII, the Hagiograph or Kethühkim (11), Ruth, Pss, Job, Prov, Est (11), The Color of the Political Color of the P

Eccl, Cant, Lam, Dnl, Est, Ezr, Ch. The Prophets are usually subdivided into Former: Josh, Jgs, S, K; and Latter: Jer, Ezk, Isa and the XII. The traditional or "Masoretic" order places Isa before Jer, and in the Hagiographa the order is: Ch, Pss, Job, Prov, Ruth, Cant, Eccl, Lam, Est, Dnl, Ezr, the middle verse being Ps 130 3. The order found in printed texts is that of German MSS. The books receive their names from a word near the beginning, from their contents, or from their supposed author.

IX. The Vocalization of the Text.—About the time of the Reformation it was the universal belief that the vowel-marks and other points were of equal antiquity with the consonants. The Jews believed Moses received them orally and Ezra reduced them to writing.

The first to assign a late date to the points was Elias Levita (1468–1549). The battle was fought out in the 17th cent. Ludovicus Cap-1. Antiquity pellus (d. 1658) argued for a date about

of the 600 AD. The Buxtorfs defended the old view. The following are the **Points** facts.

When the LXX was made, the Heb text had not even as many vowel-letters as it has now, and still less points; nor when the Syr version

2. Probable was made in the 2d cent., or Jerome's

Date of Vulg between 393-405, or the earlier Invention Tgs. Lastly, the points were unknown to the Talm. They, therefore, did not exist before 600 AD. The earliest authority on the points is Aaron ben Asher of the school of Tiberias (d. about 989). He wrote a copy of the Heb Bible with all the points, which became the standard codex. The probable date is, therefore, taken to be about the year 700; and this agrees with what was taking place in regard to Gr, Syr and Arab. MSS. The Jews probably borrowed from the Syrians.

No doubt, at first, many systems of pointing isted. Of these, two survived, the Palestinian existed. and Bab, or superlinear. The chief features of the latter are that the 3. Various

signs are placed above the line; it has no sign for e (seghōl), and has but Systems and Reone system of accents. The Palescensions tinian, the one familiar to us, exists in two recensions, those of Ben Asher and of his

contemporary, Ben Naphtali of Babylon; hence a Western and an Eastern.

X. The Palestinian System.—Since the vocalization of the text took place about 700 AD, it will be understood that it differs considerably from the living language. What that was may be found from the transliteration of proper names in the LXX, in Origen and Jerome, and from a comparison with modern Arabic.

A comparison with Arab. indicates that the Heb hēth, and it is certain from the LXX that the 'ayin, had each two distinct sounds. This difference is not shown in the pointing, though a point was used to distinguish the two sounds of b, g, 1. The Con- d, k, p, t, and of s, and sh and the two sonants values of h. The absence of this point is indicated by $r\bar{a}pheh$. The same point marks the doubling of a consonant. The gutturals and r are not doubled, though they certainly

were when the language was spoken (cf Gen 43 26; Ezk 16 4, etc).

The system of vowel-marks attempts to reproduce the sounds exactly. Thus the short a-sound which must precede a guttural letter 2. The is indicated, and before a guttural i Vowels and u are replaced by e and o. On the other hand y before i does not seem to have been sounded in some cases. Thus the LXX has Israēl, but Ieremias. $Sh^*w\bar{a}$ is said by Ben Asher to sound i before y; before a guttural it took the sound of the guttural's vowel, as $mo'\bar{o}dh$ $(m^{e'}\bar{o}dh)$, and had other values as well.

There is a special accentual system for the poetical books, Prov, Pss, and Job (except the prose parts). The titles and such marks as

3. The selāh are in the Pss accented as forming part of the verse. The accents Accents had three values, musical, inter-punctional, and strictly accentual. But these values have to do with the language, not as it was spoken, but as it was chanted in the public reading of the synagogue.

The words were not always pointed in the usual way, but sometimes according to subjective con-

siderations. Thus the phrase "to see the face of God" is pointed "to appear before God," on account of Ex 33 20 (Ps 42 3; Isa 1 12). Similarly in Eccl 3 21, "which goeth upward" is put for "whether it goeth upward." See also Jer 34 18; Isa 7 11. Frequently the punctuation is inconsistent with itself. Thus, 'gathered to his peoples' (Gen 35 29), but "gathered to my people" (sing., Gen 49 29). So polishtim, "Philistines," receives the article with prepositions. otherwise not. siderations. Thus the phrase "to see ceives the article with prepositions, otherwise not. In many places two pointings are mixed, as if to give a choice of readings (Ps 62 4; 68 3, and often).

XI. The Masorah.—The Heb text as printed with all the points and accents is called the Masoretic text. Masorah, or better, Massō-

1. Meaning reth, is derived from a root meaning of the Term "to hand down" (Nu 31 5). This tradition began early. Rabbi Akiba (d. 135) called it a "hedge about the Law." It tells the number of times a particular expression occurs, and mentions synonymous expressions, and so forth. The remarks placed in the side margin of the codex, often merely a letter denoting the number of times the word occurs, are called the M. parva. The notes were afterward expanded and placed in the top and bottom margins and called the *M. magna*. Notes too long for insertion in the margin were placed sometimes at the beginning, generally at the end of the codex, and called the *M. finalis*. The Masorah differs with different MSS; and there is an Eastern

and a Western Masorah. The oldest and most important part of the Masorah lies in the readings which differ from the written

text, called Kerē. These may represent 2. The Kerē variant readings of MSS, esp. a class and Kethībh of them called sebhīr. The most are mere errata and corrigenda of the text. Such are the four K. perpetua, 'ădhōnāy (for Y H W H), Jerusalem, Issachar and hū', in the case of which the read form is not appended at the foot of the page. Sometimes the emendation is right, as in Am 8 8; cf 9 5; sometimes the Kethibh represents an archaic form (Jgs 9 8.12; Isa 32 11).

A K° rē was inserted at 1 S **17** 34 to correct a misprint in the Venice Bible of 1521.

Other notes at the foot of the page draw attention to redundant or defective writing. Directions for

the arrangement of the text are given in Gen 49 8; Dt 31 28, and elsewhere. 3. Other Features Each book concludes with a note giving the number of verses, sections, middle verse and other particulars about the book. The

second last verses of Isa, Mal, Lam, Eccl are repeated after the last, which is ill-omened.

second last verses of Isa, Mal, Lam, Eccl are repeated after the last, which is ill-omened.

XII. MSS and Printed Texts.—The MSS of the Heb Bible are not nearly so old as those of the Gr, old Heb MSS being generally destroyed. By far the oldest MS of any part of the Bible is the Papyrus Nash of about 150 AD, containing the Decalogue and Sh*ma' (Dt 6 4). Next comes the St. Petersburg codex of the latter Prophets of 916 AD, though Ginsburg considers a MS of the Pent (Brit. Mus. Orient. 4445) older. The pointing of the latter is Palestinian; of the former, superlinear. The oldest MS of the whole OT is dated 1010 AD. The following are the chief printed texts: The Psalter of 1477, place unknown, with comm. of Kimhi. The first few pss are voweled; the Pent, 1482, Bologna, with Rashi and Tg Onkelos; perhaps the Five Rolls appeared at the same time; the Prophets, unpointed, 1485–86, at Soncino, with Rashi and Kimhi; the Hagiographa, 1486–87, at Naples, with points, but not accents, and comms. (In the last two Y H W H and 'Elödhim are spelled Y H D H and 'Elödhim); the 2d ed of the Pent at Faro in Portugal, 1487, first without comm; the editio princeps of the whole OT with points and accents, but no comm., finished at Soncino, February 14, 1488, reprinted in 1491–93, and in the Brescia Bible of 1494. The last was the one used by Luther. Owing to persecution, the next edition was not till 1511–17.

The first Christian edition of the Heb text is that contained in the Complutensian Polyglot, finished July 10, 1157. It has many peculiarities, and first discarded the Masoretic sections for the Christian chapters, the Vulg being followed. The first rabbinic Bible—that is, pointed and accented text, with Masorah, Tgs, and comms.—was printed by Daniel Bomberg at Venice in 1516–17. The division of S, K, Ch, and Exr into two books each is first marked here in a purely Heb text, and the consonants of the Krē first given in the margin, Previously the vowels were inserted in the text only. Thus in Isa 44 14, Luther did not observe t

In modern editions of the Heb text the numbers of the Christian chapters are inserted. The chapters had their origin in the Vulg, and are 4. Chapters variously ascribed to Lanfranc (d. and Verses 1089), Stephen Langton (d. 1228), but with most probability to Hugo de Sancto Caro (13th cent.). They mostly coincide with the Masoretic sections, and came in with the Polyglots from 1517 on, being used first in a purely Heb text in 1573–74. Some modern editions mark the verses in the margin, the 5's in Heb letters, except 15, which is denoted by tw=9+6, instead of yh=10+5, because the latter would = Yah. After the Clausula Masoretica at the end of Ch and elsewhere, there is an extended note taken from 1 Ch 19 13 (2 S 10 12).

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THADDAEUS, tha-dē'us (Oassatos, Thaddaios): One of the Twelve Apostles (Mt 10 3; Mk 3 18). In Mt 10 3 AV, the reading is "Lebbaeus, whose surname was Thaddaeus." The name corresponds to Judas, the son (RV), or brother (AV), of James, given in the lists of Lk 6 16; Acts 1 13. See Judas not Iscariot; Lebbaeus.

The "Gospel of the Ebionites," or "Gospel of the Twelve Apostles," of the 2d cent. and men-tioned by Origen, narrates that Thaddaeus was also among those who received their call to follow

also among those who received their call to follow Jesus at the Sea of Tiberias (cf Mt 4 18-22; see also Simon the Cananaean).

According to the "Genealogies of the Twelve Apostles" (cf Budge, Contendings of the Apostles, II, 50), Thaddaeus was of the house of Joseph; according to the "Book of the Rea" he was of the tribe cording to the "Book of the Bee" he was of the tribe of Judah. There is abundant testimony in apocryphal lit. of the missionary activity of a certain ryphal lit. of the missionary activity of a certain Thaddaeus in Syria, but doubt exists as to whether this was the apostle. Thus (1) according to the "Acts of St. Peter" (cf Budge, II, 466 ff) Peter appointed Thaddaeus over the island of Syria and Edessa. (2) The "Preaching of the blessed Judas, the brother of Our Lord, who was surnamed Thaddaeus" (Budge, 357 ff), describes his mission in Syria and in Dacia, and indicates him as one of the Twelve. (3) The "Acta Thaddaei" (cf Tischendorf, Acta Anostolorum Anocrupha, 1851 as one of the Iwelve. (3) The Acta Inaddaer (cf Tischendorf, Acta Apostolorum Apocrypha, 1851, 261 ff) refers to this Thaddaeus in the text as one of the Twelve, but in the heading as one of the Seventy. (4) The Abgar legend, dealing with a supposed correspondence between Abgar, king of Strike and Christ states in its Syr form as the by Syria, and Christ, states in its Syr form, as tra by Eusebius (HE, I, xiii, 6-22) (cf Thomas), that "after the ascension of Christ, Judas, who was also "after the ascension of Christ, Judas, who was also called Thomas, sent to Abgar the apostle Thaddaeus, one of the Seventy" (cf Hennecke, Neutestamentliche Apokryphen, 76 ff). Jerome, however, identifies this same Thaddaeus with Lebbaeus and "Judas... of James" of Luke (Lk 6 16). Hennecke (op. cit., 473, 474) surmises that in the original form of the Abgar legend Thomas was the central figure, but that through the influence of the later "Acts of Thomas," which required room to be made for Thomas' activity in India, a later Syr recension was made, in which Thomas became merely the sender of Thaddaeus to Edessa, and that this was the form which Eusebius made use of in his tr. the form which Eusebius made use of in his tr. According to Phillips (cf Phillips, The Doctrine of Addai the Apostle), who quotes Zahn in support, the confusion may be due to the substitution of the Gr name Thaddaeus for the name Addai of the Syr MSS. See APOCRYPHAL ACTS.

The general consensus seems to indicate, however, that both Thomas and Thaddaeus the apostle had some connection with Edessa. Of the various identifications of Thaddaeus with other Bib. personages which might be inferred from the foregoing, that with "Judas . . . of James" is the only one that has received wide acceptance.

The burial place of Thaddaeus is variously placed

at Beirût and in Egypt. A "Gospel of Thaddaeus' is mentioned in the Decree of Gelasius.

C. M. KERR THAHASH, thā'hash. See Tahash.

THAMAH, tha'ma. See TEMAH.

THAMAR, thā'mār (Θάμαρ, Thámar): AV; Gr form of "Tamar" (thus Mt 1 3 RV). Mother of Perez and Zerah.

THAMMUZ, tham'uz (TIMM, tammūz). See TAMMUZ.

THAMNATHA, tham'na-tha. See TIMNATH.

THANK, thank, THANKS, thanks, THANKS-GIVING, thanks-giv'ing, thanks'giv-ing: Both the vb. and the nouns appear almost uniformly for ΤΤ, yādhāh, and εὐχαριστέω, eucharistéō, and their cognates. Eucharisteo is the usual Gr vb. for "to thank," but yādhāh takes on this force only

through its context and is rather a synonym for "praise" or "bless" (q.v.). LXX renders $y\bar{a}dh\bar{a}h$ usually by ἐξομολογέω, exomologéō, "speak forth together," "praise" (cf Tob 12 20; Sir 39 6, etc, and the use of "thank" in EV to correspond), and and the use of "thank" in EV to correspond), and this vb. reappears in Mt 11 25 || Lk 10 21, with Eng. "thank" (RVm "praise"). Cf the use of anthomologéomai (Lk 2 38) and homologéo (He 13 15, AV "giving thanks," RV "make confession"; AV is preferable). For cháris in the sense of "thanks" (note the singular "thank" in AV Sir 20 16; Lk 6 32-34), see Grace. 1 Pet 2 19 AV has "thankworthy" for charis, RV "acceptable," RVm "grace."

BURTON SCOTT EASTON
THANK OFFERING. See Sacceptable and the singular was a controlled by the service of the singular statement.

THANK OFFERING. See SACRIFICE IN THE OT.

THARA, tha'ra, thar'a (Θαρά, Thará): AV; Gr form of "Terah" (thus Lk 3 34 RV).

THARRA, thar'a (Θαρρά, Tharrá): One of the two eunuchs, "keepers of the court," who with his companion Gabatha (Bigthan) formed a conspiracy against King Artaxerxes which was detected by Mordecai (Ad Est 12 1="Teresh" of Est 2 21; 6 2). Tharra and his companion were hanged. Jos (BJ, II, vi, 4) calls him "Theodestes."

THARSHISH, thär'shish (שֶּׁרְשֶׁר, tarshīsh). See Tarshish.

THASSI, thas'i (& V, Oassel, Thassel, B, Oassels, Thassels): The surname of Simon, the brother of Judas Maccabaeus (1 Macc 2 3; Syr "Tharsi"). It is uncertain what the name means, perhaps "director" or "guide," since Simon was "a man of counsel," or "the zealous."

THAT DAY. See DAY OF THE LORD.

THEATRE, the 'a-ter (Acts 19 29.31). GAMES.

THEBES, thebz. See No-AMON.

THEBEZ, the bez (73 Γ), $t\bar{e}bh\bar{e}c$, "brightness"; B, Θηβής, $Th\bar{e}b\acute{e}s$, A, Θαιβαίς, $Thaiba\acute{e}s$): A city in Mt. Ephraim which refused submission to Abimelech when he set up as king of Israel. After the reduction of Shechem he turned his arms against Thebez. There was a strong tower within the city—the citadel—into which all the inhabitants gathered for safety, climbing onto the roof of the tower. Abimelech incautiously venturing near the tower, a woman cast an upper millstone upon his head and broke his skull. Fearing the shame of perishing by the hand of a woman, he persuaded his armor-bearer to thrust him through (Jgs 9 50 ff). The incident is alluded to in 2 S 11 21. Onom places it 13 Rom miles from Neapolis (Nāblus) on the road to Scythopolis ($Beis\bar{a}n$). There is no doubt that it is represented by $T\bar{u}b\bar{a}s$. This is a village situated in a district of considerable fer-tility, about 10 miles from Nāblus. There are many olive trees. The rain is captured and led to rockcut cisterns, whence the village draws its watersupply. According to the Samaritans the tomb of Neby Toba marks the grave of the patriarch Asher.

W. Ewing THECOE, the-ko'e (1 Macc 9 33). See TE-KOA.

THEE-WARD, the 'werd. "To thee-ward" (1 S 19 4) = toward thee. See WARD.

THEFT. See Crimes; Punishments.

THELASAR, the-la'sar (תלאשר) tela'ssār. תלשר, telassār). See Telassar.

THELERSAS, thė-lûr'sas (Θελερσάs, Thelersás [1 Esd 5 36]). See Tel-harsha.

THEOCANUS, the-ok'a-nus: 1 Esd 9 14 AV= RV "Thocanus."

THEOCRACY, the ok'ra-si (θεοκρατία, theo-kratia, from θεός, theós, "a god," and κράτος, kratos, "power"; after the analogy of the words "democracy," "aristocracy," and the like): "Theocracy" is not a Bib. word. The idea, however, is Bib., and in strictness of speech evalueively Bib. in strictness of speech exclusively Bib. The realization of the idea is not only confined to Israel, but in the preëxilic history of Israel the realization of the idea was confined to the Southern Kingdom, and in post-exilic history to the period between the return under Ezra and the days of Malachi.

For the word "theocracy" we are, by common consent, indebted to Jos. In his writings it seems to occur but once (CAp, II, xvi). The passage reads as follows: "Our lawgiver had an eye to none of these," that is, these different forms of government, such as monarchy, aristocracy, oligarchy, and others of which Jos had been speaking, "but, as one might say, using a strained expression, he set forth the national polity as a theoracy, referring the rule and might to God" (Stanton's tr). It is generally agreed that the language here used indicates that Jos knew himself to be coining a new

If, now, we turn from the word to the OT idea to which it gives fitting and apt expression, that idea cannot be better stated than it has been by Kautzsch—namely, "The notion of theocracy is that the constitution [of Israel] was so arranged that all the organs of government were without that all the organs of governments were without the same of the organic o any independent power, and had simply to announce and execute the will of God as declared by priest and prophets, or reduced to writing as a code of laws" (HDB, extra vol. 630, 1, init). The same writer is entirely correct when he says that in what is known in certain circles as "the PC"—though he might have said in the OT generally—"everything, even civil and criminal law, is looked at from the religious standpoint" (ib, ut supra).

If the foregoing be a correct account of the idea expressed by the word "theocracy," and particularly if the foregoing be a correct account of the OT representation of God's relation to, and rule in and over Israel, it follows as a matter of course that the realization of such an idea was only possible within the sphere of what is known as special revelation. Indeed, special revelation of the Divine will, through Divinely chosen organs, to Divinely appointed executive agents, is, itself, the very essence of the

idea of a theocracy.

That the foregoing is the OT idea of God's relation to His people is admitted to be a natural and necessary implication from such passages as Jgs 8 23; 1 S 8; cf 12 12; 2 Ch 13 8; 2 S 7 1–17; Ps 89 27; Dt 17 14–20.

Upon any other view of the origin of the OT books than that which has heretofore prevailed, it is certainly a remarkable fact that whenever the books of the OT were written, and by whomsoever they may have been written, and whatever the kind or the number of the redactions to which they may have been subjected, the conception—the confessedly unique conception—of a government of God such as that described above by Kautzsch is evidenced by these writings in all their parts. This fact is all the more impressive in view of the further fact that we do not encounter this sharply defined idea of a rule of God among men in any other literature, ancient or modern. For while the term "theocracy" occurs in modern literature, it is evidently used in a much lower sense. It is further worth remarking that this OT idea of the true nature of God's rule in Israel has only to be

fully apprehended for it to become obvious that many of the alleged analogies between the OT prophet and the the alleged analogies between the OT prophet and the modern preacher, reformer and statesman are wholly lacking in any really solid foundation.

W. M. McPheeters

THEODOTION, the-o-do'shi guage of the NT; Septuagint. thē-ō-dō'shi-un. See Lan-

THEODOTUS, the-od'o-tus (Θεόδοτος, Theódotos):

(1) One of the three ambassadors sent by the Syrian general Nicanor to Judas to make peace (2 Macc 14 19).

(2) One who plotted to assassinate Ptolemy Philopator, but was prevented by a Jew, Dositheos (3 Mace 1 2 f).

THEOLOGY, the-ol'o-ji. See Biblical Theology; Johannine Theology; Pauline The-

THEOPHILUS, the of 'i-lus (Θεόφιλος, Theophilos, "loved of God"): The one to whom St. Luke addressed his Gospel and the Acts of the Apostles (cf Lk 1 3; Acts 1 1). It has been suggested that Theophilus is merely a generic term for all Christians, but the epithet "most excellent" implies it was applied by St. Luke to a definite person, probably a Rom official, whom he held in high respect. Theophilus may have been the presbyter who took part in sending the letter from the Corinthians to St. Paul, given in the "Acta Pauli" (cf Hennecke, Neutestamentliche Apokryphen, 378). There is also a magistrate Theophilus mentioned in the "Acts of St. James" as being converted by St. James on his way to India (cf Budge, The Contendings of the Apostles, II, 299), but these and other identifications, together with other attempts to trace out the further history of the original Theophilus, are without sufficient evidence for their establishment (cf also Knowling in Expos Gr Test., II, 49-51). C. M. KERR

THERAS, the river by Théra: The river by which the company assembled in preparation for the march to Jerus under Ezra (1 Esd 8 41.61). In Ezr 8 21.31 the name of the river is Ahava. Possibly the place is represented by the modern Hit on the Euphrates; but no certain identification is possible.

THERMELETH, thûr'mė-leth (Θερμέλεθ, Therméleth [1 Esd 5 36]). See Tel-Melah.

THESSALONIANS, thes-a-lō'ni-anz, THE FIRST EPISTLE OF PAUL TO THE:

- I. IMPORTANCE OF THE EPISTLE

 II. CIRCUMSTANCES OF THE FOUNDING OF THE CHURCH

 1. Luke's Narrative in Acts
 2. Confirmation of Luke's Narrative in the Epistle

 III. CONDITIONS IN THE THESSALONIAN CHURCH AS INDICATED IN THE LETTER

 IV. ANALYSIS OF THE EPISTLE

 1. Paul's Past and Present Relations with the Thessalonians and His Love for Them

 2. Exhortations against Vice, and Comfort and Warning in View of the Coming of Christ

 V. DOCTRINAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE EPISTLE

 VI. THE EPISTLE'S REVELATIONS OF PAUL'S CHARACTERISTICS
- ACTERISTICS LITERATURE
- I. The Importance of the Epistle.—The letter is esp. important as a witness to the content of the earliest Gospel, on account of its date and its well-nigh unchallenged authenticity. According to Harnack it was written in the year 48 AD; according to Zahn, in the year 53. It is likely that these two dates represent the extreme limits. thus justified in saying with confidence that we have

before us a document that could not have been written more than 24 years, and may very easily have been written but 19 years, after the ascension of Our Lord. This is a fact of great interest in view of the contention that the Jesus of the four Gospels is a product of the legend-making propensity of devout souls in the latter part of the 1st cent. When we remember that Paul was converted more than 14 years before the writing of the Epp., and that he tells us that his conversion was of such an overwhelming nature as to impel him in a straight course from which he never varied, and when we note that at the end of 14 years Peter and John, having fully heard the gospel which he preached, had no corrections to offer (Gal 111—210, esp. 2 6-10), we see that the view of Christ and His message given in this Ep. traces itself back into the very presence of the most intimate friends of Jesus. It is not meant by this that the words of Paul or the forms of his teaching are reproductions of things Jesus said in the days of His flesh, but rather that the conception which is embodied in the Ep. of the person of Christ and of His relation to the Father, and of His relation also to the church and to human

destiny, is rooted in Christ's own self-revelation.

II. Circumstances of the Founding of the Church.-For the founding of the church we have two sources of information, the Book of

Acts and the Ep. itself. Luke's narrative is found in Acts 17. Here we are 1. Luke's Narrative in Acts told that Paul, after leaving Philippi, began his next siege against intrenched

paganism in the great market center of Thessalonica. He went first into the synagogues of the Jews, and for three Sabbath days reasoned with them out of the Scriptures. Some of them, Luke tells us, "were per-suaded, and consorted with Paul and Silas; and of the devout Greeks a great multitude, and of the chief women not a few." This very naturally excited the jealousy of the Jews who found themselves losing the social prestige that came from having a large number of Greeks, including some of the nobility, resorting to them for instruction. Accordingly, they raised a mob of the worst men in town and brought the leading members of the church before the magistrate. These brethren, Jason and certain others, who seem to have been men of some property, were compelled to give bond to preserve the peace, and the intense feeling against Paul made it necessary for him, for the sake of these brethren as well as for his personal safety, to flee from the

The historicity of Luke's story of the founding of the church is strongly supported by the text of the Ep. Paul, for instance, notes 2. Contact that the work in Thessalonica began

firmation of after they had been shamefully en-Luke's Nar-treated at Philippi (1 Thess 2 2). rative in He bears witness also in the same the Epistle verse to the conflict in the midst of

which the Thessalonian church was founded (see also 2 14). Paul's exhortation to salute all the brethren with a holy kiss, his solemn adjuration that this letter be read unto all the brethren (5 26.27), and his exhortation to despise not prophesying (5 20) are harmonious with Luke's account of the very diverse social elements out of which the church was formed: diversities that would very easily give rise to a disposition on the part of the more aristocratic to neglect the cordial greetings to the poorer members, and to despise their uncouth testimonies to the grace of God that had come to them (Acts 17 4).

Paul tells us that he was forced to labor for his daily bread at Thessalonica (1 Thess 2 9). Luke does not make mention of this, but he tells us of his work at tent-making in the next town where he made a considerable stop (Acts 18 1-3), and thus each statement makes the other probable.

Perhaps, however, the most marked corroboration of the Acts which we have in the letter is the general harmony of its revelation of the character of Paul with that of the Acts. The reminiscences of Paul's work among them (1 Thess 2 1-12) correspond, for instance, in a marked way, in essence though not in style and vocabulary, with Luke's report of Paul's account of the method and spirit of his work at Ephesus (Acts 20 17–35). This, however, is only one of many correspondences which could be pointed out and which will at once be evident to anyone who will read the letter, and then go over Acts 13–28.

It may seem irrelevant thus to emphasize the historicity of Acts in an art. on Thessalonians, but the witness of the Ep. to the historicity of the Gospels and of Acts is for the present moment one of its most important functions.

III. Conditions in the Thessalonian Church as Indicated in the Letter.—A NT ep. bears a close resemblance to a doctor's prescription. It relates itself to the immediate situation of the person to whom it is directed. If we study it we can infer with a great deal of accuracy the tendencies, good or bad, in the church. What revelation of the conditions at Thessalonica is made in the First Ep.? Plainly, affairs on the whole are in a very good state, esp. when one takes into account the fact that most of the members had been out of heathenism but a few months. They were so notably devoted to God that they were known all over Macedonia as examples to the church (1 Thess 17). In particular the Christian grace of cordial good will toward all believers flourished among them: a grace which they doubtless had good opportunity to exercise in this great market town to which Christians from all parts would resort on business errands and where there would be constant demands on their hospitality (4 9-10).

There were, however, shadows in the picture. Some persons were whispering dark suspicions against Paul. Perhaps, as Zahn suggests, they were the unbelieving husbands of the rich ladies who had become members of the church. It was in answer to these criticisms that he felt called upon to say that he was not a fanatic nor a moral leper, nor a deceiver (2 3). When he is so careful to remind them that he was not found at any time wearing a cloak of covetousness, but rather went to the extreme of laboring night and day that he might not be chargeable to any of them (2 9), we may be sure that the Christians were hearing constant jibes about their money-making teacher who had already worked his scheme with the Philippians so successfully that they had twice sent him a contribution (Phil 4 16). Paul's peculiar sensitiveness on this point at Corinth (1 Cor 9 14.15) was possibly in part the result of his immediately preceding experiences at Thessalonica.

One wonders whether Greece was not peculiarly infested at this time with wandering philosophers and religious teachers who beat their way as best they could, living on the credulity of the unwary.

Paul's anxiety to assure them of his intense desire to see them and his telling of his repeated attempts to come to them (1 Thess 2 17-20) show rather plainly also that his absence had given rise to the suspicion that he was afraid to come back, or indeed quite indifferent about revisiting them. "We would quite indifferent about revisiting them. "We would fain have come unto you," he says, "I Paul once and again; and Satan hindered us."

Some also were saying that Paul was a flatterer (2 5), who was seeking by this means to carry out unworthy ends. This sneer indeed, after the reading of the letter, would come quite naturally to the superficial mind. Paul's amazing power to idealize his converts and see them in the light of their good intentions and of the general goal and trend of their minds is quite beyond the appreciation of a shallow and sardonic soul.

More than this, we can see plain evidence that the church was in danger of the chronic heathen vice of unchastity (4 3-8). The humble members also, in particular, were in danger of being in-toxicated by the new intellectual and spiritual life into which they had been inducted by the gospel, and were spending their time in religious meetings to the neglect of their daily labor (4 10-Moreover, some who had lost friends since their baptism were mourning lest at the second coming of Christ these who had fallen asleep would not share in the common glory (4 13-18). This is a quaint proof of the immaturity of their view of Christ, as though a physical accident could separate from His love and care. There was likewise, as suggested above, the ever-present danger of social cliques among the members (5 13.15.20.26.27). It is to this condition of things that Paul pours forth this amazingly vital and human Ep.

It is to this condition of things that Paul pours forth this amazingly vital and human Ep.

IV. Analysis of the Epistle.—The letter may be divided in several ways. Perhaps as simple a way as any is that which separates it into two main divisions.

First, Paul's past and present relations with the Thessalonians, and his love for them (1 1—3 13):

(1) Greeting and Thanksgiving (1 1—10).

(2) Paul reminds them of the character of his life and ministry among them (2 1—12).

1. Paul's

(3) The sufferings of the Thessalonians the same as those endured by their seame as those endured by their with Thessa(4) Paul's efforts to see them (2 17—20).

Ionians

(4) Paul's efforts to see them (2 17—20).

Ionians

(5) Paul's surrender of his beloved helper in order to learn the state of the Thessalonian church, and his joy over the good news which Timothy brought (3 1—13).

Second, exhortations against vice, and comfort and warning in view of the coming of Christ (4 1—5.28):

(1) Against gross vice (4 1—8).

2. Exhorta(2) Against idleness (4 9—12).

(3) Concerning those who have fallen asleep (4 13—18).

V. Doctrinal Implications of the Epistle.—The Ep. to the Thess is not a doctrinal letter. Paul's great treaching concerning salvation by faith alone, apart from the works of the Law, is not sharply defined or baldly stated, and the doctrine of the cross of Christ as central in Christianity is here implied rather than enforced. Almost the only doctrinal statement is that which assures them that those of their number who had fallen asleep would not in any wise be shut out from the rewards and glories at Christ's second coming (1 Thess 4 13—18). But while the main doctrinal positions of Paul are not elaborated or even stated in the letter, it may safely be said that the Ep. could scarcely have been written by one who denied those teachings. And the fact that we know that shortly before or shortly after Paul wrote the Ep. to the Gal, and the fact that he so definitely describes his attitude at this very time toward the preachi

the writes.

The Ep., however, bears abundant evidence to the fact that this contemporary of Jesus had seen in the life and character and resurrection of Jesus that which caused him to exalt Him to Divine honors, to mention Him in the same breath with God the Father, and to expect His second coming in glory as the event which would determine the destiny of all men and be the final goal of history. As such the letter, whose authenticity is now practically unquestioned, is a powerful proof that Jesus was a personality as extraordinary as the Jesus of the first three Gospels. And even the Christ of the Fourth Gospel is scarcely more exalted than He who now with God the Father constitutes the spiritual atmosphere in which Christians exist (1 Thess 1 1), and who at the last day will descend from heaven with a shout and with the voice of an archangel and the trump of God, and cause the dead in Christ to rise from their tombs to dwell forever with Himself (4 16.17).

VI. The Epistle's Revelations of Paul's Characteristics.- We notice in the letter the extreme tactfulness of Paul. He has some plain and humiliating warnings to give, but he precedes them in each case with affectionate recognition of the good qualities of the brethren. Before he warns against gross vice he explains that he is simply urging them to continue in the good way they are in. he urges them to go to work he cordially recognizes the love that has made them linger so long and so frequently at the common meeting-places. And when in connection with his exhortations about the second coming he alludes to the vice of drunkenness, he first idealizes them as sons of the light and of the day to whom, of course, the drunken orgies of those who are "of the night" would be unthinkable. Thus by a kind of spiritual suggestion he starts them in the right way.

in the right way.

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ROLLIN HOUGH WALKER THESSALONIANS, THE SECOND EPISTLE OF PAUL TO THE:

I. IMPORTANCE OF STUDYING 1 THESS AND 2 THESS
TOGETHER
II. AUTHENTICITY

II. AUTHENTICITY

1. ATGUMENTS against the Pauline Authorship

2. Arguments for the Pauline Authorship

III. THE MAN OF SIN

1. Primary Reference

2. Permanent Value of the Teaching concerning the Man of Sin

IV. PAUL'S EXHORTATION TO QUIET INDUSTRY

TTT.

I. Importance of Studying 1 Thess and 2 Thess Together.—Those who hold to the Pauline authorship of the Ep. unite in ascribing it to a time but little subsequent to the writing of the First Letter. It is simply a second prescription for the same case, made after discovering that some certain stubborn symptoms had not yielded to the first treatment.

2 These should be studied in connection with 1 These because it is only from an understanding of the First Ep. and the situation that it revealed that one can fully grasp the significance of the Second. And more than that, the solution of the problem as to whether Paul wrote the Second Letter is likewise largely dependent on our knowledge of the First. It would, for instance, be much harder to believe that Paul had written 2 Thess if we did not know that before writing it he had used the tender and tactful methods of treatment which we find in the First Letter. It is as though one should enter a sick room where the physician is resorting to some rather strong measures with a patient. One is better prepared to judge the wisdom of the treat-ment if he knows the history of the case, and discovers that gentler methods have already been tried by the physician without success.

II. Authenticity. - The different treatment of the subject of the second coming of Christ, the different

emotional tone, and the different relationships between Paul and the 1. Arguments church presupposed in the First and Second Epp., have been among the causes which have led to repeated questionings of the Pauline authoragainst Pauline Authorship ship of 2 Thess. Scholars argue, in the

first place, that the doctrine concerning the coming of Christ which we find in the Second Letter is not only differently phrased but is contradictory to that in the First. We get the impression from the First Letter that the Day of the Lord is at hand. It will come as a thief in the night (1 Thess 5 2), and one of the main parts of Christian duty is to expect it (1 Thess 1 9.10). In the Second Letter, however, the writer urges strongly against any influence that will deceive them into believing that the Day of the Lord is at hand, because it will not be "except the falling away come first, and the man of sin be revealed, the son of perdition, he that opposeth and exalteth himself against all that is called God or that is worshipped" (2 Thess 2 1-4).

Again very plainly also, say the critics, a different relation exists between the writer and the church at Thessalonica. In the First Letter he coaxes; in the Second Letter he commands (1 Thess 4 1.2.9-12; 5 1-11; 2 Thess 2 1-4; 3 6.12-14). Moreover, the whole emotional tone of the Second Letter is different from that of the First. The First Ep. is a veritable geyser of joyous, grateful affection and tenderness. The Second Letter, while it also contains expressions of the warmest affection and appreciation, is quite plainly not written under the same pressure of tender emotion. Here, say the critics, is a lower plane of inspiration. Here are critics, is a lower plane of inspiration. Here are Paul's words and phrases and plain imitations of Paul's manner, but here most emphatically is not the flood tide of Paul's inspiration. Moreover, the lurid vision of the battle between the man of sin and the returning Messiah in the Second Letter is different in form and coloring from anything which we find elsewhere in Paul. These, and other considerations have led many to assume that the letter was written by a hand other than that of the Apostle to the Gentiles.

The hypothesis, however, that Paul was not the author of the Ep., while it obviates certain diffi-

culties, raises many more. Into a statement of these difficulties we will 2. Argunot go here, but refer the reader to a ments for the Pauline brief and scholarly putting of them in Authorship Peake's Critical Intro to the NT, 12-16 (New York, Scribners, 1910).

There is accordingly today a manifest tendency among all scholars, including those in the more radical camps, to return to the traditional position concerning the authorship. The following are some of the positive arguments for the authenticity:

As for the opposing views of the coming of Christ in the two Epp., it is to be noted that precisely the same superficial contradiction occurs in Our Lord's own teaching on this same subject (Mt 24 6.23.24. 25.26; Lk 12 35.40). Jesus exhorts His disciples to watch, for in such an hour as they think not the Son of man cometh, and yet at the same time and in the same connection warns them that when they see certain signs they should not be troubled, for the end is not yet. Paul, brooding over the sub-ject after writing the First Letter, might easily have come strongly to see the obverse side of the shield. The apostle built his theology upon the tradition which had come from Jesus as interpreted by its practical effects upon his converts, and his mind was quick to counteract any danger due to overemphasis or wrong inferences. He was not nearly as eager for a consistently stated doctrine as he was for a doctrine that made for spiritual life and efficiency. During the fierce persecutions at the beginning of the movement in Thessalonica, the comfort of the thought of the swift coming of Christ was in need of emphasis, but as soon as the doctrine was used as an excuse for unhealthful religious excitement the minds of the disciples must be focused on more prosaic and less exciting aspects of reality.

That Paul assumes a commanding and peremptory attitude in the Second Letter which we do not find so

plainly asserted in the First is readily admitted. Why should not the First Letter have had its intended effect upon the Thessalonian church as a whole? And if Paul received word that his gracious and tactful message had carried with it the conviction of the dominant elements of the church, but that certain groups had continued to be fanatical and disorderly, we can easily see how, with the main current of the church behind him, he would have dared to use more drastic methods with the offending members.

It is also readily admitted that the Second Letter is not so delightful and heart-warming as the First. It was plainly not written in a mood of such high emotional elevation. But the question may be raised as to whether the coaxing, caressing tone of the First Ep. would have been appropriate in handling the lazy and fanatical elements of the church after it had persisted in disregarding his tender and kindly admonitions. Jesus' stern words to the Pharisees in Mt 23 are not so inspiring as Jn 14, but they were the words and the only words that were needed at the time. "Let not your heart be troubled" would not be inspired if delivered to hypocrites. Furthermore, we are not called upon to assume that Paul at all times lived in the same mood of emotional exaltation. Indeed his Epp. abound with assertions that this was not the case (2 Cor 1 8; 1 Thess 3 9), and it is unreasonable to expect him always to write in the same key. must be added, however, that the suggestion that the Second Ep. is stern may easily be overdone. If 1 Thess were not before us, it would be the tenderness of Paul's treatment of the church which would most impress us.

Harnack has recently added the weight of his authority to the argument for the Pauline authorship of the letter. He thinks that there were two distinct societies in Thessalonica, the one perhaps meeting in the Jewish quarter and composed chiefly of Jewish Christians, and the other composed of Greeks meeting in some other part of the city. In addition to the probability that this would be true, which arises from the very diverse social classes out of which the church was formed (Acts 17 4), and the size of the city, he points to the adjuration in the First Letter (1 Thess 5 27) that this Ep. be read unto all the brethren, as a proof that there was a coterie in the church that met separately and that might easily have been neglected by the rest, just as the Greeks in Jerus were neglected in the daily ministration (Acts 6 1). He thinks that the Second Letter was probably directed to the Jewish element of the church.

It is to be noted also that Professor Moffatt (Intro to

It is to be noted also that Professor Moffatt (Intro to the Lit. of the NT, 76 ff), who calls in question the authenticity of nearly all of the books of the NT that any reputable scholars now attack, finds no sufficient reason to question the Pauline authorship of 2 Thess.

III. The Man of Sin.—The question as to whom or what Paul refers to in 2 1-12, when he speaks of the man of sin, whose revelation is

1. Primary
Reference
Christ, has divided scholars during all
the Christian centuries. (For a good

discussion of the history of the interpretation of this difficult section, see Findlay, "I and II Thess," Cambridge Bible, 170-80.) The reason why each age has had its fresh interpretation identifying the man of sin with the blasphemous powers of evil then most active is the fact that the prophecy has never yet found its complete accomplishment. The man of sin has never been fully revealed, and the Christ has never finally destroyed him.

But Paul says that the mystery of iniquity already works (2 7), and he tells the church that the restraining influence which for the time being held it in check is something that "ye know" (2 6). Plainly, then, the evil power and that which held it in check were things quite familiar both to Paul and to his readers. We must therefore give the prophecy a 1st-cent. reference. The alternative probably lies between making the mystery of iniquity the disposition of the Rom emperor to give himself out as an incarnation of deity and force all men to worship him, a tendency which was then

being held in check by Claudius, but which soon broke out under Caligula (see Peake's Intro above cited); or, on the other hand, making the mystery of iniquity to be some peculiar manifestation of diabolism which was to break out from the persecuting Jewish world, and which was then held in check by the restraining power of the Rom government.

In favor of making a blasphemous Rom emperor the man of sin, may be urged the fact that it was this demand of the emperor for worship which brought matters to a crisis in the Rom world and turned the terrific enginery of the Rom empire against Christianity. And it may be argued that it is hardly likely that the temporary protection which Paul received from the Rom government prevented him from seeing that its spirit was such that it must ultimately be ranged against Christianity. One may note also, in arguing for the Rom reference of the man of sin, the figurative and enig-matic way in which Paul refers to the opposing power, a restraint that would be rendered necessary for reasons of prudence (cf Mk 13 14, and also the cryptograms used by the author of the Book of Rev in referring to Rome). Paul has none of this reserve in referring to the persecuting Jewish world who "please not God, and are contrary to all men" who "please not God, and are contrary to all men" (1 Thess 2 15). And in view of the fact that the Jews were in disfavor in the Rom empire, as is proved by the then recently issued decree of Claudius commanding all Jews to depart from Rome (Acts 18 2), and by the fact that to proclaim a man a Jew helped at that time to lash a mob into fury against him (Acts 16 20; 19 34), it would seem hardly likely that Paul would expect the withtle and attractive decention that was to delude subtle and attractive deception that was to delude the world to come from Jerus; and particularly would this seem unlikely in view of the fact that Paul seems to be familiar with Our Lord's prophecy of the swift destruction of Jerus, as is shown by his assertion in 1 These 2 16 that worth is compared to the swift destruction of Jerus, as is shown by his assertion in 1 Thess 2 16, that wrath is come upon them to the uttermost.

On the other hand, however, to make the man of sin a person or an influence coming from Judaism is supported by the fact that he is to sit in the temple of God, setting himself forth to be God (1 Thess 2 4), and by the fact that the natural punishment for the rejection of their Messiah was that the Jews should be led to accept a false Messiah. Having opposed Him who came in the Father's name, they were doomed to accept one who came in his own name. Again, and far more important than this, is the fact that during nearly the whole of Paul's life it was the Rom empire that protected him, and the unbelieving Jews that formed the malicious, cunning and powerful opposition to his work and to the well-being and peace of his churches, and he could very well have felt that the final incarnation of evil was to come from the source which had crucified the Christ and which had thus far been chiefly instrumental in opposing the gospel. Moreover, this expectation that a mysterious power of evil should arise out of the Jewish world seems to be in harmony with the rest of the NT (Mt 24 5. 23.24; Rev 11 3.7.8). It is the second alternative, therefore, that is, with misgivings, chosen by the present writer.

It may be objected that this cannot be the true interpretation, as it was not fulfilled, but, on the contrary, it was Rome that became the gospel's most formidable foe. But this type of objection, if accepted as valid, practically puts a stop to all attempts at a historical interpretation of prophecy. It would force us to deny that the prophecies of the OT, which are usually taken as referring to Christ, referred to Him at all, because plainly they were not literally fulfilled in the time and manner that the prophets expected them to be fulfilled. It would almost force us to deny that John the Baptist referred to Christ when he heralded the coming of the one

who would burn up the chaff with unquenchable fire, because as the Gospels tell us Jesus did not fulfil this prophecy in the way John expected (Lk 7 19). See Man of Sim.

Although Paul's prediction concerning the man of sin was not literally fulfilled, nevertheless his

2. Permanent Value of the Teaching concerning the Man

teaching has a permanent significance. It is always true in every battle for good that the Son of man does not come until the falling away comes and the man of sin is revealed. First, there is the fresh tide of enthusiasm and the promise of swift victory for of Sin the kingdom of heaven, but soon there is the reaction and the renascence of opposition in new and overwhelming power.

The battle is to the death. And then above the smoke of the battle men see the sign of the coming of the Son of man with power and great glory; the conviction floods them that after all what Christ stands for is at the center of the universe and must prevail, and men begin to recognize Christ's principles as though they were natural law. action and reaction followed by final victory takes place in practically all religious and reforming movements which involve the social reconstruction of society according to the principles of the Kingdom. It is exceedingly important that men should be delivered from shallow optimism. And this Ep. makes its contribution to that good end.

IV. Paul's Exhortation to Quiet Industry.—The exhortation that the brethren should work with quietness and earn their own bread (3 12) is full of interest to those who are studying the psychological development of the early Christians under the influence of the great mental stimulus that came to them from the gospel. Some were so excited by the new dignity that had come to them as members of the Christian society, and by the new hopes that had been inspired in their minds, that they considered themselves above the base necessity of manual labor. This is not an infrequent phenomenon among new converts to Christianity in heathen lands. Paul would have none of it. Fortunately he could point to his own example. He not only labored among them to earn his own livelihood, but he worked until muscles ached and body rebelled (2 Thess 3 8).

Paul saw that the gospel was to be propagated chiefly by its splendid effects on the lives of all classes of society, and he realized that almost the first duty of the church was to be respected, and so he not only exhorts the individual members to independence, but he lays down the principle that no economic parasite is to be tolerated in the church. "If any man will not work, neither let him eat" (3 10). This forms an important complement to the teaching of Jesus (Mt 5 42): "Give to him that asketh thee, and from him that would borrow of thee turn not thou away.

LITERATURE. -- See under 1 Thess ROLLIN HOUGH WALKER THESSALONICA, thes-a-lδ-nī/ka (Θεσσαλονίκη, Thessalonikē, ethnic Θεσσαλονικεύς, Thessalonikeús): One of the chief towns of Macedonia from Hellenistic times down to 1. Position and Name the present day. It lies in 40° 40' N. lat., and 22° 50' E. long., at the northernmost point of the Thermaic Gulf (Gulf of Salonica), a short distance to the E. of the mouth of the Axius (Vardar). It is usually maintained that the earlier name of Thessalonica was Therma or Therme, a town mentioned both by Herodotus (vii.121 ff, 179 ff) and by Thucydides (i.61; ii.29), but that its chief importance dates from about 315 BC, when the Macedonian king Cassander, son

of Antipater, enlarged and strengthened it by con-

centrating there the population of a number of neighboring towns and villages, and renamed it after his wife Thessalonica, daughter of Philip II and step-sister of Alexander the Great. This name, usually shortened since mediaeval times into Salonica or Saloniki, it has retained down to the present. Pliny, however, speaks of Therma as still existing side by side with Thessalonica (NH, iv.36), and it is possible that the latter was an altogether new foundation, which took from Therma a portion of its inhabitants and replaced it as the most impor-

tant city on the Gulf.

Thessalonica rapidly became populous and wealthy. In the war between Perseus and the Romans it appears as the headquarters 2. History of the Macedonian navy (Livy xliv.10) and when, after the battle of Pydna 168 BC), the Romans divided the conquered territory into four districts, it became the capital of the second of these (Livy xlv.29), while later, after the organization of the single Rom province of Macedonia in 146 BC, it was the seat of the governor and thus practically the capital of the whole province. In 58 BC Cicero spent the greater part of his exile there, at the house of the quaestor Plancius (Pro Plancio 41, 99; Ep. Ad Att. iii.8-21). In the civil war between Caesar and Pompey, Thessalonica took the senatorial side and formed one of Pompey's chief bases (49-48 BC), but in the final struggle of the republic, six years later, it proved loyal to Antony and Octavian, and was rewarded by receiving the status and privileges of a "free city" (Pliny, NH, iv.36). Strabo, writing in the reign of Augustus, speaks of it as the most populous town in Macedonia and the metropolis of the province (vii.323, 330), and about the same time the poet Antipater, himself a native of Thessalonica, refers to the city as "mother of all Macedon" (Jacobs, Anthol. Grace., II, p. 98, no. 14); in the 2d cent. of our era Lucian mentions it as the greatest city of Macedonia (Asinus, 46). It was important, not only as a harbor with a large import and export trade, but also as the principal station on the great Via Egnatia, the highway from the Adriatic to the

Hellespont. Paul visited the town, together with Silas and Timothy, on his 2d missionary journey. He had

been at Philippi, and traveled thence by the Egnatian Road, passing through 3. Paul's Visit

Amphipolis and Apollonia on the way
(Acts 17 1). He found at Thessalonica a synagogue of the Jews, in which for three
successive Sabbaths he preached the gospel, basing
his message upon the types and prophecies of the OT
Scriptures (vs 2.3). Some of the Jews became converts and a considerable number of proselytes and Greeks, together with many women of high social standing (ver 4). Among these converts were in all probability Aristarchus and Secundus, natives of Thessalonica, whom we afterward find accompanying Paul to Asia at the close of his 3d missionary journey (Acts 20 4). The former of them was, indeed, one of the apostle's most constant companions; we find him with Paul at Ephesus (Acts 19 29) and on his journey to Rome (Acts 27 2), while in two of his Epp., written during his captivity, Paul refers to Aristarchus as still with him, his fellow-prisoner (Col 4 10; Philem ver 24). Gaius, too, who is mentioned in conjunction with Aristarchus, may have been a Thessalonian (Acts 19 29). How long Paul remained at Thessalonica on his 1st visit we cannot precisely determine; certainly we are not to regard his stay there as confined to three weeks, and Ramsay suggests that it probably extended from December, 50 AD, to May, 51 AD (St. Paul the Traveller, 228). In any case, we learn that the Philippians sent him assist-

ance on two occasions during the time which he spent there (Phil 4 16), although he was "working night and day" to maintain himself (1 Thess 2 9; 2 Thess 3 8). Paul, the great missionary strategist, must have seement of room no other center could Macedonia be permeated with the gospel so effectively as from Thessalonica (1 Thess 1 8).

But his success roused the jealousy of the Jews, who raised a commotion among the dregs of the city populace (Acts 17 5). An attack was made on the house of Jason, with whom the evangelists were lodging, and when these were not found Jason himself and some of the other converts were dragged before the magistrates and accused of harboring men who had caused tumult throughout the Rom world, who maintained the existence of another king, Jesus, and acted in defiance of the imperial decrees. The magistrates were duly alive to the seriousness of the accusation, but, since no evidence was forthcoming of illegal practices on the part of Jason or the other Christians, they released them on security (vs 5-9). Foreseeing further trouble if Paul should continue his work in the town, the converts sent Paul and Silas (and possibly Timothy also) by night to Beroea, which lay off the main road and is referred to by Cicero as an out-of-theway town (oppidum devium: in Pisonem 36). Beroean Jews showed a greater readiness to examine the new teaching than those of Thessalonica, and the work of the apostle was more fruitful there, both among Jews and among Greeks (vs 10-13). But the news of this success reached the Thessalonian Jews and inflamed their hostility afresh. Going to Beroea, they raised a tumult there also, and made it necessary for Paul to leave the town and go to Athens (vs 14.15).

It necessary for Paul to leave the town and go to Athens (vs 14.15).

Several points in this account are noteworthy as illustrating the strict accuracy of the narrative of the Acts. Philippi was a Rom town, military rather than commercial; hence we find but few Jews there and no synagogue; the magistrates bear the title of practors (Acts 16 20.22.35.36.38 RVm) and are attended by lictors (Acts 16 35.38 RVm); Paul and Silas are charged with the introduction of customs which Romans may not observe (ver 21); they are beaten with rods (ver 22) and appeal to their privileges as Rom citizens (vs 37.38). At Thessalonica all is changed. We are here in a Gr commercial city and a seaport, a "free city," moreover, enjoying a certain amount of autonomy and its own constitution. Here we find a large number of resident Jews and a synagogue. The charge against Paul is that of trying to replace Caesar by another king; the rioters wish to bring him before "the people," i.e. the popular assembly characteristic of Gr states, and the magistrates of the city bear the Gr name of politarchs (Acts 17 5-9). This title occurs nowhere in Gr lit, but its correctness is proved beyond possibility of question by its occurrence in a number of inscriptions of this period, which have come to light in Thessalonica and the neighborhood, and will be found collected in AJT (1898, 598) and in M. G. Dimitsas, Macceoria (Makedonia), 422 ff. Among them the most famous is the inscription engraved on the arch which stood at the western end of the main street of Salonica and was called the Vardar Gate. The arch itself, which was perhaps erected to commemorate the victory of Philippi though some authorities assign it to a later date, has been removed, and the inscription is now in the British Museum (CIG, 1967; Leake, Northern Greece, III, 236; Le Bas, Voyage archéologique, no. 1357; Vaux, Trans. Royal Soc. Lit., VIII, 528). This proves that the politarchs were six in number, and it is a curious coincidence that in it occur the names Sosipater, Gaius and S

The Thessalonian church was a strong and flourishing one, composed of Gentiles rather than of Jews, if we may judge from the

tone of the two Epp. addressed to its 4. The members, the absence of quotations from and allusions to the OT, and the phrase "Ye turned unto God from idols" (1 Thess 1 9; cf also Thessalonian Church These, by common consent the earliest of 2 14). Paul's Epp., show us that the apostle was eager

to revisit Thessalonica very soon after his enforced departure: "once and again" the desire to return was strong in him, but "Satan hindered" him (2 18)—a reference probably to the danger and loss in which such a step would involve Jason and the other leading converts. But though himself prevented from continuing his work at Thessalonica, he sent Timothy from Athens to visit the church and confirm the faith of the Christians amid their hardships and persecutions (3 2-10). The favorable report brought back by Timothy was a great comfort to Paul, and at the same time intensified his longing to see his converts again (3 10.11). This desire was to be fulfilled more than once. Almost certainly Paul returned there on his 3d missionary journey, both on his way to Greece (Acts 20 1) and again while he was going thence to Jerus (ver 3); it is on this latter occasion that we hear of Aristarchus and Secundus accompanying hear of Aristarenus and Secundus accompanying him (ver 4). Probably Paul was again in Thessa-lonica after his first imprisonment. From the Ep. to the Phil (1 26; 2 24), written during his captivity, we learn that his intention was to re-visit Philippi if possible, and 1 Tim 1 3 records a subsequent journey to Macedonia, in the course of which the apostle may well have made a longer or shorter stay at Thessalonica. The only other mention of the town in the NT occurs in 2 Tim 4 10, where Paul writes that Demas has forsaken him and has gone there. Whether Demas was a Thessalonian, as some have supposed, cannot be determined.

For centuries the city remained one of the chief strongholds of Christianity, and it won for itself
the title of "the Orthodox City,"

5. Later not only by the tenacity and vigor History of its resistance to the successive attacks of various barbarous races, but also by being largely responsible for their conversion to Christianity.

conversion to Christianity.

From the middle of the 3d cent. AD it was entitled "metropolis and colony," and when Diocletian (284-305) divided Macedonia into two provinces, Thessalonica was chosen as the capital of the first of these. It was also the scene in 390 AD of the famous massacre ordered by Theodosius the Great, for which Ambrose excluded that emperor for some months from the cathedral at Milan. In 253 the Goths had made a vain attempt to capture the city, and again in 479 Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, found it so strong and well prepared that he did not venture to attack it. From the 6th to the 9th cent. it was engaged in repeated struggles against Avars, Slavonians and Bulgarians, whose attacks it repelled with the utmost difficulty. Finally, in 904 AD it was captured by the Saracens, who, after slaughtering a great number of the inhabitants and burning a considerable portion of the city, sailed away carrying with them 22,000 captives, young men, women and children. In 1185, when the famous scholar Eustathius was bishop, the Normans under Tancred stormed the city, and once more a general massacre took place. In 1204 Thessalonica became the center of a Latin kingdom under Boniface, marquis of Monferrat, and for over two centuries it passed from hand to hand, now ruled by Latins now by Greeks, until in 1430 it fell before the sultan Amurath II. After that time it remained in the possession of the Turks, and it was, indeed, the chief European city of their dominions, with the exception of Constantinople, until it was recaptured by the Greeks in the Balkan war of 1912. Its population includes some 32,000 Turks, 47,000 Jews (mostly the descendants of refugees from Spain) and 16,000 Greeks and other Europeans. The city is rich in examples of Byzantine ecclesiastical architecture and art, and possesses, in addition to a large number of mosques, 12 churches and 25 synagogues. 25 synagogues.

25 synagogues.

LITERATURE.—The fullest account of the topography of Thessalonica and its history, esp. from the 5th to the 15th cent., is that of Tafel, De Thessalonica eiusque agro. Dissertatio geographica, Berlin, 1839; cf also the Histories of Gibbon and Finlay. A description of the town and its ancient remains is given by Leake, Travels in Northern Greece, III, 235 ff; Cousinéry, Voyage dans la Macédoine, 1, 23 ff; Heuzey, Mission archéol. de Macédoine, 272 ff; and other travelers. The inscriptions, mostly in Gr, are collected in Dimitsas, Mareδονία (Makedonia), 421 ff.

M. N. Top M. N. Tod

THEUDAS, thū'das (Θευδâs, Theudás, a contraction of Theodorus, "the gift of God"): Theudas is referred to by Gamaliel in his speech before the Sanhedrin, when he advised them as to the position they should adopt in regard to the apostles (Acts 5 36). The failure of the rebellion of Theudas was quoted by Gamaliel on this occasion as typical of the natural end of such movements as were inspired "not of God, but of men." A rising under one Theudas is also described by Jos (Ant, XX, v, 1), but this occurred at a later date (according to Jos about 44 or 45 AD) than the speech of Gamaliel (before 37 AD). Of the theories put forward in explanation of the apparent anachronism in Gamaliel's speech, the two most in favor are (1) that as there were many insurrections during the period in question, the two writers refer to different Theudases; (2) that the reference to Theudas in the narrative of Acts was inserted by a later reviser, whose historical knowledge was inaccurate (Weiss; cf also Knowling, Expos Gr Test., II, 157–59).

C. M. Kerr

THICK TREES (הֹבֵילֵ עָׁבָּלֵ 'ābhōth [Lev 23 40; Neh 8 15]): One of the varieties of trees which the Israelites were directed to use at the Feast of Tabernacles; in the latter passage they are expressly directed to make booths with them. According to the Talmudic writings, the "thick trees" are myrtles (Ṣuk. 12a; Jer Ṣuk. iii, 53d), and further tradition has prescribed certain special features as to the varieties of myrtle employed, without which they cannot be used in the ritual of the feast. In Sir 14 18 "thick tree" represents δένδρον δασύ, dêndron dasú, "leafy tree." See Myrtle.

THICKET, thik'et (יְּבְּיִסְ, sebhākh [Gen 22 13; Isa 9 18; 10 34], or יִּבְּיִס, sōbhekh [Jer 4 7]; in 1 S 13 6, יְדְּיִלָּה, h̄ōaḥ): A thick or dense growth of trees or shrubs (thorns, brambles), in which wild beasts may lurk (Jer 4 7), or animals be caught by their horns (Gen 22 13; Abraham's ram). See Forest.

THEF, thef: In the OT the uniform tr (17 t) of $3\frac{5}{2}$, gannābh, from gānabh, "steal," but gannābh is rather broader than the Eng. "thief," and may even include a kidnapper (Dt 24 7). In Apoc and the NT, AV uses "thief" indifferently for $\kappa\lambda\ell\pi\tau\eta s$, $kl\ell pl\ell s$, and $\lambda\eta\sigma\tau\eta s$, $l\ell s t\ell s$, but RV always renders the latter word by "robber" (a great improvement). See Crimes. The figurative use of "thief" as "one coming without warning" (Mt 24 43, etc) needs no explanation.

The penitent thief ("robber," RV Mk 15 27; Mt 27 38.44; "malefactor," Lk 23 32.39) was one of the two criminals crucified with Christ. According to Mk and Mt, both of these joined in the crowd's mockery, but Lk tells that one of them reproached his fellow for the insults, acknowledged his own guilt, and begged Christ to remember him at the coming of the Kingdom. And Christ replied by promising more than was asked—immediate admission into Paradise. It should be noted that unusual moral courage was needed for the thief to make his request at such a time and under such circumstances, and that his case has little in common with certain sentimental "death-bed repentances."

To explain the repentance and the acknowledgment of Christ as Messiah, some previous acquaintance of the thief with Christ must be supposed, but all guesses as to time and place are of course useless. Later tradition abundantly filled the blanks and gave the penitent thief the name Titus or Dysmas. See Assassins; Barabbas.

BURTON SCOTT EASTON

THIGH, thī (פּרִר, yārēkh; Aram. פּרִר, yarekhāh [Dnl 2 32]; μηρός, mērós [Jth 9 2; Sir 19 12; Rev 19 16]; as part of a sacrificial animal [Ex 29 22, etc] פְּרָר, shōk, AV, RVm "shoulder"; in addition AV has "thigh" for shōk in Isa 47 2 [RV "leg"]): The portion of the leg from the knee to the hip, against which a weapon hangs when suspended from the waist (Ex 32 27; Jgs 3 16.21; Ps 45 3, etc). So the thigh of a rider on horseback would be covered by a loose girdle, on which his name might be embroidered (Rev 19 16). The "hollow of the thigh" (Gen 32 25 ff) is the hipsocket or the groin. See also Hip.

The thighs were thought to play a part in procreation (Gen 46 26; Ex 1 5, EV "loins"; Jgs 8 30, EV "body"; cf Nu 5 21 ff), so that an oath taken with the hand under the thigh (Gen 24 2.9; 47 29) was taken by the life-power (the rabbis interpreted "by the seal of circumcision"). perhaps significant that this oath in both Gen 24 and 47 is said to have been exacted by persons in danger of death. Doubtless this association of the thigh with life (aided perhaps by its excellence as food [1 S 9 24; Ezk 24 4]) determined its choice as a sacrificial portion (Ex 29 22, etc; on the "heave thigh" see Sacrifice). Consequently it is natural to find the thigh classed as forbidden ("sacred") food among certain peoples, and, probably, this sacred character of the part is the real basis of Gen 32 32: ("The shidteness I treal each rest the single of the high "The children of Israel eat not the sinew of the hip which is upon the hollow of the thigh, unto this day." The origin of the prohibition, however, was unknown to the writer of the verse, and he sought an explanation from a story in which special attention was called to the thigh. Nothing else is heard about this precept in the OT, but it receives elaborate attention in the Mish (Hullīn, vii), where, for instance, all food cooked with meat containing the sinew (nervus ischiadicus) is rendered unclean if the sinew imparts a flavor to it, but not otherwise. (For further details see the comms., esp. Skinner (For further details see the comms., esp. Skinner [ICC] and RS^2 , 380.) One of the proofs of guilt in the jealousy trial (Nu **5** 27) was the falling-away of the "thigh" (a euphemism; see Jealousy). To smite upon the thigh was a token of contrition (Jer **31** 19) or of terror (Ezr **21** 12).

THIMNATHAH, thim'na-thä, thim-nā'tha AV in Josh 19 43. It is correctly "Timnah" with Hē locale meaning "toward Timnah." See Timnah.

THINK, think: The OT often translates τως, 'āmar, "to say,' meaning what one says to himself, and hence a definite and clearly formulated decision or purpose (Gen 20 11; Nu 24 4; Ruth 4 4, etc), illustrated by the change made by RV in AV of Est 6 6, where "thought in his heart" becomes "said in his heart." In other passages, for τωτ, hāshābh, τωτ, dāmāh, or τωτ, zāmam, indicating the result of mental activity, as in an intention or estimate formed after careful deliberation (cf Ecclus 18 25). In the NT, most frequently for δοκέω, dokēō, "to be of the opinion," "suppose," lit. "seem" (Mt 3 9; 6 7; Lk 10 36, etc). Sometimes, for λογίζομαι, logizomai, "to compute," "reckon" (Rom 2 3, etc); sometimes, for νομίζω, nomizō, lit. referring to what attains the force of law (νόμος, nόmos), and then, "to be of the opinion"; or, for πόρονέω, phronēō, implying a thought that is cherished—a mental habit, rather than an act (Rom 12 3; 1 Cor 13 11). The Gr ἡγέομαι, hēgéomai, "to consider," implies logical deduction from premises (Acts 26 2; Phil 2 6), while in Mt 1 20; 9 4, and Acts 10 19, ἐνθνωῦμαι, enthumoúmai, refers

to the mental process itself, the thinking-out of a project, the concentration of the faculties upon the H. E. JACOBS formation of a plan.

THIRD, thûrd (שֶׁלִשׁ, sh'līshī; דְּרָנִיסָּ, tritos): Isa 19 24, "In that day shall Israel be the third with Egypt and with Assyria," etc, brings out very distinctly the universal and missionary character of Isaiah's prophecies and of Israel's destiny (cf Ezk 16 63; and see G. A. Smith, Isaiah, II, 275, 278; Watkinson, The Blind Spot, 21 ff).

For "third hour," "third month," "third year,"

see CALENDAR; DAY; TIME.

THIRD DAY. See LORD'S DAY.

THIRST, thûrst (光冷草, çāmā', vb. 光冷草, çāmē'; διψάω, dipsaō, δίψος, dipsos, δίψα, dipsa): One of the most powerful natural appetites, the craving for water or other drink. Besides its natural significance, thirst is figuratively used of strong spiritual desire. The soul thirsts for God (Ps 42 2; 63 1). Jesus meets the soul's thirst with water of life (Jn 4 13 ff; 6 35; 7 37). It is said of the heavenly bliss, "They shall hunger no more; neither thirst any more" (Rev 7 16.17; cf Isa 49 10).

THIRTEEN, thûr'tēn, thûr-tēn', THIRTY, thûr'ti. See NUMBER.

THISBE, thiz'be (B, Θίσβη, Thisbē, A, Θίβη, Thibē): The home of Tobit whence he was carried into captivity to Babylon. It is said to be "on the right hand [i.e. S.] of Kedesh-naphtali in Galilee" (Tob 1 2). Some have thought that this was the native place of Elijah the Tishbite, but this is mere conjecture. The site has not been recovered. We need not expect strict geographical accuracy in the romance of Tobit, any more than in that of Judith.

THISTLES, this''lz. See Thorns.

THOCANUS, thở-kā'nus (Θόκανος, Thókanos, Θώκανος, Τhόλαπος; AV Theocanus): The father of Ezekias, who with Jonathan "took the matter upon them" in the proceedings under Ezra against foreign wives (1 Esd 9 14)="Tikvah" in Ezr 10 15.

THOMAS, tom'as (Θωμάς, Thōmás; Τκ̄ς̄, tā'ōm, "a twin" (in pl. only): One of the Twelve Apostles. Thomas, who was also called

1. In the "Didymus" or "the Twin" (cf Jn 11 16;

NT 20 24; 21 2), is referred to in detail by the Gospel of Jn alone. His election of the transfer of the trans tion to the Twelve is recorded in Mt 10 3; Mk 3 18; Lk 6 15; Acts 1 13. In Jn 11 1-54, when Jesus, despite imminent danger at the hands of Hostile Jews, declared His intention of going to Bethany to heal Lazarus, Thomas alone opposed the other disciples who sought to dissuade Him, and protested, "Let us also go; that we may die with him" (11 16). On the eve of the Passion, Thomas put the question, "Lord, we know not whither thou goest; how know we the way?" (14 5). After the crucifixion, Thomas apparently severed his continuous and the crucifixity of the prostles for a time as nection with the rest of the apostles for a time, as he was not present when the risen Christ first appeared to them (cf 20 24). But his subsequent conversation with them, while not convincing him of the truth of the resurrection—"except I shall see I will not believe" (20 25)—at least induced him to be among their number eight days afterward (20 26) in the upper room. There, having received the proofs for which he sought, he made the confession, "My Lord and my God"

(20 28), and was reproved by Jesus for his previous unbelief: "Because thou hast seen me, thou hast believed: blessed are they that have not seen, and yet have believed" (20 29). He was one of the disciples to whom Jesus manifested Himself during the fishing expedition at the Sea of Tiberias (21

According to the "Genealogies of the Twelve Apostles" (cf Budge, The Contendings of the Apostles, II, 50), Thomas was of the house of Asher. The 2. In Apocompany of the Apostles, II, 50), Thomas was of the house of Asher. The coldest accounts are to the effect that he died a natural death (cf Clement of Alexandria iv.9, 71). Two fields are mentioned by apocryphal literature as the scene of Thomas missionary labors. (1) According to Origen, he preached in Parthia, and according to a Syrian legend he died at Edessa. The Agbar legend also indicates the connection of Thomas with Edessa. But Eusebius indicates it was Thaddaeus and not Thomas who preached there (see Thaddaeus and not Thomas who preached there (see Thaddaeus and not Thomas who preached there (see Thaddaeus and the India. Thus "The Acts of Thomas" (see Apocryphal Acrs, B, V), a gnostic work dating from the 2d cent., tells how when the world was partitioned out as a mission field among the disciples, India fell to "Judas Thomas, also called Didymus," and narrates his adventures on the way, his trials, missionary success, and death at the hands of Misdai, king of India (cf Budge, II, 404 ff; Hennecke, Neutestamentliche Apokryphen, 473-544; Pick, The Apocryphal Acts, 224 ff). The "Preaching of St. Thomas" (cf Budge, II, 319) relates still more fantastic adventures of Thomas in India, and the "Martyrdom of St. Thomas in India" states that on his departure toward Macedonia he was put to death as a sorcerer.

Of the two, the former is the more probable. An attempt at reconciliation has been made by supposing

toward Macedonia he was put to death as a sorcerer.

Of the two, the former is the more probable. An attempt at reconciliation has been made by supposing that the relies of Thomas were transported from India to Edessa, but this is based on inaccurate historical information (cf Hennecke, op.cit., 474). The additional names "Judas" and "Didymus" have caused further confusion in apocryphal literature in regard to Thomas, and have led to his identification with Judas of James, and hence with Thaddaeus (see Thaddaeus) and also with Judas the brother of Jesus (cf Mt 13 55). Thus in the "Acts of Thomas" he is twice called the "twin brother of the Messiah." Another legend makes Lysia the twin sister of Thomas. A gnostic "Gospel of Thomas" (see Apocryphal Gospels, III, 2, [a]) was known to Irenaeus (cf Iren., Adv. Haer., 120).

Although little is recorded of Thomas in the Gospels, he is yet one of the most fascinating of the apostles. He is typical of that nature

3. Character - a nature by no means rare—which contains within it certain conflicting elements exceedingly difficult of reconciliation. Possessed of little natural buoyancy of spirit, and inclined to look upon life with the eyes of gloom or despondency, Thomas was yet a man of indomitable courage and entire unselfishness. Thus with a perplexed faith in the teaching of Jesus was mingled a sincere love for Jesus the teacher. In the incident of Christ's departure for Bethany, his devotion to his Master proved stronger than his fear of death. Thus far, in a situation demanding immediate action, the faith of Thomas triumphed; but when it came into conflict with his standards of belief it was put to a harder test. For Thomas desired to test all truth by the evidence of his senses, and in this, coupled with a mind tenacious both of its beliefs and disbeliefs, lay the real source of his religious difficulties. It was his sincerity which made him to stand aloof from the rest of the disciples till he had attained to personal conviction regarding the resurrection; but his sincerity also drew from him the testimony to that conviction, "My Lord and my God," the greatest and fullest in all Christianity. C. M. Kerr

THOMAS, GOSPEL OF. See APOCRYPHAL GOSPELS, III, 2, (a).

THOMEI, thom'e-i (A, Θομεί, Thomei, Fritzsche, Θομοί, Thomoi, B and Swete, Θομθεί, Thomthei; AV Thomoi): A family name of temple-servants who returned with Zerubbabel (1 Esd 5 32)="Temah" in Ezr 2 53; Neh 7 55.

THORN, thôrn, IN THE FLESH (σκόλοψ τῆ σαρκί, skólops tế sarkí): St. Paul thus characterizes some bodily ailment which afflicted him and impaired his usefulness (2 Cor 12 7). The data are insufficient to enable us to ascertain its real nature, and all the speculations on the point are therefore inconclusive. All that we are told is that it was a messenger of Satan; that thereby he was beaten as with a fist, which might be figurative or actual; that it rendered his bodily presence unattractive. It appears that the infirmity recurred, for thrice he sought deliverance; but, by the help of God, he was able to glory in it. Sir W. Ramsay sees in it some form of recurring malarial fever. It was something that disabled him (Gal 4 12-15); hence Farrar supposes that it was ophthalmia, from the reference to his eyes, from his inability to recognize the high priest (Acts 23 5), from his employing amanuenses to write his epp., and his writing the Galatian letter in large characters with his own hand (Gal 6 11). Krenkel has at great length argued that it was epilepsy, and thereby endeavors to account for his trances and his falling to the earth on his way to Damascus, but his work is essentially a special pleading for a foregone conclusion, and Paul would not have called his visions "a messenger of Satan." It is also beside the question to heap up instances of other distinguished epileptics. the whole Farrar's theory is the most probable.

It is probably only a coincidence that "pricks in your eyes" (LXX skólopes) are mentioned in Nu 33 55. Any pedestrian in Pal must be familiar with the ubiquitous and troublesome thorny shrubs

and thistles which abound there.

THORNS, thôrnz, THISTLES, ETC: There are very many references to various thorny plants in the Bible, and of the Heb words employed great uncertainty exists regarding their exact meaning. The alternative tr's given in the text of EV and in the margin show how divided are the views of the translators. In the following list the suggestions given of possible species indicated, usually by comparison with the Arab., are those of the late Professor Post, who spent the best years of his life in study of the botany of Pal. In the great majority of instances, however, it is quite impossible to make any reasonable suggestion as to any particular species being indicated.

(1) אָלָאָד, 'āṭādh (Jgs 9 14, EV "bramble," AVm "thistle," RVm "thorn"; Ps 58 9, EV "thorns"): Probably the buckthorn (Rhamnus Palestina Post).

Atad occurs as a proper name in Gen 50 10.11.
(2) מְּבֶּרֶם, barkānīm (Jgs 8 7.16, EV "briers"): Some thorny plant. The Egyp-Arab. bargan is, according to Moore (Comm. on Jgs), the same as Centaurea scoparius (N.O. Compositae), a common Palestinian thistle.

(3) 1311, dardar (Gen 3 18; Hos 10 8, EV "thistle"; LXX τρίβολος, tribolos): In Arab., shauket ed-dardar is a general name for the thistles known as Centaureae or star-thistles (N.O. Compositae), of which Pal produces nearly 50 species. The purple-flowered C. calcitrapa and the yellow C. verutum are among the commonest and most striking

(4) "], ḥedheķ (Prov 15 19, EV "thorns"; LXX ἄκανθα, ákantha; Mic 7 4, EV "brier"): From former passages this should be some thorny plant suitable for making a hedge (of Arab. hadak, "to inclose," "wall in"). Lane states that Arab. hadak is Solanum sanctum. Post suggests the

oleaster, Eleagnus hortensis.

(5) Π΄Π, hōaḥ; LXX κνίδη, knídē, and ἄκανθα, dkantha (2 K 14 9; Job 31 40, EV "thistle," m "thorn"; 2 Ch 25 18, EV "thistle," AVm "furze

bush," RVm "thorn"; Hos 9 6; Cant 2 2, EV "thorns"; Isa 34 13, AV "brambles," RV "thistles"; Prov 26 9, EV "a thorn"; 1 S 13 6, "thickets"; תְּחָרִם, hawāḥīm, is, however, according to Driver and others a corruption for הוֹרִים, hōrīm, "holes"; Job 41 2, AV "thorn," RV "hook"; 2 Ch 33 11, AV "thorns," RV "in chains," m "with hooks"): Clearly $h\bar{o}^a h$ stands for some plant with very strong thorns, but it is quite impossible to say what species

where it means a "thorn hedge."

(7) נְצְעֵּדּיץ, na'äçūç (Isa 7 19, AV "thorns," RV "thorn hedges"; Isa 55 13, EV "thorn"): The word is derived from $\sqrt{\gamma \Sigma_{\gamma}}$, $n\bar{a}$ 'ac, "to prick," or "pierce," and probably applies to any prickly plant. The LXX tr στοιβή, stoibė (Isa 55 13), suggests the thorny burnet, Poterium spinosum, so common in Pal (see BOTANY). Post says, "It may be one of the thorny acacias" (HDB, IV, 752).

the thorny acacias" (HDB, IV, 752).

(8) """, \$\sir\in \text{(Eccl 7 6, "the crackling of thorns } \sir\in \text{im} \text{(Eccl 7 6, "the crackling of thorns } \sir\in \text{im} \text{under a pot" } \sir\in \text{ir}; \text{ Isa 34 } 13, "Thorns shall come up in its palaces"; \text{ Hos 2 6, "I will hedge up thy way with thorns"; \text{ Nah 1 } 10, "Entangled like thorns [AV "folden together as thorns"] \text{ there are consumed uttenty and the stable."} they are consumed utterly as dry stubble"): The thorny burnet, *Poterium spinosum*, is today so extensively used for burning in ovens and limekilns in Pal that it is tempting to suppose this is the plant esp. indicated here. In Am 4 2 סירות, şīrōth, is trd "fish-hooks." See Hook.

(9) אָכֿרֹן, sillōn (Ezk 28 24, EV "brier"); סַלּוֹנִים, ṣallōnīm (Ezk 2 6, EV "thorns"): Arab.

√ salla="thorn."

(10) סְרֶבִּים, ṣārābhīm (Ezk **2** 6, EV "briers," AVm "rebels"): The tr as a plant name is very

(11) סְּרְפָּד , sirpādh (Isa 55 13, "Instead of the brier shall come up the myrtle-tree"): LXX has κόνυζα, kónuza, which is (Post) the elecampane, Inula viscosa (N.O. Compositae), a plant 2 or 3 ft. high, growing on the bare hillsides of Pal, not infrequently in close association with the myrtle.

(12) אַנְרִם (Job 5 5; Prov 22 5, EV "thorns"); אַנְרָנִים אָלָרָנִים (Nu 33 55; Josh 23 13, EV "thorns"): The words apparently have a

very general meaning.

(13) γ Τρ, kōς; LXX ἀκανθα, άkantha: A general name for thorny and prickly plants, the commonest in the OT (Gen 3 18; Ex 22 6; Jgs 8 7.16; 2 S 23 6; Ps 118 12; Isa 32 13; 33 12; Jer 4 3; 12 13; Ezk 28 24; Hos 10 8).

(14) מְמֵלְשׁר, kimmōsh (Prov 24 31, "thorns"; Isa 34 13; Hos 9 6, "nettles"). See NETTLES.

- (15) שׁבִּרם , sikkīm, pl. of שְׁבָּרם, sēkh, same as Arab. شوکی, shauk, "a thorn" (Nu 33 55, "pricks").
- (16) אָרָשׁי, shayith: A word peculiar to Isa (5 6; 7 23 ff; 9 18; 10 17; 27 4) and always associated with shāmīr (see [17]), always trd "thorns."
- (17) שָׁמְיר , shāmīr: References as above (16), and in Isa 32 13, where it is with koc (see [13]) always trd "briers." The Arab. samur is the thorny acacia A. seyyal and A. tortilis (Post).

(18) ἀκανθος, άkanthos: The equivalent of kōç (see [13]) (Mt 7 16; 13 7.22; 27 29, etc). Always trd

"thorns.

- (19) βάμνος, rhámnos (Bar 6 71, "white thorn"): The Rhamnus Palaestina.
- (20) $\sigma\kappa\delta\lambda\omega\psi$, skólops (2 Cor 12 7, EV "thorn," m "stake"). See Thorn in the Flesh.

(21) τρίβολος, tribolos (Mt **7** 16, "thistle"; He **6** 8, AV "briers," RV "thistles").

The extraordinary plentifulness of various prickly plants in Pal—in its present condition—is evident to any traveler during the summer months. Many of the trees and shrubs are thorny and the ground is everywhere covered thick with thistles, many of which are very handsome and some of which attain a height of 6 or 8 ft. Before the peasant can plough, he must clear these away by burning (cf Isa 10 17). The early autumn winds often drive before them in revolving mass some of the starthistles—a sight so characteristic that it may be the "thistle down" (AVm, RV "whirling dust") of Isa 17 13. Thorns and thistles are described (Gen 3 18) as God's curse on the ground for sin. The Talm suggests that these must be edible and are therefore artichokes. The removal of them and the replacement by more useful plants is a sign of God's blessing (Isa 55 13; Ezk 28 24).

Gen 3 18 uses the words קרֹק and דְרְדָּר for "thorns" and "thistles." Midhrāsh Rabbā' to Genesis (Midr. Gen. Rabbā' 20 10) says that אָרָ ("thorn") is the same as ('akkābhīth), which means an edible thistle (cf Levy, Dict., 645), and that 7777 (dardar, "thistle") is the same as קרֹנְרַס (kinras; Gr κυνάρα, kundra, "arti-choke") (cf Levy, Dict., 298). "But," adds the Midrash, "some reverse it, and say that "בְּרַבָּר (dardar) is ('akkābhīth) and that קרנב (kōc) is קרנב (kinras)."

The neglected vineyard of the sluggard "was all grown over with thorns, the face thereof was covered with nettles" (Prov 24 31), and in God's symbolic vineyard "there shall come up briers and thorns" (Isa **5** 6); "They have sown wheat and have reaped thorns; they have put themselves to pain, and profit nothing" (Jer 12 13).

Jotham compares the usurper Abimelech to a bramble (*Rhamnus Palaestina*) (Jgs 9 14 f), and Jehoash, king of Israel, taunted Amaziah, king of Judah, by comparing him slightingly to a thistle (m "thorn"), readily trodden down by a wild beast (2 K 14 9).

Nevertheless thorns and thistles have their uses. On them the goats and camels browse; scarcely any thorns seem to be too sharp for their hardened palates. The thorny burnet (Poterium spinosum), Arab. ballān, which covers countless acres of bare hillside, is used all over Pal for ovens (Eccl. 7 6) and lime-kilns. Before kindling one of these latter the fellahîn gather enormous piles of this plant—carried on their heads in masses much larger than the bearers-around the kiln mouth.

Thorny hedges around dwellings and fields are very common. The most characteristic plant for the purpose today is the "prickly pear" (Opunctia ficus Indica), but this is a comparatively late introduction. Hedges of brambles, oleasters, etc, are common, esp. where there is some water. In the Jordan valley masses of broken branches of the Zizyphus and other thorny trees are piled in a circle round tents or cultivated fields or flocks as a protection against man and beast (Prov 15 19; Mic

7 4, etc).
The Saviour's "crown of thorns" (Mt 27 29) was according to Palestinian tradition constructed from the twisted branches of a species of Rhamnaceae, either the Zizyphus lotus or the Z. spina. E. W. G. MASTERMAN

THOUGHT, thôt: The most frequent word in the OT (בְּחַשֶּׁבֶּת, maḥāshebheth, from the vb. בְּשֵׁרָ, hāshabh, "to think") refers to a "device," or a purpose firmly fixed, as in the passage in Isa (55 7-9) where the "thoughts" of God and of man are contrasted (cf Ps 40 5; 92 5; Jer 29 11). In the NT διαλογισμός, dialogismós (Mt 15 19; 1 Cor 3

20), refers to the inner reasoning or deliberation of one with himself. See THINK.

THOUSAND, thou'zand (אֶלֶה, 'eleph; χίλιοι, chilioi). See Number.

THRACIA, thrā'shi-a, THRACIAN, thrā'shan (Θρακία, Thrakia): The name given to the country lying between the rivers Strymon and Danube. Mention is made of a Thracian horseman in 2 Macc 12 35. The cavalry of this fierce people were in demand as mercenaries in all countries. In 46 AD Thrace became the name of a Rom province. Some have sought a connection between Thracia and the Tiras (q.v.) of Gen 10 2, but the identification is conjectural.

THRASAEUS, thra-sē'us (A, Swete and Fritzsche, Θρασαίος, Thrasaios, V, Θαρσίου, Tharsiou, V^a, Θαρσίου, Tharseou; Conjec. Hort, Θαρσία, Tharsea; AV Thraseas): The father of Apollonius (q.v.) (2 Macc 3 5). RVm gives "Or "Thraseas." The Gr text is probably corrupt. Perhaps the true reading is "Apollonius of Tarsus."

THREE (Ψ)Ψ, shālōsh; τρεῖς, treis). See Num-BER.

THREE CHILDREN, SONG OF THE. See SONG OF THE THREE CHILDREN.

THREESCORE, thrë'skör. See Number.

THRESHING, thresh'ing (Φ) , dūsh; ἀλοάω, aloάō): Dūsh means, lit., "to trample out." In Jer 51 33, ΤΤ, dūrakh, is used of threshing. Fitches and cummin were beaten off with a rod. The distinction of the state of tinction between beating and threshing is made in Isa 28 27. Gideon, in order to avoid being seen by the Midianites, beat out his wheat in a wine press instead of threshing it on the threshing-floor (Jgs 6 11). For a general description of the threshing operations see AGRICULTURE.

Figurative: "Thou shalt thresh the mountains," i.e. thou wilt overcome great difficulties (Isa 41).

15). Babylon's destruction was foretold poetically in the language of the threshing-floor (Isa 21 10; Jer 51 33; Dnl 2 35); Zion's foes would be gathered as sheaves on the threshing-floor (Mic 4 12.13; cf 2 K 13 7; Am 1 3; Hab 3 12); threshing unto the vintage, i.e. throughout the summer, indicated an extra abundant yield (Lev 26 5). JAMES A. PATCH

THRESHING-FLOOR, t.-flor (), gōren; ἄλων, hálōn; ງໆ, 'iddar, occurs in Dnl 2 35): The location and method of making threshing-floors have already been described under AGRICULTURE. These floors have come into prominence because of the Bib. events which occurred on or near them. Joseph with his kinsmen and Egyp followers halted for seven days at the threshing-floor of Atad to lament the death of Jacob (Gen. 50 10). Probably there was a group of floors furnishing a convenient spot for a caravan to stop. Travelers today wel-come the sight of a threshing-floor at their haltingplace. The hard level spot is much preferable to the surrounding stony fields for their tents.

David built an altar on Ornan's (Araunah's) threshing-floor (2 S 24 18-24; 1 Ch 21 18-27), which later became the site of the Temple (2 Ch 3 1). David probably chose this place for his altar because it was on an elevation and the ground was already level and prepared by rolling. Uzzah died near the threshing-floor of Nacon for touching the ark (2 S 6 6). Ruth reveals herself to Boaz on his

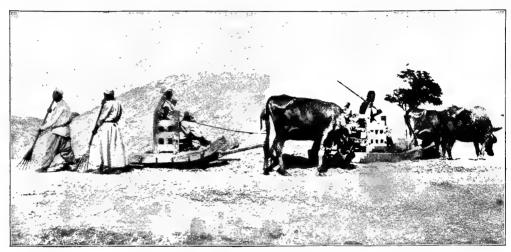
threshing-floor (Ruth 3 6-9).

Threshing-floors are in danger of being robbed (1 S 23 1). For this reason someone always sleeps on the floor until the grain is removed (Ruth 3 7). In Syria at the threshing season it is customary for the family to move out to the vicinity of the threshing-floor. A booth is constructed for shade; the mother prepares the meals and takes her turn with the father and children at riding on the sledge.

The instruments of the threshing-floor referred to in 2 S 24 22 were probably: (1) the wooden drag or sledge, hārūç or mōragh, Arab. lauh ed-

bim" (1 S 4 4 RVm; cf 2 S 6 2; 2 K 19 15); Solomon's throne is really Jeh's throne (1 Ch 29 23), and there shall come a time when Jerus shall be called "the throne of Jeh" (Jer 3 17) and the enemies of Jeh shall be judged by him ("I will set my throne in Elam," Jer 49 38). According to Ezk 43 7, the Lord said of the future temple: "This is the place of my throne."

(3) The rule of the promised theocratic king (the Messiah), its everlasting glory and righteousness. He, too, is Jeh's representative, inasmuch as He



EGYPTIAN THRESHING-FLOOR.

diras; (2) the fan (fork), mizrēh, Arab. midrā, for separating straw from wheat; (3) shovel, meghrāphāh, Arab. mīrfashat, for tossing the wheat into the air in winnowing; (4) broom, maṭ'āṭē', for sweeping the floor before threshing and for collecting the wheat after winnowing; (5) goad, malmēdh, Arab. messās; (6) the yoke, 'ōl, Arab. ṭauk; (7) sieve, kebhārāh, Arab. gharbal; (8) dung catcher, Arab. milkat.

James A. Patch

THRESHOLD, thresh'old. See House, II, 1, (7).

THRONE, thron (ΝΦ), kisse', a "seat" in 2 K 4 10; a "royal seat" in Jon 3 6; θρόνος, thrónos): Usually the symbol of kingly power and dignity. Solomon's throne was noted for its splendor and magnificence (1 K 10 18-20; cf 2 Ch 9 17-19). It symbolizes:

(1) The exalted position of earthly kings, rulers, judges, etc, their majesty and power (of kings: Gen 41 40; 1 K 2 19; Job 36 7, etc; denoting governing or judicial power: 2 S 14 9; Neh 3 7; Ps 122 5, etc; often equivalent to kingdom or reign: 1 S 2 8; 1 K 1 37.47, etc; in this connection we note the expressions: "a man on the throne of Israel," 1 K 2 4, etc; "to sit upon a throne," 1 K 1 13.17, etc; Jer 13 13, etc; "to set a person on a throne," 2 K 10 3; "the throne of Israel," 1 K 8 20, etc; "the throne of David," 2 S 3 10, etc; of Solomon, 2 S 7 13, etc; of Joash, 2 Ch 23 20, etc). In Jer 17 12 it is equivalent to "temple" ("A glorious throne . . . is the place of our sanctuary"); it symbolizes the power of the Gentiles being hostile to the people of Jeh (Ps 94 20), and is used metaphorically in Isa 22 23 ("He [i.e. Eliakim] shall be for a throne of glory to his father's house")

house").
(2) The majesty and power of Jeh as the true king of Israel; He "is enthroned above the cheru-

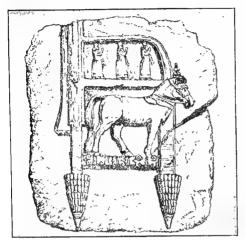
"shall rule upon his throne" (Zec 6 13). Thus the permanence of the throne of David is warranted



(Isa 97); eternal peace (1 K 2 33), loving-kindness and justice (Isa 16 5) characterize his reign. The NT points to Jesus as this promised king (Lk

1 32; cf Acts 2 30; He 12 2); Christ Himself refers to His future state of glory (Mt 25 31) and guarantees His faithful disciples a similar distinction (Mt 19 28; cf Lk 22 30; Rev 20 4).

(4) The matchless glory, the transcendent power and absolute sovereignty of God (and Christ);



Arm-Chair or Throne (Khorsabad).

Micaiah "saw Jeh sitting on his throne," etc (1 K 22 19; cf 2 Ch 18 18); Isaiah and Ezekiel had similar visions (Isa 6 1; Ezk 1 26); cf also Dnl 7 9 and Rev 4 2 (and often); in trying to depict the incomparable greatness of the King of kings, the Bible tells us that His throne is in heaven (Ps 11 4, etc) and, moreover, that heaven itself is His throne (Isa 66 1; Mt 5 34, etc); His reign is founded on righteousness and justice (Ps 89 14; cf 97 2) and of eternal duration (Ps 45 6; cf He 1 8; Lam 5 19); He acts justly and kindly (Ps 9 4 and 89 14); He defends His glory (Jer 14 21); He manifests His holiness (Ps 47 8) and His grace (He 4 16), and yet His dealings with us are not always fully understood by us (Job 26 9).

(He 4 16), and yet his deaming that all always fully understood by us (Job 26 9).

(5) Heavenly kingdoms or rulers (angels: Col 1 16). See King, Kingdom. William Baur

THRUM, thrum: In Isa 38 12 RV reads "He will cut me off from the loom," m "thrum." "Thrum" is a technical term of weavers, denoting the threads of the warp hanging down in a loom, suiting T, dallāh, "that which hangs down" (Cant 7 5, "hair"). A misinterpretation of "hanging down" is responsible for AV's "pining sickness."

THUMMIM, thum'im. See URIM AND THUMMIM.

THUNDER, thun'der (DF), ra'am [1 S 2 10; Job 26 14; 39 19; 40 9; Ps 77 18; 81 7; 104 7; Isa 29 6], DP, kōl, "a voice" [Ex 9 23; 1 S 7 10; 12 17; Job 28 26; 38 25]): Thunder is the noise resulting from the lightning discharge. It is very common in the winter storms of Syria and Pal and occurs in the extra-season storms. Thunder accompanied the storm of hail in Egypt at the time of the plagues: "The Lord sent thunder and hail" (Ex 9 23).

is very common in the winter storms of Syria and Pal and occurs in the extra-season storms. Thunder accompanied the storm of hail in Egypt at the time of the plagues: "The Lord sent thunder and hail" (Ex 9 23).

Lightning and thunder are indications of the power of Jeh and His might. "The thunder of his power who can understand?" (Job 26 14); "The God of glory thundereth" (Ps 29 3). Jeh also confused the Philis with thunder (1 S 7 10), and His foes were "visited of Jeh of hosts with thunder"

(Isa **29** 6). Thunder was regarded as the voice of Jeh: "God thundereth with the voice of his excellency" (Job **37** 4), and God spoke to Jesus in the thunder (βροντή, bronte, Jn **12** 29). See also LIGHTNING.

THYATIRA, thi-a-ti'ra (Θυάτειρα, Thuáteira): Thyatira was a wealthy town in the northern part of Lydia of the Rom province of Asia, on the river Lycus. It stood so near to the borders of Mysia, that some of the early writers have regarded it as belonging to that country. Its early history is not well known, for until it was refounded by Seleucus Nicator (301-281 BC) it was a small, insignificant town. It stood on none of the Gr trade routes, but upon the lesser road between Pergamos and Sardis. and derived its wealth from the Lycus valley in which it rapidly became a commercial center, but never a metropolis. The name "Thyatira" means "the castle of Thya." Other names which it has borne are Pelopia and Semiramis. Before the time of Nicator the place was regarded as a holy city, for there stood the temple of the ancient Lydian sun-god, Tyrimnos; about it games were held in his honor. Upon the early coins of Thyatira this Asiatic god is represented as a horseman, bearing a double-headed battle-ax, similar to those represented on the sculptures of the Hittites. A goddess associated with him was Boreatene, a deity of less importance. Another temple at Thyatira was dedicated to Sambethe, and at this shrine was a prophetess, by some supposed to represent the Jezebel of Rev 2 20, who uttered the sayings which this deity would impart to the worshippers.

Thyatira was specially noted for the trade guilds which were probably more completely organized there than in any other ancient city. Every artisan belonged to a guild, and every guild, which was an incorporated organization, possessed property in its own name, made contracts for great constructions, and wielded a wide influence. Powerful among them was the guild of coppersmiths; another was the guild of the dyers, who, it is believed, made use of the madder-root instead of shell-fish for making the purple dyestuffs. A member of this guild seems to have been Lydia of Thyatira, who, according to Acts 16 14, sold her dyes in Philippi. The color obtained by the use of this dye is now called Turkish red. The guilds were closely connected with the Asiatic religion of the place. Pagan feasts, with which immoral practices were associated, were held, and therefore the nature of the guilds was such that they were opposed to Christianity. According to Acts 19 10, Paul may have preached there while he was living at Ephesus, but this is uncertain; yet Christianity reached there at an early time. It was taught by many of the early church that no Christian might belong to one of the guilds, and thus the greatest opposition to Christianity was presented.

Thyatira is now represented by the modern town of Ak-Hissar on a branch line of the Manisa-Soma Railroad, and on the old Rom road 9 hours from Sardis. Ak-Hissar is Turkish for "white castle," and near the modern town may be seen the ruins of the castle from which the name was derived. The village is of considerable size; most of the houses are of mud, but several of the buildings erected by Caracalla are still standing, yet none of them are perfect. In the higher part of the town are the ruins of one of the pagan temples, and in the walls of the houses are broken columns and sarcophagi and inscribed stones. The population of 20,000 is largely Gr and Armenian, yet a few Jews live among them. Before the town is a large marsh, feverladen, and esp. unhealthful in the summer time, formed by the Lycus, which the Turks now call

Geurdeuk Chai. The chief modern industry is rug-E. J. BANKS making.

THYINE, thī'in, WOOD (ξύλον θύϊνον, xúlon thứïnon): An aromatic wood described as sold in "Babylon" (Rev 18 12, AVm "sweet wood"). It



Thyine Wood (Callitris quadrivalvis).

is the wood of the thya (θυΐα, thuĩa) tree, probably identical with Thuia articulata, an evergreen tree

growing in North Africa, resembling the cypress, which in Rom times was employed for making valuable furniture.

TIBERIAS, tī-bē'ri-as (Τιβεριάς, Tiberias, Jn 6 23): About the middle of the western shore of the Sea of Galilee, the mountains fall back from the coast, and leave a roughly crescent-shaped plain, about 2 miles in length. The modern city of Tiberias (Tabarīyeh) stands at the northern extremity, where the ground begins to rise; and the Hot Baths (Hammath) at the south end. On the southern part of this plain Herod Antipas built a city (c 26 AD), calling it "Tiberias" in honor of the emperor who had befriended him. In clearing the ground and digging foundations cer-

tain tombs were disturbed (Ant, XVIII, ii, 3). It may have been the graveyard of old Hammath. The palace, the famous "Golden House," was built on the top of a rocky hill which rises on the W. to a height of

bint el-Melek, "Palace of the King's Daughter." The strong walls of the city can be traced in almost their entire length on the landward side. Parts are also to be seen along the shore, with towers at intervals which guarded against attack by sea. The ruins cover a considerable area. There is nothing above ground older than Herod's city. Only excavation can show whether or not the Talm is right in saying that Tiberias was built on the site of Rakkath and Chinnereth (Neubauer, Géog. du Talm, 208). The Jews were shy of settling in a city built over an old cemetery; and Herod had trouble in finding occupants for it. A strange company it was that he ultimately gathered of the "poorer people," foreigners, and others "not quite freemen"; and these were drawn by the prospect of good houses and land which he freely promised them. With its stadium, its palace "with figures of living things," and its senate, it may be properly described as a Gr city, although it also contained a proseuché, or place of prayer, for the Jews (BJ, II, xxi, 6; Vita, XII, 54, etc). This accounts for it figuring so little in the Gospels. In his anxiety to win the favor of the Jews, Herod built for them "the finest synagogue in Galilee"; but many years were to elapse before it should become a really Jewish city.

Superseding Sepphoris, Tiberias was the capital of Galilee under Agrippa I and the Rom procurators. It surrendered to Vespasian, and was given by Nero to Agrippa II, Sepphoris again becoming the capital. During the Jewish war its inhabitants were mainly Jewish, somewhat turbulent and difficult to manage. In 100 AD, at Agrippa's death, the Romans assumed direct control. After the fall of Jerus, the Sanhedrin retreated to Galilee, first to Sepphoris, and then to Tiberias. Here, some time before 220 AD, under supervision of the famous Rabbi Jehuda ha-Nāsī', "Judah the Prince," or, as he is also called, ha-kādhōsh, "the Holy," the



Tiberias.

civil and ritual laws, decrees, customs, etc, held to be of binding obligation, handed down by tradition, but not having Scriptural authority, were codified and written down, under the title of "Mishna." some 500 ft. The ruin is known today as Kasr | Here also later was compiled the Jerus Talm

· (Y'rūshalmī), as distinguished from that compiled in Babylon (Babhl \bar{i}). The city thus became a great center of Jewish learning. Maimonides' tomb is shown near the town, and that of Akiba on the slope of the mountain, where it is said 24,000 of his disciples are buried with him.

In Christian times Tiberias was the seat of a bishop. It fell to the Moslems in 637. It changed hands several times as between the Crusaders and the Saracens. It was finally taken by the Moslems

in 1247.

The inclosing walls of the modern city, and the castle, now swiftly going to ruin, were built by Tancred and repaired by Daher el-Omar in 1730. There are over 5,000 inhabitants, mostly Jews, in whose hands mainly is the trade of the place. The fishing in the lake, in which some 20 boats are occupied, is carried on by Moslems and Christians. Tiberias is the chief inhabited place on the lake, to which as in ancient days it gives its name, Bahr Tabarīyeh, "Sea of Tiberias" (Jn 6 1; 21 1). It is the market town for a wide district. The opening of the Haifa-Damascus Railway has quickened the pulse of life considerably. A steamer and motor boat ply between the town and the station at Semach, bringing the place into easy touch with the outside world. The water of the lake is largely used for all purposes, although there are cisterns for rain water under some of the houses.

After a residence of over five years in the city, the present writer can say that it does not deserve the evil reputation which casual travelers have given it. In matters of cleanliness and health it stands comparison very well with other oriental towns. Sometimes, in east wind, it is very hot, the thermometer registering over 114° Fahr. in the shade. The worst time is just at the beginning of the rainy season, when the impurities that have gathered in the drought of summer are washed into the sea,

contaminating the water.

The United Free Church of Scotland has here a well-equipped mission to the Jews.

TIBERIAS, SEA OF. See GALILEE, SEA OF.

TIBERIUS, tī-bē'ri-us (Τιβέριος, Tibérios): The 2d Rom emperor; full name Tiberius Claudius Nero, and official name as emperor 1. Name and Parent- vember 16, 42 BC. His father—of the same name—had been an officer age under Julius Caesar and had later joined Antony against Octavian (Augustus). His mother was Livia, who became the 3d wife of Augustus; thus T. was a stepson of Augustus.

Much of his early life was spent in successful mpaigning. Although the ablest of the possible

campaigning. Although the ablest of the heirs of Augustus, T. was subjected to many an indignity, Augustus accepting him as his successor only when every other hope failed. When Julia, 2. Early Life and Relation to

Augustus

daughter of Augustus, became a widow
for the second time (12 BC), T. was
obliged to marry her (11 BC) in order to become
protector of the future emperors. For this purpose
he was compelled to divorce his wife, Vipsania
Agrippina, who had borne him a son, Drusus. Julia brought T. nothing but shame, and for her immorality was banished by her father (2 BC). T. was consul in 12 BC, and received the proconsular authority, 9 BC. He carried on successful wars in Pannonia, Dalmatia, Armenia and Germany. He retired in disgust to voluntary exile at Rhodes where he spent several years in study. In 2 AD, he returned to Rome, and lived there in retirement, 2-4 AD. On June 27, 4 AD, T. and Agrippa Postumus were adopted by Augustus. From this date on T.

came more and more into prominence, receiving

the tribunician power for 10 years.

In 13 AD (or according to Mommsen 11 AD) T. was by a special law raised to the co-regency

Augustus died August 19, 14 AD, and T. succeeded. A mutiny in the Rhine legions was suppressed by Germanicus. 3. Reign The principal events of his reign (see also below) were the campaigns of Germanicus and Drusus, the withdrawal of the Romans to the Rhine, the settlement of the Armenian question, the rise and fall of Sejanus, the submission of Parthia. In 26 AD, T. retired to Capreae, where rumor attributed to him every excess of debauchery. On March 16, 37 AD,

T. died at Misenum and was succeeded by Caius.
On the whole, T. followed the conservative policy
of Augustus and maintained the "diarchy." But

he approached nearer to monarchy by 4. Adminreceiving supreme power for an indefiistration nite period. He went beyond Augustus in practically excluding the people from government by transferring the right of election from the comitia of the people to the senate, leaving to the people the right merely to acclaim the nominees of the senate, and further by imposing laws upon the people without their counsel or discussion. He established a permanent praetorian camp at Rome—a fact of great importance in later Rom history. The administration of T. was that of Rom history. a wise, intelligent statesman with a strong sense of duty. The civil service was improved, and officers were kept longer at their posts to secure efficiency. Taxes were light on account of his economy. Public security increased. He paid attention to the administration of justice and humane laws were placed on the statute-book.

Though T. was unpopular, he left the empire in a state of prosperity and peace. Of his character the most opposite views are held.

5. Character His fame has suffered esp. from his suspecting nature, which extended the law of majestas to offences against his person and encouraged delation, which made the latter part of his reign one of terror. The tyranny of Sejanus, his reign one of terror. The tyranny of Sejanus, too, has been laid upon his shoulders, and he has been accused of the wildest excesses in his retreat at Capreae—a charge which seems to be refuted by the fact that no interruption to his wise administration took place. His character has been black-ened most by Tacitus and Suetonius. But on nearer criticism T.'s character will appear in better light. No doubt, toward the close of his reign he degenerated, but his cruelties affected only the upper classes. He was called a tyrant and was refused deification after death, and Augustus was said to have prophesied "Alas for the Rom people who shall be ground under such slow jaws." T. was stern and taciturn, critical with himself and, soured by his own disappointments, was suspicious of others. Pliny the Elder calls him "the gloomiest of men." Much of his unpopularity was due to his inscrutability, to the fact that people could not understand him or penetrate into the mystery of his motives. He rarely took counsel with anyone. His life was frugal and modest—a rebuke to the contemporary dissipation. He felt contempt for the inanities of court life, and was supremely indifferent to public opinion, but actuated by a strong sense of duty.

The reign of T. is memorable as that in which fell Our Lord's public ministry, death and resurrection.

It also witnessed the preaching of 6. Tiberius John the Baptist (Lk 3 1), the converand the NT sion of Paul and perhaps his first preaching, the martyrdom of Stephen and the first Christian persecution (by the Jews). Tiberius is mentioned by name only once in the NT (Lk 3 1): "the 15th year of the reign [ἡγεμονία,

hēgemonia] of Tiberius." The question is, From what date is this to be reckoned—the date of T.'s co-regency, 13 (or 11) AD, or from his accession, 14 AD? He is the "Caesar" mentioned in the Gospels in connection with Jesus' public ministry (Mk 12 14 and ||'s; Jn 19 12.15). Herod Antipas built Tiberias in honor of T. (Jos, Ant, XVIII, ii-iii). It is unlikely that T. ever heard anything about Christianity; it had not risen as yet into prominence. Early Christian writers wished to represent T., if not friendly to the new faith, at least as condemning the action of Pilate. According to Justin (Apol., i.35), Tertullian (Apol., 21) and Eusebius (HE, II, ii), Pilate reported to T. about the trial and crucifixion of Jesus—and some such report is not improbable. According to one apocryphal tradition, T. actually summoned Pilate to Rome to answer for crucifying Jesus. It is true that Pilate was sent to Rome by the governor of Syria to answer to a charge of unjustifiable cruelty, but T. died before Pilate reached Rome.

Under T., Pal was governed by Rom procurators. Toward the Jews in Italy, T. showed some intolerance. In 19 AD all the Jews were expelled from Rome according to Jos and the (Ant, XVIII, iii, 5), from Italy according to Tacitus (Ann. ii.85), and 4,000 Jewish freedmen were deported to Sardinia to reduce bands of brigands. Philo attributes this severity to Sejanus, and says that after Sejanus' fall T., recognizing that the Jews had been persecuted without cause, gave orders that officials should not annoy them or disturb their rites. They were therefore probably allowed to return to Rome (see Schürer, III, 60 f, 4th ed).

LITERATURE.—(a) Ancient lit., as modern, is divided on its estimate of T.; Tac. Annals i-vi; Dio Cassius Rom. Hist. xivi-xiviii, and Suetonius Tib. painting him in the darkest colors, while Velleius Paterculus II gives the other side. (b) Of modern lit. it is enough to cite on opposite sides: J. C. Tarver, Tiberius the Tyrant, 1902; Ihne, Zur Ehrenrettung des K. Tib., 1892, and the moderate estimate of Merivale, Romans under the Empire.

TIBHATH, tib'hath (מֹנְקְבֶּבֶּנְה, Metabēchás, A, Ματεβέθ, Matebéth; Vulg Thebath; Pesh Tebhah): A city of Hadadezer, king of Zobah, from which David took much of the brass used later by Solomon in the construction of the temple-furnishings (1 Ch 18 8). In 2 S 8 8 we must for the betah of the MT read with the Syr Tebhah. It may be the same as the Tubihi of the Am Tab; the Dibhu of the Karnak lists; and the Tubihi mentioned with Kadesh on the Orontes in the "Travels of an Egyptian" in the reign of Rameses II. The site is unknown, but it must have been on the eastern slopes of Anti-Lebanon, between which and the Euphrates we must locate Hadadezer's kingdom of Zobah. "Tebah" occurs also as an Aram. personal or tribal name in Gen 22 24. W. M. Christie

TIBNI, tib'nī (ΤΙΣΤΑ, tibhnī; Β, Θαμνεί, Thamnei, A, Θαμνεί, Thamni, Luc., Θαβεννεί, Thabennei): A rival of Omri for the throne of Israel after the death of Zimri (1 K 16 21 f). This is the only reference to Tibni that has come down to us; a comparison of this passage with the account of Zimri's death (esp. ver 15) shows that the length of the struggle was four years.

TIDAL, ti'dal (ΣΤΤ, tidh'āl; Θαλγά, Thalga, Θαλγάλ, Thalgal, Ε. Θαργάλ, Thargal): Tidal is mentioned in Gen 14 1.9 in the account of the expedition of Chedorlaomer of Elam, with his allies, Amraphel Its Forms of Shinar (Babylonia), Arioch of Ellasar, and Tidal, who is called "king of nations" (ΑV) (gōyim, Tg 'ammīn). Whether the

last-named took part in this expedition as one of Chedorlaomer's vassals or not is unknown. The Gr form possibly points to an earlier pronunciation Tadgal.

The only name in the cuneiform inscriptions resembling Tidal is Tudhula, or, as it was probably later pronounced, Tudhul. This, from 2. Its Baby- its form, might be Sumerian, meaning "evil progeny," or the like. In addition to the improbability of a name with such a signification, however, his title "king of $g\bar{o}yim$," or "nations," in Gen 14 1,

presupposes a ruler of another race.

The inscription in which the name Tudhula occurs is one of three of late date (4th to 3d cent.

BC), all referring, apparently, to the same historical period. The text in Babylonian question (Sp. iii.2) is of unbaked clay, and is broken and defaced. After referring to a ruler who did not maintain the temples, Durmah-flāni son of Eri-Aku (Arioch) is referred to, apparently as one who ravaged the country, and "waters [came] over Babylon and Ê-sagila," its great temple. The words which follow suggest that Durmah-flāni was slain by his son, after which a new invader appeared, who would seem to have been Tudhula, son of Gazzā(ni?). He likewise ravaged the land, and floods again invaded Babylon and Ê-sagila. To all appearance he met with the fate which overtook Durmah-flāni—death at the hands of his son, who "smote his head." Then came the Elamite, apparently Chedorlaomer, who was likewise slain. This inscription, therefore, gave historical quotations of the fate which overtook those who were regarded as enemies of the gods.

Though we have here the long-sought name of Tidal, it may legitimately be doubted whether this

personage was the ruler of that name mentioned in Gen 14. The "nations" (gōyim) which he ruled are regarded by Sayce as having been wandering hordes (umman manda), probably Medes. On the other hand, the occurrence of the name Dudhalia, son of Hattušil (Khetasir), contemporary of Rameses II, in the inscriptions found at Hattu, the capital of the Hittites, suggests that that extensive confederation may have been the "nations" referred to. In other words, Tidal or Tudhula (for Dudhalia) was an earlier ruler bearing the same name as Hattušil's son. If he be, as is possible, the same personage as is mentioned in Gen 14.

5. Probably he must have fought against Arioch's a Hittite son, conquered his domains and been killed, in his turn, by either the Bib. Chedorlaomer or another Elamite ruler bearing the same or a similar name. See AMRAPHEL; ARIOCH; CHEDORLAOMER; ERI-AKU; NATIONS.

TIDINGS, ti'dingz, GLAD.

T. G. PINCHES See GLAD TIDINGS.

TIGLATH-PILESER, tig-lath-pi-lē'zēr, -pī-lē'zēr (תְּבֶּעָהְ, tighlath pil'eṣer, as the name is read in 2 K, תְּבֶּעָהְ, tighlath pil'eṣer, as the name is read in 2 K, תְּבֶּעָהְ, tighlath pil'eṣer, in 2 Ch; LXX 'Αλγαθφελλασάρ, Algathphellasár; Assyr, Tukulti-abal-t-šarra): King of Assyria in the days of Menahem, Pekahiah, and Pekah, kings of Israel, and of Uzziah, Jotham and Ahaz, kings of Judah. The king of Assyria, whom the historian of 2 K knows as exacting tribute from Menahem, is Pul (2 K 15 19 f). In the days of Pekah who had usurped the throne of Menahem's son and successor, Pekahiah, the king of Assyria is known as Tiglath-pileser, who invaded Naphtali and carried the inhabitants captive to Assyria (2 K 15 29). This

invasion is described by the Chronicler (1 Ch $\bf 5$ 25 f) rather differently, to the effect that "the God of Israel stirred up the spirit of Pul king of Assyria, and the spirit of Tilgath-pilneser king of Assyria, and he carried them away, even the Reubenites, and the Gadites, and the half-tribe of Manasseh,

and brought them unto Halah, and Habor, and Hara, and to the river of Gozan, unto this day." Still later we find Pekah forming a coalition with Rezin, king of Damascus, into which they tried to force Ahaz, even going the length of besieging him in Jerus (2 K 16 5). The siege was unsuccessful. Ahaz called in the aid of Tiglath-pileser, sacrificing his independence to get rid of the invaders (2 K 16 7.8). He offered the Assyrian the silver and gold that were found in the house of the Lord and in the royal treasury; and Tiglath-pileser, in return, invaded the territories of Damascus and



Tiglath-Pileser I (from Rock Tablet near Korkhar).

Israel in the rear, compelling the allied forces to withdraw from Judah, while he captured Damascus, and carried the people away to Kir and slew Rezin (2 K 16 9). It was on the occasion of his visit to Damascus to do homage to his suzerain Tiglathpileser, that Ahaz fancied the idolatrous altar, a pattern of which he sent to Urijah, the priest, that he might erect an altar to take the place of the brazen altar which was before the Lord in the temple at Jerus. It is a significant comment which is made by the Chronicler (2 Ch 28 21) upon the abject submission of Ahaz to the Assyrian king: "It helped him not."

From the inscriptions we learn particulars which afford striking corroboration of the Bib. narrative and clear up some of the difficulties involved. It is now practically certain that Pul, who is mentioned as taking tribute from Menahem, is identical with Tiglath-pileser (Schrader, COT, 1, 230, 231). In all probability Pul, or Pulu, was a usurper, who as king of Assyria assumed the name of one of his predecessors, Tiglath-pileser I, and reigned as Tiglath-pileser III. This king of Assyria, who reigned, as we learn from his annals, from 745 BC to 727 BC, was one of the greatest of Assyr monarchs. See Assyria. From the fact that no fewer than five Heb kings are mentioned in his annals, the greatest interest attaches to his history as it has come down to us. These kings are Uzziah or Azariah, and Jehoahaz, that is Ahaz, of Judah; and Menahem, Pekah and Hoshea of Israel. Along with them are mentioned their contemporaries Rezin of Damascus, Hiram of Tyre, and two queens of Arabia, otherwise unknown, Zabibi and Samsi. When he died in 727 BC, he was succeeded by Shalmaneser IV, who had occasion to suspect the loyalty of his vassal Hoshea, king of Israel, and besieged him in Samaria.

LITERATURE.—Schrader, COT, I, 229–57; McCurdy, HPM, §§ 279–341.

T. NICOL TIGRIS, tī'gris (Τίγρις, Tigris, the Gr equivalent of the Heb הְּדֶּקֵל, hiddekel): One of the rivers of Eden going "eastward to Assyria" (Gen 2 14 m), called the Great River (Dnl 10 4), elsewhere mentioned in the apocryphal books, as in Tob 6 1; Jth 1 6; Ecclus 24 25, called Diglath in Jos, and Diglit in Pliny, now called in Mesopotamia Dijleh, generally supposed to be a Sem corruption of Tigra, meaning originally an arrow, which from its rapidity of motion is symbolized. The Tigris rises in the mountains of Armenia, lat. 38° 10′, long. 39° 20′, only a few miles from the main branch of the

Euphrates. After pursuing a tortuous south-easterly course for 150 miles, it is joined by the east branch at Osman Kieui, some distance below Diarbekr. Here the stream is 450 ft. wide and 3 or 4 ft. deep. Passing through numerous mountain gorges for another 150 miles, it emerges into the region of low hills about Nineveh, and a little below into the great alluvial plain of Mesopotamia. Thence in its course to Bagdad it is joined by the Great Zab, the Lesser Zab, the Adhem, and the Divalok history of the Court Diyaleh rivers, bringing a large amount of water from the Zagros Mountains. At Bagdad the overflows from the Euphrates in high water often increase the inundations. The flood season begins early in the month of March, reaching its climax about May 1, declining to its natural level by midsummer. In October and November, the volume of water increases considerably, but not so much as to overflow its banks. Below Bagdad, throughout the region of Babylonia proper, the Tigris joins with the Euphrates in furnishing the water for irrigation so successfully used in ancient times. English engineers are at present with great promise of success aiming to restore the irrigating systems of the region and the prosperity of ancient times. The total length of the river is 1,146 miles. It now joins the Euphrates about 40 miles N.W. of the Pers Gulf, the two streams there forming the Shat el Arab, but in early historical times they entered the Pers Gulf by separate mouths, the Gulf then extending a considerable distance above the present junction of the rivers, the sediment of the streams having silted up the head of the Gulf to that distance. See also Eden.

GEORGE FREDERICK WRIGHT TIKVAH, tik'va, TIKVATH, tik'vath (ついた),

tikwāh, "hope"):

1) The father-in-law of Huldah the prophetess (2 K 22 14) (Β, Θεκκουαύ, Thekkouαύ, Α, Θεκκουά, Thekkouαύ, Luc., Θεκκουά, Thekouê), called in 2 Ch 34 22 "Tokhath" (Κατο ΠΠΡΤ, Κατhibh ΠΠΡΤ); Β, Καθουάλ, Kathouál, Α, Θακουάθ, Thakouáth, Luc., Θεκωά, Theköé). The reading of 2 K is to be preferred.

(2) The father of Jahzeiah (Ezr 10 15) (B, Έλκειά, Helkeiá, Α, Θεκονέ, Thekoué, called "Theocanus," RV "Thocanus" in 1 Esd 9 14).

TILE, tīl, TILING, tīl'ing לְּבְּלֵה, l'bhēnāh, "'brick,'" Ezk 4 1; κέραμος, kéramos, "potter's clay," ("a tile," Lk 5 19). See ΕΖΕΚΙΕΙ, ΙΙ, 1, (2); HOUSE, II, 1, (10).

TILGATH-PILNESER, til'gath-pil-nē'zēr, -sēr. See Tiglath-pileser.

TILLAGE, til'aj. See AGRICULTURE.

TILON, tī'lon (תּרלוֹדְ, tīlōn; Kethibh תּרלוֹדְ, Kerē הדללן; B, 'Ivwv, Inōn, A, Θιλών, Thilon, Luc., Θωλείμ, Tholeim): A son of Shimon (1 Ch 4 20).

TIMAEUS, tī-mē'us (Tupatos, Timatos [Mk 10 461: EV "Timaeus"). See Bartimaeus.

TIMBREL, tim'brel. See Music, III, 3, (1).

TIME, tim: The basis of the Heb measurement of time was the day and the lunar month, as with the Semites generally. The division of the day into hours was late, probably not common until after the exile, although the sun-dial of Ahaz (2 K 20 9; Isa 38 8) would seem to indicate some division of the day into periods of some sort, as we know the night was divided. The word used for

"hour" is Aram. እንቪ, sho'ā' (እንዲቪ, sha'tā'), and does not occur in the OT until the Book of Dnl (4 33; 5 5), and even there it stands for an indefinite period for which "time" would answer as well.

The term "day" (רֹל"), yōm) was in use from the earliest times, as is indicated in the story of the Creation (Gen 1). It there doubt-

Creation (Gen 1). It there doubt-1. The Day less denotes an indefinite period, but is marked off by "evening and morn-

ing" in accordance with what we know was the method of reckoning the day of 24 hours, i.e. from sunset to sunset.

The night was divided, during preëxilic times, into three divisions called watches (משמרה 'ashmūrāh.

2. Night of varying length, as the night was longer or shorter (Jgs 7 19). This division is referred to in various passages of the OT, but nowhere with indication of definite limits

(see Ps 90 4; 119 148; Jer 51 12; Hab 2 1). In the NT we find the Rom division of the night into four watches (φυλακή, phulakέ) in use (Mt 14 25; Mk 6 48), but it is probable that the former division still persisted. The use of the term "day" for the period from sunrise to sunset, or for day as distinguished from night, was common, as at present (Josh 10 13; Ps 19 2; Prov 4 18; Isa 27 3; Jn 94, etc). But the use of the word in the indefinite sense, as in the expressions: "day of the Lord," "in that day," "the day of judgment," etc, is far more frequent (see Day). Other more or less indefinite periods of the day and night are: dawn, dawning of the day, morning, evening, noonday, break of day, etc.

The weekly division of time, or the seven-day period, was in use very early and must have been known to the Hebrews before the

3. Week Mosaic Law, since it was in use in Babylonia before the days of Abraham and is indicated in the story of the Creation. The Heb \(\mathbb{P}\)\textsty, shabh\(\vec{u}^2\), shebh\(\alpha^2\), the Word for "seven." As the seventh day was a day of rest, or Sabbath (Heb \(\mathstruat{P}\)\textsty, shabb\(\vec{u}\)hi, this word came to be used for "week," as appears in the NT (\(\alpha \vec{u} \vec{\alpha} \vec{\al

The monthly division of time was determined, of course, by the phases of the moon, the appearance of the new moon being the beginning

4. Month of the month, with holder hand term for month was yerah (TT), meaning "moon," which was older and derived from the Phoen usage, but which persisted to late times, since it is found in the Aram. inscriptions of the 3d cent. AD in Syria. The names of the months were Bab and of late origin among the Hebrews, probably coming into use during and after the Captivity. But they had other names, of earlier use, derived from the Phoenicians, four of which have survived in "Abib," "Ziv," "Ethanim" and "Bul" (see Calendar).

The Heb year (, shānāh) was composed of 12 or 13 months, the latter being the year when an intercalary month was added to make

5. Year the lunar correspond with the solar year. As the difference between the two was from ten to eleven days, this required the

addition of a month once in about three years, or seven in nineteen years. This month was added at the vernal equinox and was called after the month next preceding, w^{*}-'ădhār, or the "second Adar." We do not know when this arrangement was first adopted, but it was current after the Captivity. There were two years in use, the civil and the ritual, or sacred year. The former began in the autumn, as would appear from Ex 23 16; 34 22, where it is stated that the "feast of ingathering" should be at the end of the year, and the Sabbatic year began in the 7th month of the calendar or sacred year, which would correspond to September-October (Lev Jos says (Ant, I, iii, 3) that Moses designated Nisan (March-April) as the 1st month of the festivals, i.e. of the sacred year, but preserved the original order of the months for ordinary affairs, evidently referring to the civil year. This usage corresponds to that of the Turkish empire, where the sacred year is lunar and begins at different seasons, but the financial and political year begins in March O.S. The beginning of the year was called הַשְּׁנָה , rō'sh ha-shānāh, and was determined by the priests, as was the beginning of the month. Originally this was done by observation of the moon, but, later, calculation was employed in connection with it, until finally a system based on accurate calculation was adopted, which was not until the 4th cent. AD. New-Year was regarded as a festival. See Astronomy, I, 5; YEAR.

The return of the seasons was designated by summer and winter, or seed-time and harvest; for they were practically the same. There

Seed-time begins as soon as the early rains have fallen in sufficient quantity to moisten the earth for plowing, and the harvest begins in some parts, as in the lower Jordan region, near the Dead Sea, about April, but on the high lands a month or two later. The fruit harvest comes in summer proper and continues until the rainy season. "The time when kings go out to war" (2 S 11 1; 1 K 20 22) probably refers to the end of the rainy season in Nisan.

We have no mention in the OT of any era for time reckoning, and we do not find any such usage until the time of the Maccabees. There are occasional references to certain events which might have served for eras had they been generally adopted. Such was the Exodus in the account of the building of the temple (1 K 6 1) and the Captivity (Ezk 33 21; 40 1) and the Earthquake (Am 1 1). Dates were usually fixed by the regnal years of the kings, and of the Pers kings after the Captivity. When Simon the Maccabee became independent of the Seleucid kings in 143-142 or 139-138 BC, he seems to have established an era of his own, if we may attribute to him a series of coins dated by the years "of the independence of Israel" (see Coins: Money; also I Macc 13 41 and 15 6.10). The Jews doubtless were familiar with the Seleucid era, which began in 312 BC, and with some of the local eras of the Phoen cities, but we have no evidence that they made use of them. The era of the Creation was not adopted by them until after the time of Christ. This was fixed at 3,830 years before the Esa.

TIME, LAST. See Last Time.

TIME, TIMES AND A HALF (Dnl 12 7; cf 7 25; Rev 12 14): A luni-solar cycle. See Astronomy, I, 5.

H. Porter

TIMES. **OBSERVER OF.** See DIVINATION: MAGIC.

TIM NA, tim'na (אַבְּיְבֶּי , timna'; Θαμνά, Thamná): A concubine of Eliphaz, Esau's son, and the mother of Amalek (Gen 36 12). But in Gen 36 22 and 1 Ch 1 39 Timna is the sister of Lotan, and in Gen 36 40 and 1 Ch 1 51 a chief or clan of Edom (see TIMNAH, [3]). These variations are to be expected when the origin of genealogies is recalled. (In Gen EV reads, contrary to rule, "Timnah") Gunkel's theory is that Gen 36 12a is a later insertion in P.

TIMNAH, tim'na (הְּבְּעָהַ, timnāh, הְּבְּעָהָ, timnāthāh [Josh 19 43; Jgs 14 1.2.5], "allotted portion"; Β, Θαμνάθα, Thamnátha, also several Gryariations; AV has Timnath in Gen 38 12.13.14; Jgs 14 1.2.5; and Thimnathah in Josh 19 43):

(1) A town in the southern part of the hill country of Judah (Josh 15 57). Tibna proposed by Conder, a ruin 8 miles W. of Bethlehem, seems too far N. (PEF, III, 53, Sh XVII). It is possible this may be the "Timnah" of Gen 38 12.13.14.

(2) A town on the northern border of Judah (2) A town on the northern border of Judan (Josh 15 10), lying between Beth-shemesh and Ekron. It is probably the same Timnah as Judah visited (Gen 38 12-14), and certainly the scene of Samson's adventures (Jgs 14 1 f); his "father-in-law" is called a "Timnite" (Jgs 15 6). At this time the place is clearly Philistine (Jgs 14 1), though in Josh 19 43 it is reckoned to Dan. Being on the frontier, it probably changed hands several times. In 2 Ch 28 18 it was captured from the Philis by Ahaz, and we learn from Assyr evidence (Prison Inscription) that Sennacherib captured a Tamna after the battle of Alteka before he besieged Ekron (Schrader, Die Keilinschriften und das AT, 170). The site is undoubted. It is now a deserted ruin called Tibneh on the southern slopes of the Wâdy es Surâr (Valley of Sorek), about 2 miles W. of Beth-shemesh. There is a spring, and there are evident signs of antiquity (PEF, II, 417, 441, Sh

(3) There was probably a Timna in Edom (Gen 36 12.22.40; 1 Ch 1 39.51). Eusebius and Jerome (Onom) recognized a Thamna in Edom at their time.

(4) The "Thamnatha" of 1 Macc 9 50 (AV) is probably another Timnah, and identical with the Thamna of Jos (BJ, III, iii, 5; IV, viii, 1). This is probably the Tibneh, 10 miles N.W. of Bethel, an extensive ruin.

E. W. G. MASTERMAN

TIMNATH, tim'nath. See TIMNAH.

TIMNATH-HERES, tim-nath-he'rēz, t.-he'rez (ΟῦΠ ΓρὰΦ, timnath hereş, "portion of the sun"; Β, Θαμναθάρες, Thamnatháres, Α, Θαμναθάρε έως, Thamnathár; héōs): This is the form of the name given to Joshua's property and place of burial in Jgs 2 9. The name in Josh 19 50; 24 30 is Timnathserah. "Serah" simply reverses the order of the letters in "Heres." Scholars are divided in opinion as to which form is correct. It is possible that the change from Heres to Serah may have been deliberate, in order to avoid a form which might savor of idolatry—sun-worship. The Jews and Samaritans hold that Heres is the original form.

W. Ewing TIMNATH-SERAH, tim-nath-sē'ra (תְּבֶנֶת סֶּרָת), timnath serah: Β, Θαμαρχάρης, Thamarchárēs, Α, Θαμαθσαρά, Thamathsará): This place, assigned as an inheritance to Joshua, is described as being in Mt. Ephraim, on the north side of the mountain of Gaash (Josh 19 50; 24 30). Here, when his work was done, the great leader was laid to rest. The

mountain of Gaash unfortunately cannot be identified. Jos says that Joshua was buried at Thamna, a city of Ephraim (Ant, V, i, 29), which probably corresponds to Thamna, the head of a Jewish toparchy (BJ, III, iii, 5). Vespasian marched from Thamnatha to Lydda, which apparently was near (IV, viii, 1). The place was taken and reduced to slavery by Cassius (Ant, XIV, xi, 2). It was put in charge of John the Essene at the beginning of the Jewish war (BJ, II, xx, 4). Onom (s.v. "Thamna" and "Thamnathsara") identifies it with "Timnath" of Gen 38 12 AV, placing it in the mountain in the tribe of Dan (or Judah), on the way from Diospolis (Lydda) to Jerus. The tomb of Joshua was still fied. Jos says that Joshua was buried at Thamna, (Lydda) to Jerus. The tomb of Joshua was still shown there. This points to *Tibneh*, in the uplands 12 miles N.E. of Lydda. S. of the village, in the face of a rock, are a series of rock-hewn tombs, the largest of which, containing 14 loculi, and a small chamber behind with one loculus, may be that associated with Joshua by Onom. A giant oak grows hard by, perhaps the greatest tree in Pal. Kefr Isha'a, "village of Joshua," lies about 3 miles to the This identification is now generally accepted.

The Sam tradition points to the tomb of Joshua at Kefr Hāris, 9 miles S. of Nāblus. Outside the village to the E. are two shrines. One is called Neby Kifl, the other Neby Kala'a. The former, "prophet of division," or "of the portion," might apply to Joshua; the latter is identified with Caleb. This identification assumes that the first element of the name has fallen out, the second only surviving.

TIMNITE, tim'nīt (הַּמְלֵּה, timnī; Θαμναθαίος, Thamnathaios): The father of Samson's wife, a native of Timnah (Jgs 15 6).

TIMON, tī'mon (Τίμων, Timon): One of "the seven" chosen to relieve the apostles by attending to "the daily ministration" to the poor of the Christian community in Jerus (Acts 6 5). The name is Greek, but as Nicolaüs is distinguished from the remaining six as a proselyte, Timon and the others were probably Jews by birth.

TIMOTHEUS, ti-mo'the-us (Τιμόθεος, Timotheos):

(1) A leader of the children of Ammon who was on several occasions severely defeated by Judas Maccabaeus (1 Macc 5 6 ff.34 ff; 2 Macc 8 30; 9 3; 10 24; 12 2.18 ff) in 165–163 BC. According to 2 Macc 10 37, he was slain at Gazara after having hidden in a cistern. But in 2 Macc 12 2 he is again at liberty as an opponent of the Jews, and in 12 24 f he falls into the hands of Dositheus and Sosipater, but by representing that many Jewish captives were at his mercy and likely to suffer if he were put to death, he is again released. These discrepancies are so great—though not unusual in 2 Macc—that some suppose another Timotheus is referred to in 12 2 ff. He is most probably the same person, the careless author of 2 Macc making a slip in saying Timotheus was killed at Gazara. He probably escaped by hiding in the cistern. The Gr name for an Ammonite leader is striking: (a) he may have been a genuine Ammonite with a Gr name, or (b) a Syro-Macedonian officer placed by Syrian authority over the Ammonites, or (c) a Gr soldier of fortune invited by the Ammonites to be their commander.

(2) See next article. S. Angus

TIMOTHY, tim'δ-thi (Τιμόθεος, Timbtheos [Acts 17 14; 18 5; 19 22; 20 4; Rom 16 21; 1 Cor 4 17; 16 10; 2 Cor 1 1.19; Phil 1 1; 2 19; Col 1 1; 1 Thess 1 1; 3 2.6; 2 Thess 1 1; 1 Tim 1 2.18; 6 20; 2 Tim 1 2; Philem ver 1;

He 13 23; AV Timotheus): Timothy was one of the best known of Paul's companions and fellow-

laborers. He was evidently one of Paul's own converts, as the apostle de-1. One of Paul's scribes him as his beloved and faithful son in the Lord (1 Cor 4 17); and in Converts 1 Tim 1 2 he writes to "Timothy my true child in faith"; and in 2 Tim 1 2 he addresses him as "Timothy my beloved child."

He was a resident, and apparently a native, either of Lystra or Derbe, cities which were visited and evangelized by Paul on his 1st mis-

2. A Native sionary journey (Acts 14 6). It is of Lystra probable that of these two cities, it was Lystra that was T.'s native place.

was Lystra that was T.'s native place. For instance, in Acts 20 4 in a list of Paul's friends there are the names of "Gaius of Derbe, and Timothy"; this evidently infers that T. was not "of Derbe." And in Acts 16 3, the brethren who gave Paul the good report of T. were "at Lystra and Iconium"; the brethren from Derbe are not mentioned. Lystra was evidently T.'s native city. In 2 Tim 3 10.11 Paul mentions that T. had fully known the persecutions and efficience which

fully known the persecutions and afflictions which

came to him at Antioch, at Iconium and 3. Convert- at Lystra. These persecutions occurred ed at Lystra during the apostle's first visit to these

towns; and T. seems to have been one of those who were converted at that time, as we find that on Paul's next visit to Lystra and Derbe, T. was already one of the Christians there: "He came also to Derbe and to Lystra: and behold a certain disciple was there, named Timothy" (Acts 16 1).

T. was now chosen by Paul to be one of his companions. This was at an early period in Paul's apostolic career, and it is pleasing to find that to the

end of the apostle's life T. was faithful to him.

T.'s father was a heathen Greek (Héllen, not Hellēnistēs, a Gr-speaking Jew); this fact is twice mentioned (Acts 16 1.3). His mother

was a Jewess, but he had not been circumcised in infancy, probably owing to objections made by his father. Father and Mother T.'s mother was called Eunice, and

his grandmother Lois. Paul mentions them by name in 2 Tim 15; he there speaks of the unfeigned faith which was in T., and which dwelt at the first in Eunice and Lois. It is evident that Eunice was converted to Christ on Paul's 1st missionary journey to Derbe and Lystra, because, when he next visited these cities, she is spoken of as "a Jewess who believed" (Acts 16 1).

On this 2d visit to Derbe and Lystra, Paul was strongly attracted to T., and seeing his unfeigned faith, and that from a child he had

5. Becomes known the sacred Scriptures of the a Co-worker OT (2 Tim 3 15), and seeing also his Christian character and deportment, with Paul and his entire suitability for the work of the ministry, he would have him "to go forth with him" (Acts 16 3). T. acquiesced in Paul's desire, and as preliminaries to his work as a Christian missionary, both to Jew and Gentile, two things were done. In order to conciliate the Jewish Christians, who would otherwise have caused trouble, which would have weakened T.'s position and his work as a preacher of the gospel, Paul took Timothy and

circumcised him. Paul was willing to 6. Circum- agree to this being done, on account of the fact that T.'s mother was a Jewess. It was therefore quite a different case

from that of Titus, where Paul refused to allow circumcision to be performed (15 2)—Titus being, unlike T., a Gentile by birth. See Titus.

The other act which was performed for T.'s benefit, before he set out with Paul, was that he was ordained by the presbytery or local council

of presbyters in Derbe and Lystra. Showing the importance which Paul assigned to this act of ordination, he refers to it in a letter

7. His Orto T. written many years afterward: "Neglect not the gift that is in thee, dination

which was given thee by prophecy, with the laying on of the hands of the presbytery" (1 Tim 4 14). In this ordination Paul himself took part, for he writes, "I put thee in remembrance, that they give the site of Color with the color with the site of Co that thou stir up the gift of God, which is in thee through the laying on of my hands" (2 Tim 1 6).

"2 Tim 1 6 should be viewed in the light of 1 Tim 4 14. Probably it was prophetic voices (through prophecy; cf 1 Tim 1 18, 'according to the prophecies which went before in regard to thee') which suggested the choice of Timothy as assistant of Paul and Silvanus, and his consecration to this work with prayer and the laying on of hands (of Acts 13 2 f). The laying on of hands by the presbyters (1 Tim 4 14), and that by Paul (2 Tim 1 6), are not mutually exclusive, esp. since the former is mentioned merely as an accompanying circum-stance of his endowment with special grace, the latter as the efficient cause of this endowment. The churches in the neighborhood of T.'s home, according to Acts 14 23, had been furnished with a body of presbyters soon after their founding" (Zahn, Intro to the NT, II, 23).

Thus prepared for the work, T. went forth with

Paul on the apostle's 2d missionary journey. find T. with him at Berœa (Acts 17 14),

8. Accom- having evidently accompanied him panies Paul to all places visited by him up to that point, viz. Phrygia, the region of Galatia, Mysia, Troas, Neapolis, Philippi, Amphipolis, Apollonia, Thessalonica and Berœa. Paul next went-and went alone, on account of the persecution at Berœa-to Athens (Acts 17 15); and from that city he sent a message to Silas and T. at that city he sent a message to Silas and T. at Berœa, that they should come to him at Athens with all speed. They quickly came to him there, and were immediately sent on an errand to the church in Thessalonica; "When we could no longer forbear, we thought it good to be left behind at Athens alone; and sent T., our brother, and minister of God, and sent follow the course of God, and sent follows the course of God, and and our fellow-labourer in the gospel of Christ, to establish you, and to comfort you concerning your faith: that no man should be moved by these afflictions" (1 Thess 3 1.2.3 AV). T. and Silas discharged this duty and returned to the apostle, bring-ing him tidings of the faith of the Christians in Thessalonica, of their love and of their kind remembrance of Paul, and of their ardent desire to see him; and Paul was comforted (vs. 5.6.7).

Paul had left Athens before Silas and T. were able to rejoin him. He had proceeded to Corinth, and
it was while the apostle was in that city,
9. At that "when Silas and Timothy came

Corinth down from Macedonia, Paul was constrained by the word, testifying to the Jews that Jesus was the Christ" (Acts 18 5). T. evidently remained with Paul during the year and

six months of his residence in Corinth, and also throughout this missionary journey to its end. From Corinth Paul wrote the Ep. to the Rom, and he sent them a salutation from T., "Timothy my fellow-worker saluteth you" (Rom 16 21).

In connection with this salutation from T., it should be noticed that it was Paul's custom to associate with his own name that of one

Saluor more of his companions, in the opening salutations in the Epp. T.'s name tations occurs in 2 Cor 1 1; Phil 1 1; Col 1 1; Philem ver 1. It is also found, along with that of Silvanus, in 1 Thess 1 1 and 2 Thess 1 1.

On Paul's 3d missioners in the app. 1 s name occurs in 2 Col 1 1; Phil 1 1; Col 1 1; Phil 1 1; Col 1 1; Phil 2 1; Phil 2 1; Phil 2 1; Phil 3 1

On Paul's 3d missionary journey, T. again accompanied him, though he is not mentioned till

Ephesus was reached. This journey involved much traveling, much work and much time. At Ephesus alone more than two years were spent. 11. At And when Paul's residence there was Ephesus drawing to a close, he laid his plans to go to Jerus, after passing en route through Macedonia and Achaia. Accordingly he sent on before him "into Macedonia two of them that ministered unto him, Timothy and Erastus" Acts 19 22). From Ephesus Paul wrote the First Ep. to the Cor (1 Cor 16 8), and in it he mentioned (ver 10) that T. was then traveling to Corinth, apparently a Corinth prolongation of the journey into Macedonia. After commending him to a kind reception from the Corinthians, Again

Paul proceeded to say that T. was to return to him from Corinth; that is, T. was to bring with him a report on the state of matters in the Corinthian church. Soon thereafter the riot in Ephesus occurred; and when it was over, Paul left Ephesus and went

to Macedonia and Greece. In Macedonia he was rejoined by T., whose name is associated with his own, in the 13. In Greece opening salutation of the Second Ep., which he now wrote to Corinth. T. accompanied him into Greece, where they abode three months.

From Greece the apostle once more set his face toward Jerus, T. and others accompanying him (Acts 20 4). "We that were of Paul's company" (Acts 21 8 AV), as Luke terms the friends who now traveled with Paul—and T. was one of them touched at Troas and a number of other places, and

touried as Trous and a induction of their praces, and
eventually reached Jerus, where Paul

14. In

Jerusalem

impacts and a induction of their praces, and
eventually reached Jerus, where Paul
was apprehended, This of course terminated, for the time, his apostolic
journeys, but not the coöperation of
his friends, or of T. among them.

The details of the manner in which T. was now employed are not recorded, until he is found once more with Paul—during his 1st imprisonment in Rome. But, from that point onward, there are many notices of how he was mentioned in three of the Epp. written by Paul at this time, viz. in Col 1, and Philem ver 1, in both of which his designation is "Timothy our brother," and in Phil 1, "Paul and Timothy, servants of Christ Jesus." In Phil 2, there is the interesting notice that, at a time when Paul's hope was that he would soon be liberated from his imprisonment, he trusted that he would be 16. To Visit Philippi: "I hope in the Lord Jesus to send Timothy shortly unto you, that I also may be of good comfort, when I know your state. For I have no man likeminded, who will care truly for your state. . . . But ye know the proof of him, that, as a child serveth a father, so he served with me in furtherance of the gospel. Him therefore I hope to send fruch.

Paul's hope was realized: he was set free; and once again T. was his companion in travel. Perhaps it was in Philippi that they rejoined each other, for not only had Paul expressed his intention of sending pointed to T. there, but he had also said that he **Ephesus** hoped himself to visit the Philippian church (Phil 1 26; 2 24). From this point onward it is difficult, perhaps impossible, to trace the course of Paul's journeys, but he tells us that he

had left T. as his delegate or representative in Ephesus (1 Tim 1 3); and soon thereafter he wrote the First Ep. to Tim, in which he gave full instructions in regard to the manner in which he should conduct the affairs of the Ephesian church, until Paul himself should again revisit Ephesus: "These things write I unto thee, hoping to come unto thee shortly" (1 Tim 3 14).

"The position which Timothy occupied in Ephesus, as it is described in 1 Tim, cannot without doing the

greatest violence to history be called that of a bishop, for the office of bishop existed only where the one bishop, a superior to the presbytery, represented the highest expression of the common church Position in life. The office was for life, and confined to the local church. This was particularly the case in Asia Minor, where, although as of Ignatius, bishoprics were numerous and closely adjacent, the office always retained its local character. On the other hand, T.'s position at the head of the churches of Asia was due to the position which he occupied as Paul's helper in missionary work. It was his part in the apostolic calling, as this calling involved the oversight of existing churches. T. was acting as a temporary representative of Paul in his apostolic capacity at Ephesus, as he had done earlier in Corinth, and in Thessalonica and Philippi (1 Cor 4 17; 1 Thess 3 2 f; Phil 2 19-23). His relation was not closer to one church than to the other churches of the province; its rise and disappearance did not affect at all the organization of the local congregations' (Zahn, Intro to the NT, II, 34).

From the Second Ep, still further detail can be

From the Second Ep. still further detail can be Paul was a second time imprisoned, gathered. and feeling that on this occasion his trial would be followed by an adverse Paul Summons judgment and by death, he wrote from Him to Rome to T. at Ephesus, affectionately requesting him to come to him: "Give Rome diligence to come shortly unto me"

The fact that at that time, when no 2 Tim 4 9). Christian friend was with Paul except Luke (2 Tim 4 11), it was to T. he turned for sympathy and aid, closing with the request that his own son in the faith should come to him, to be with him in his last hours, shows how true and tender was the affection which bound them together. Whether T. was able to reach Rome, so as to be with Paul before his execution, is unknown.

One other notice of him occurs in He 13 23: "Know ye that our brother Timothy hath been set at liberty; with whom, if he come shortly, I will see you."

20. Mention As the author of the Ep. to the He is not Paul, it is problematical what the meaning of these words really is, except that T. had been imprisoned, and—unlike what took place in Paul's case—he had escaped death and had been set free

place in Paul's case—he had escaped death and had been set free.

Nothing further is known of him. Of all Paul's friends, with the exception, perhaps, of Luke, Paul's beloved friend, T. was regarded by him with the tenderest affection; he was his dearly loved son, faithful and true. Various defects have been alleged to exist in T.'s character. These defects are inferred from the directions and instructions addressed to him by Paul in the Pastoral Epp. but these inferences may be wrong, and it is a mistake to exaggerate them in view of his unbroken and unswerving loyalty and of the long and faithful service rendered by him to Paul, "as a child serveth a father" (Phil 2 22).

JOHN RUTHERFURD

John Rutherfurd TIMOTHY, EPISTLES TO. See PASTORAL Epistles.

TIN, tin (בְּרֵיל, $b^e dh\bar{\imath}l$): Tin is mentioned with brass, iron and lead in Nu 31 22; Ezk 22 18.20. Ezekiel mentions tin along with silver, iron and lead as being imported into Tyre from Tarshish (see METALS; BRONZE). The tin must have been brought in the form of ore and smelted in Syria. The writer has some slag dug from a deposit near Beirût which yielded nearly pure tin. It was probably the site of an ancient smelter's shop. ALFRED ELY DAY

TIPHSAH, tif'sa (ΠΟΡΠ, tiphṣah, "ford"; Θαψά,

Thapsá): (1) This marks the northern extremity of the dominions ruled by Solomon, Gaza being the limit on the S. (1 K 4 24). It can hardly be other than Thapsacus, on the right bank of the Euphrates, before its waters join those of the Balik. The great caravan route between E. and W. crossed the river by the ford at this point. Here Cyrus the younger effected a somewhat perilous crossing (Xen. Anab. i.4, 2). The ford was also used by Darius; but Alexander the Great, in his pursuit, constructed

two bridges for the transport of his army (Arrian iii.7). Under the Seleucidae it was called Amphipolis. The site is probably occupied by the modern $Kal^*at\ Dibse$, where there is a ford still used by the caravans. It is about 8 miles below Meskene, where the river makes a bend to the E.

(2) (B, Θερσά, Thersá, A, Θαιρά, Thairá): The inhabitants of this town, which was apparently not far from Tirzah, did not favor the regicide Menahem, refusing to open to him. In his wrath he massacred the Tiphsites with circumstances of horrible cruelty (2 K 15 16). Khirbet Tafsah, about 6 miles S.W. of Nāblus, corresponds in name, but is probably too far from Tirzah. W. Ewing

TIRAS, ti'ras (ΦΤΤΑ, tīraṣ; Θειράs, Theirás, Luc., Θιράs, Thirás): A son of Japheth (Gen 10 2 [P]; 1 Ch 1 5). Not mentioned elsewhere; this name was almost unanimously taken by the ancient commentators (so Jos, Ant, I, vi, 1) to be the same as that of the Thracians (Θρᾶκες, Thrάkes); but the removal of the nominative ending s does away with this surface resemblance. Tuch was the first to suggest the Τυρσηνιοί, Tursēnioi, a race of Pelasgian pirates, who left many traces of their ancient power in the islands and coasts of the Aegean, and who were doubtless identical with the Etruscans of Italy. This brilliant suggestion has since been confirmed by the discovery of the name Turuša among the seafaring peoples who invaded Egypt in the reign of Merenptah (W. M. Müller, AE, 356 ff). Tiras has also been regarded as the same as Tarshish.

HORACE J. WOLF
TIRATHITES, ti'rath-its (ΔΊΣΤΩ, tir'āthīm;
B A, 'Αργαθείμ, Argathieim, Luc., Θαραθεί, Tharathei): A family of scribes that dwelt at Jabez
(1 Ch 2 55). The three families mentioned in this verse (Tirathites, Shimathites and Sucathites) are taken by Jerome to be three different classes of religious functionaries—singers, scribes, recorders ("canentes atque resonantes et in tabernaculis commorantes"). The Tg takes the same view, save that the "Sucathites" are those "covered" with a spirit of prophecy. Bertheau sees the Tirathites as "gate-keepers" (Aram. ΣΤΠ, tera'=Heb ΣΤΨ, sha'ar). Keil holds the three names to be those of the descendants of unknown men named Tira, Shemei and Sucah. The passage seems too obscure to admit of interpretation. Horace J. Wolf

TIRE, tir, HEADTIRE (2 K 9 30; Isa 3 20; Ezk 24 17.23; Jth 10 3; 16 8). See Dress, V.

TIRES, tīrz, ROUND: Small ornaments in the shape of crescents (Isa 3 18 AV, RV "crescents"). See Astronomy, I, 3; Crescents.

TIRHAKAH, ter-hā'ka, tir-hā'ka (הְרָּיִרְהַ, tir-hākāh; B in 2 K, Θαρά, Thara, elsewhere and in A, Θαρακά, Tharaka; Jos, Θαρσίκης,

1. Name Tharsikēs): The king of Cush or and Ethiopia (βασιλενς Αιθιόπων, busileús Prenomen Aιthiópōn), who opposed Sennacherib in Pal (2 K 19 9; Isa 37 9). The name of this ruler of Egypt and his native realm appears in hieroglyphics as Taharqa, his prenomen being Nefer-atmu-Ra-hu, "Nefer-atmu-Ra protects." The Assyr form of Tirhakah is Tarqû or Tarqu'u (inscriptions of Assur-bani-pal).

Tirhakah was one of the sons, and apparently the favorite, of Piankhy II. He left his mother, and the city Napata, at the age of 20; and when she followed him northward, and Length of Reign

2. Origin when she followed him northward, and Length of Reign Egypt. As he died, after a reign of at least 26 years, in 667 BC, he must have

mounted the throne about 693 BC.

The engagement between Tirhakah's army and the Assyrians is regarded as having taken place in 701 BC. Petrie explains this date by

3. A Chron-supposing he acted at first for the ological reigning Pharaoh, his cousin Shababifficulty toka, Tirhakah not having officially become Pharaoh until the former's death in 693 BC. There is a general opinion, however, that the Assyr historians, like those of 2 K and Isa, have mingled two campaigns made by Senancherib, one of them being after the accession of Tirhakah.

According to the OT account, Sennacherib was besieging Libnah when Tirhakah's army appeared

in Pal. In Sennacherib's inscriptions, however, the battle with "the king[s] of Muşuru [Egypt] and the bowmen, chariots, and cavalry of Meruhha" (Meroë or Ethiopia), who had come to Hezekiah's help, took place in the

neighborhood of Eltekeh. He claims to have captured the sons of the king (variant, "kings") of Egypt and the charioteers of the king of Meruhha, and then, having taken Eltekeh, Timna, and Ekron, he brought out Padi from Jerus, and reseated him on the throne of Ekron. The name of Tirhakah does not occur in his account.

It would seem to have been Egypt's interference in Palestinian affairs which caused the Assyr kings

to desire the conquest of that distant 5. Struggles country. According to the Bab Chronicle, the Assyr army fought in Egypt haddon and in the 7th year of Esar-haddon (675 Assur-bani-pal. His Death Esar-haddon marched thither, and after febriar three betties the conduct of the distance of the country was then apparently quiet until 672 BC, when Esar-haddon marched thither, and after febriar three betties the conquest of that distant to distance of the Bab Chronical three o

fighting three battles, entered Memphis. "The king" (Tirhakah) fled, but his sons and nephews were made prisoners. In the latter campaign (670 BC), Esar-haddon fell ill and died on the way out, so that the operations were, apparently, completed by his son, Assur-bani-pal (Osnappar). On hearing of the Assyr success at Kar-Banîti, Tirhakah, who was at Memphis, fled to Thebes. The 20 petty kings installed in Egypt by Esar-haddon were restored by Assur-bani-pal, but they feared the vengeance of Tirhakah after the Assyr army had retired, and therefore made an agreement with him. On this news reaching the Assyr king, he sent his army back to Egypt, and the petty rulers having been abolished, Necho king of Memphis and Sais was set on the throne, with his son, Nabû-šîzbanni, as ruler in Athribes. On hearing of the success of the Assyr armies, Tirhakah fled, and died in Cush (Ethiopia). He was succeeded by Tanṭamanē (identified with Tanut-Amon), son of Sabaco, whom the Assyrians defeated in the last expedition which they ever made to Egypt (see W. F. Petrie, Hist of Egypt, III, 294 ff).

T. G. Pinches

TIRHANA, tûr'ha-nä, tẽr-hā'nä (תְּלְתָּלֶּה), tirha-nāh; Β, Θαράμ, Tharám, Α, Θαρχνά, Tharchná, Luc., Θαρανά, Tharaaná): A son of Caleb by his concubine, Maacah (1 Ch 2 48).

TIRIA, tir'i-a, ti'ri-a (ἄτιτα, tīrσyā', Baer Ϫτιτα, tiryā'; Β omits, Α, Θηριά, Τhēriá, Luc., Έθριά, Ethriá): A son of Jehallelel (1 Ch 4 16).

TIRSHATHA, tēr-shā'tha, tûr'sha-tha (Κριψής, tirshāthā'; 'Αθερσαθά, Hathersathā): A title which occurs 5 t in Ezr and Neh (Ezr 2 63; Neh 7 65, ARV and ERVm "governor"). In Neh 8 9; 10 1, Nehemiah is called the tirshāthā'. In Ezr 2 63; Neh 7 65.70, it is the title of Sheshbazzar, or Zerubbabel. As in Neh 12 26, Nehemiah is called a peḥāh,

or governor, a title which in Ezr 5 14 is given to Sheshbazzar also, it has been supposed that peḥāh and tirshāthā' were equivalent terms, the former being of Assyrio-Bab and the latter of Pers origin. According to Lagarde, it comes from the Bactrian antarekshatra, that is, "he who takes the place of the king." According to Meyer and Scheftelowitz it is a modified form of a hypothetical Old Pers word tarsata. According to Gesenius and Ewald, it is to be compared with the Pers torsh, "severe," "austere," i.e. "stern lord." It seems more probable that it is derived from the Bab \$\sqrt{rashu}\$, "to take possession of," from which we get the noun rashu, "creditor." In this case it may well have had the sense of a tax-collector. One of the principal duties of the Pers satrap, or governor, was to assess and collect the taxes (see Rawlinson's Persia, ch viii). This would readily account for the fact that in Neh 7 70 the tirshāthā' gave to the treasure to be used in the building of the temple a thousand drachms of gold, etc, and that in Ezr 1 8 Cyrus numbered the vessels of the house of the Lord unto Sheshbazzar. This derivation would connect it with the Aram. rashya, "creditor," and the New Heb rāshāth, "highest power," "magistrate."

TIRZAH, tûr'za (TYTA, tirçāh; Θερσά, Thersá):

(1) A royal city of the Canaanites, the king of which was slain by Joshua (12 24). It superseded Shechem as capital of the Northern Kingdom (1 K 14 17, etc), and itself gave place in turn to Samaria. Here reigned Jeroboam, Nadab his son, Baasha, Elah and Zimri (15 21.33; 16 6.8.9.15). Baasha was buried in Tirzah. Here Elah was assassinated while "drinking himself drunk" in the house of his steward; here therefore probably he was buried. Zimri perished in the flames of his palace, rather than fall into Omri's hands. In Tirzah Menahem matured his rebellion against Shallum (2 K 15 14). The place is mentioned in Cant 6 4 AV, where the Shulammite is said to be "beautiful... as Tirzah, comely as Jerus." The comparison may be due to the charm of its situation. The name may possibly be derived from rāçāh, "to delight." Several identifications have been suggested. Buhl (GAP, 203) favors et-Tīreh, on the W. of the plain of Makhneh, 4 miles S. of Nāblus, which he identifies with the Tirathana of Jos. He quotes Neubauer to the effect that the later Jews said Tir'an or Tar'ita instead of Tirzah, as weakening the claim of Tellūzah, which others (e.g. Robinson, BR, III, 302) incline to. It is a partly ruined village with no spring, but with ancient cisterns, on a hill about 4 miles E. of N. from Nāblus. This was evidently the place intended by Brocardius—Thersa, about 3 miles E. of Samaria (Descriptio, VII). A third claimant is Teiastr, a fortress at the point where the road from Abel-meholah joins that from Shechem to Bethshan, fully 11 miles N.E. of Nāblus. It is impossible to decide with certainty. The heavy t in Tellūzah is a difficulty. Teiasīr is perhaps too far from Shechem. Buhl's case for identification with et-Tīreh is subject to the same difficulty as Telūzah.

(2) One of the five daughters of Zelophehad (Nu **26** 33; **27** 1; **36** 11; Josh **17** 3). W. Ewing

TISHBITE, tish'bīt. See ELIJAH; Expos T, XII, 383.

TISHRI, tish'rē, TISRI, tiz'rē: The 7th month of the Jewish ecclesiastical, and 1st of the civil, year (September-October). The same as Ethanim. See Calendar.

TITANS, tī'tanz: In Jth 16 7, "Neither did the sons of the Titans [vlol Τιτάνων, huiot Τιτάνδη] smite him." The name of an aboriginal Canaan-

itish race of reputed giants who inhabited Pal before the Hebrews, and so used in the sense of "giants" in general. See Rephaim. In 2 S 5 18.22, the "valley of Rephaim" is tr^d by LXX as "the valley of the Titans."

TITHE, tith (Τάξ), ma'ăsēr; δεκάτη, dekâtē): The custom of giving a 10th part of the products of the land and of the spoils of war to priests and kings (1 Macc 10 31; 11 35; 1 S 3 15.17) was a very ancient one among most nations. That the Jews had this custom long before the institution of the Mosaic Law is shown by Gen 14 17–20 (cf He 7 4) and Gen 28 22. Many critics hold that these two passages are late and only reflect the later practice of the nation; but the payment of tithes is so ancient and deeply rooted in the history of the human race that it seems much simpler and more natural to believe that among the Jews the practice was in existence long before the time of Moses.

In the Pent we find legislation as to tithes in three In the Pent we find legislation as to tithes in three places. (1) According to Lev 27 30-33, a tithe had to be given of the seed of the land, i.e. of the crops, of the fruit of the tree, e.g. oil and wine, and of the herd or the flock (cf Dt 14 22.23; 2 Ch 31 5.6). As the herds and flocks passed out to pasture they were counted (cf Jer 33 13; Ezk 20 37), and every 10th animal that came out was reckoned holy to the Lord. The owner was not allowed to search among them to find whether they were bad or good, nor could he change any of them; if he did, both the one chosen and the one for which it was changed were holy. Tithes of the herds and flocks could not be redeemed for money, but tithes of the seed of the land and of fruit could be, but a 5th part of the value of the tithe had to be added. (2) In Nu 18 21-32 it is laid down that the tithe must be paid to the Levites. (It should be noted that according to He 7 5, 'they that are of the sons of Levi, who receive the office of the priesthood take tithes of the people.' Westcott's explanation is that the priests, who received from the Levites a tithe of the tithe, thus symbolically received the whole tithe. In the time of the second temple the priests did actually receive the tithes. In the Talm [Y*bhāmōth 86a et passim] it is said that this alteration from the Mosaic Law was caused by the sin of the Levites, who were not eager to return to Jerus, but had to be persuaded to do so by Ezra [Ezr 8 15].) The Levites were to receive the tithes offered by Israel to Jeh, because they had no other inheritance, and in return for their service of the tabernacle (Nu 18 21.24). The tithe was to consist of corn of the threshing-floor and the fulness of the wine press (ver 27), which coincides with seed of the land and fruit of the trees in Lev 27. The Levites, who stood in the same relation to the priests as the people did to themselves, were to offer from this their inheritance a heave offering, a tithe of a tithe, to the priests (cf Neh 10 39), and for this tithe they were to choose of the best part of what they received.
(3) In Dt 12 5.6.11.18 (cf Am 4 4) it is said that the tithe is to be brought "unto the place which Jeh your God shall choose out of all your tribes, to put his name there," i.e. to Jerus; and in vs 7.12.18, that the tithe should be used there as a sacred meal by the offerer and his household, including the Levite within his gates. Nothing is said here about tithing cattle, only corn, wine and oil being mentioned (cf Neh 10 36-38; 13 5.12). In Dt 14 22-29 it is laid down that if the way was too long to carry the tithe to Jerus it could be exchanged for money, and the money taken there instead, where it was to be spent in anything the owner chose; and whatever was bought was to be eaten by him and his household and the Levites at Jerus. In

the third year the tithe was to be reserved and eaten at home by the Levite, the stranger, the fatherless and the widow. In 26 12-15 it is laid down that in the 3d year, after this feast had been given, the landowner should go up himself before the Lord his God, i.e. to Jerus, and ask God's blessing on his deed. (According to the Mish, $S\bar{o}t\bar{a}h$ 9 10; $Ma'as\bar{e}r$ $Sh\bar{e}n\bar{\imath}$ 5 65, the high priest Johanan abolished this custom.) In this passage this 3d year is called "the year of tithing."

There is thus an obvious apparent discrepancy between the legislation in Lev and Dt. It is harmonized in Jewish tradition, not only theoretically but in practice, by considering the tithes as three different tithes, which are named the First Tithe, the Second Tithe, and the Poor Tithe, which is called also the Third Tithe (\$P\vec{v}\vec{a}h\$, \$Ma'\vec{a}\vec{v}\vec{v}\vec{c}\ve

The explanation given by many critics, that the discrepancy between Dt and Lev is due to the fact that these are different layers of legislation, and that the Levitical tithe is a post-exilian creation of the PC, is not wholly satisfactory, for the following reasons: (1) The allusion in Dt 18 1.2 seems to refer to the Levitical tithe. (2) There is no relation between the law of Nu 18 and post-exilian conditions, when the priests were numerous and the Levites a handful. (3) A community so poor and disaffected as that of Ezra's time would have refused to submit to a new and oppressive tithe burden. (4) The division into priests and Levites cannot have been of the recent origin that is alleged. See Levites.

not have been of the recent origin that the tithe is simply a later form of the first-fruits, but this is difficult to accept, since the first-fruits were given to the priest, while the tithes were not. The whole subject is involved in considerable obscurity, which with our present information cannot easily be cleared away.

The Talmudic law of tithing extends the Mosaic Law, with most burdensome minuteness, even to the smallest products of the soil. Of these, according to some, not only the seeds, but, in certain cases, even the leaves and stalks had to be tithed (Ma-' $\ddot{a}s\ddot{e}r\ddot{o}th$ 4 5), "mint, anise, and cummin" ($D^ema'\ddot{i}$ 11 1; cf Mt 23 23; Lk 11 42). The general principle was that "everything that is eaten, that is watched over, and that grows out of the earth" must be tithed ($Ma'\ddot{a}s\ddot{e}r\ddot{o}th$ 1 1).

Considering the many taxes, religious and secular, that the Jews had to pay, esp. in post-exilian times, we cannot but admire the liberality and resource-fulness of the Jewish people. Only in the years just after the return from exile do we hear that the taxes were only partially paid (Neh 13 10; cf Mal 1 7 ff; and for preëxilian times cf 2 Ch 31 4 ff). In later times such cases seldom occur (Ṣōṭāh 48a), which is the more surprising since the priests, who benefited so much by these laws of the scribes, were the adversaries of the latter.

PAUL LEVERTOFF

TITIUS JUSTUS, tish'us jus'tus. See Justus, (2); Titus Justus.

TITLE, tī't'l: Jn 19 19.20 for τίτλος, titlos. The following arrangement of the title on the cross has been suggested:

ישוע הנצרי מלך היהודים OYTOC ECTIN IHCOYC O BACILEYC TWN IOYAAIWN REX JUDAEORUM

See Geikie, Life and Words of Christ, ch lxiii, note e; Seymour, The Cross in Tradition, History and Art (New York, 1898), pp. 115, 116, 136, 138.

TITTLE, tit''l (κεραία, keraía [WH, keréa], from κέραs, kéras, "a horn"): A small stroke or mark, specif. on a letter to denote accent, or as a diacritical mark; used only in Mt 5 18 and Lk 16 17. In the first passage it is used in connection with iota, or jot, i.e. the very smallest thing, and in both it refers to the minutiae of the Law. It is well known that the scribes paid the greatest attention to such marks attached to the letters in the Heb Scriptures, the MT of which abounds in them. See Jot; Yodh.

TITUS, ti'tus (Tíros, Titos [2 Cor 2 13; 7 6.13 ff; 8 6.16.23; 12 18; Gal 2 1.3; 2 Tim 4 10; Tit 1 4]):

A Gr Christian, one of Paul's intimate friends, his companion in some of his apostolic journeys, and one of his assistants in Christian work. His name does not occur in the Acts; and, elsewhere in the NT, it is found only in 2 Cor, Gal, 2 Tim and Tit. As Paul calls him "my true child after a common faith" (Tit 1 4), it is probable that he was one of the apostle's converts.

The first notice of T. is in Acts 15 2, where we read that after the conclusion of Paul's 1st missionary journey, when he had returned to 2. Paul Antioch, a discussion arose in the

Refuses to church there, in regard to the question Have Him whether it was necessary that gentile Circumcised Christians should be circumcised and should keep the Jewish Law. It was decided that Paul and Barnabas, "and certain other of them," should go up to Jerus to the apostles and elders about this question. The "certain other of them" includes T., for in Gal 2 3 it is recorded that T. was then with Paul. The Judaistic party in the church at Jerus desired to have T. circumcised, but Paul gave no subjection to these persons and to their wishes, "no, not for an hour; that the truth of the gospel might continue with you" (Gal 2 5). The matter in dispute was decided as recorded in Acts 15 13–29. The decision was in favor of the free promulgation of the gospel, as preached by Paul, and unrestricted by Jewish ordinances. Paul's action therefore in regard to T. was justified. In fact T. was a representative or test case.

It is difficult and perhaps impossible to give the true reason why Titus is not mentioned by name in the Acts, but he is certainly referred to in 15 2.

There is no further notice of T. for some years

There is no further notice of T. for some years afterward, when he is again mentioned in 2 Cor. In this Ep. his name occurs 8 t. From the notices in this Ep. it appears that T. had been sent by Paul, along with an unnamed "brother," to Corinth

as the apostle's delegate to the church there (2 Cor 12 18). His chief business was evidently to deal with the cases of immorality which had occurred there. His mission was 3. Sent to largely successful, so that he was able Corinth to return to Paul with joy, because his spirit was refreshed by the Corinthians (2 Cor 7 13). His inward affection was largely drawn out to them, and "he remembereth the obedience of you all, how with fear and trembling ye received him" (7 15). At Corinth T. seems also to have assisted in organizing the weekly collections for the poor saints in Jerus. See 1 Cor 16 1.2 compared with 2 Cor 8 6: "We exhorted Titus, that as he had made a beginning before, so he would also complete in you this grace also.'

After the departure of T. from Corinth, difficulty had again arisen in the church there, and T. seems to have been sent by Paul a second time to that city, as the apostle's messenger, carrying a letter from him—referred to in 2 Cor 2 3 ff; 7 8 ff.

The state of the Corinthian church had been causing much anxiety to Paul, so much so that when he had come to Troas to preach

Christ's gospel, and a door was opened 4. Paul to him of the Lord, he found no rest in his spirit, because he found not T., Goes to Meet Him

his brother; so he left Troas, and went thence into Macedonia, in order to meet T. the sooner, so as to ascertain from him how matters stood in Corinth. In Macedonia accordingly the apostle met T., who brought good news regarding the Corinthians. In the unrest and fightings and fears which the troubles at Corinth had caused Paul to experience, his spirit was refreshed when T. reached him. "He that comforteth the lowly, even God, comforted us by the coming of Titus while he told us your longing, your mourning, your zeal for me; so that I rejoiced yet more" (2 Cor **7** 6.7).

Paul now wrote to the Corinthians again—our Second Ep. to the Cor—and dispatched it to its destination by the hand of T., into whose heart 'God had put the same earnest care for them' (2 Cor 8 16–18). T. was also again intrusted with the work of overseeing the weekly collection in the Corinthian church (2 Cor 8 10.24).

There is now a long interval in the history of T., for nothing further is recorded of him till we come

to the Pastoral Epp. From Paul's Ep. to him these details are gathered: Travels On Paul's liberation at the conclusion with Paul of his first Rom imprisonment he made to Crete a number of missionary journeys, and

T. went with him, as his companion and assistant, on one of these—to the island of Crete. From Crete, Paul proceeded onward but he left T. to "set in order the things that were wanting, and appoint elders in every city" (Tit 15). Paul reminds him of the character of the people of Crete, and gives him various instructions for his guidance; charges him to maintain sound doctrine, and advises him how to deal with the various classes of persons met with in his pastoral capacity.

T. is informed that Artemas or Tychicus will be sent to Crete so that he will be free to leave the island and to rejoin the apostle at Nicopolis, where he for the apostle at Nicopolis, where he has determined to winter. Such were Sends for Paul's plans; whether they were carried out is unknown. But this at least is certain, that T. did rejoin Paul, if not at Nicopolis, then at some other spot; and prisonment there, for he is mentioned once again (2 Time 4 10) as having gone to Dalmatia, evidently on an evangelistic errand, as the apostle was in the habit of sending his trusted friends to do such work, when he himself was no longer able to do this, owing to his imprisonment. "Paul regarded as his own the work done from centers where he labored, by helpers associated

with him, considering the churches thus organized as under his jurisdiction. This throws light upon the statement in 2 Tim 4 10, that T. at that time had gone to Dalmatia, and a certain Crescens to Gaul. There is no indication that they, like Demas, had deserted the apostle and sought safety for themselves, or that, like Tychicus, they had been sent by the apostle upon some special errand. In either case it would be a question why they went to these particular countries, with which, so far as we know, Paul, up to this time, had never had anything to do. The probability is that T., who had long been associated with Paul (Gal 2 3), who, as his commissioner, had executed difficult offices in Corinth (2 Cor 7-9), and who, not very long before 2 Tim was written, had completed some missionary work in Crete that had been begun by others, had gone as a missionary and as Paul's representative and helper to Dalmatia. . . . If by this means, beginnings of church organizations had been made . . . in Spain by Paul himself, in Gaul by Crescens, in Dalmatia by T., then, in reality, the missionary map had been very much changed since Paul's first defence" (Zaln, Intro to the NT, II, 11).

T. was one of Paul's very dear and trusted friends:

T. was one of Paul's very dear and trusted friends; and the fact that he was chosen by the apostle to act as his delegate to Corinth, to transact difficult and delicate work in the 7. His church there, and that he did this Character oftener than once, and did it thoroughly and successfully, shows that T. was not merely a good but a most capable man, tactful and resourceful and skilful in the handling of men and of affairs. "Whether any inquire about T., he is my partner and fellow-worker to you-ward" (2 Cor 8 23). JOHN RUTHERFURD

TITUS. EPISTLE TO. See PASTORAL EPISTLES.

TITUS or TITIUS JUSTUS (Titos or Titios 'Ιούστος, Titos or Titios Ιούstos [Acts 18 7]): Titus or Titius-for the MSS vary in regard to the spelling-was the prenomen of a certain Corinthian, a Jewish proselyte (sebómenos tón Theón. See Prose-LYTE). His name seems also to indicate that he was a Roman by birth. He is altogether a different person from Titus, Paul's assistant and companion n some of his journeys, to whom also the Ep. to Tit is addressed.

Titus or Titus Justus was not the "host of St. Paul at Corinth" (HDB, art. "Justus," p. 511), for Luke has already narrated that, when Paul came to Corinth, "he abode with" Aquila and Priscilla (Acts 18 3). What is said of Titius Justus is that when the Jews in Corinth opposed themselves to Paul and blasphemed when he testified that Jesus was the Christ, then Paul ceased to preach the gospel in the Jewish synagogue as he had formerly done, and "he departed thence, and went into the house of a certain man named Titus Justus, one that worshipped God, whose house joined hard to the synagogue" (ver 7).

"Titius Justus was evidently a Roman or a Latin, one "TIGUES JUSTUS WAS EVIDENTLY A KOMAN OF A LAUTH, ONE of the coloni of the colony Corinth. Like the centurion Cornelius, he had been attracted to the synagogue. His citizenship would afford Paul an opening to the more educated class of the Corinthian population" (Ramsay, St. Paul the Traveller and the Rom Citizen, 256).

Paul's residence in Corinth continued for a year and a half, followed without a break by another period indicated in the words, he "tarried after this yet many days" (Acts 18 11.18), and during the whole of this time he evidently used the house of Titius Justus, for the purposes both of preaching the gospel and of gathering the church together for Christian worship and instruction, "teaching the word of God among them" (ver 11).

Titius Justus, therefore, must have been a wealthy man, since he possessed a house in which there was an apartment sufficiently large to be used for both of these purposes; and he himself must have been a most enthusiastic member of the church, when in a period of protracted difficulty and persecution, he welcomed Paul this house, that he might use it as the meeting-place of the church in Corinth. See Justus, (2). JOHN RUTHERFURD

TITUS MANIUS. See Manius.

TIZITE, tī'zīt (הַּתִּיצִי , ha-tīçī; B, ò 'Ieagei, ho Ieasei, A, ὁ Θωσαεί, ho Thōsaei, Luc., Αθωσι, Athōsi): A gentilic attached to the name "Joha" (1 Ch 11 45), one of the soldiers of David; the origin is totally unknown.

TOAH, tō'a. See NAHATH.

TOB, tob, tōb, THE LAND OF (Δ΄), 'ereç tōbh, "a good land"; γη Τάβ, gê Tōb): Hither Jephthah escaped from his brethren after his father's death (Jgs 11 3), and perfected himself in the art of war, making forays with "the vain fellows" who joined him. Here the elders of Gilead found him, when, reduced to dire straits by the children of Ammon, they desired him to take command of their army (vs 5 ff). This country contributed 12,000 men to the forces of the allies, who with the Ammonites were defeated by Israel (2 S 10 8). In 1 Macc 5 13 we read of the land of Tubias where the Jews, about 1,000 men, were slain by the Gentiles, their wives and children being carried into captivity. The Tubieni, "men of Tob" of 2 Macc 12 17, were probably from this place. Ptolemy (v.19) speaks of Thauba, a place to the S.W. of Zobah, which may possibly be Tob. The Talm (Neubauer, Géog. du Talm, 239) identifies the land of Tob with the district of Himpage. Tob would then be represented trict of Hippene. Tob would then be represented by Hippos, modern Susīyeh, to the S.W. of Fik on the plateau E. of the Sea of Galilee. Perhaps the most likely identification is that supported by G. A. Smith (HGHL, 587), with et-Taiyibeh, 10 miles S. of Umm Keis (Gadara). The name is the same in meaning as Tob. W. Ewing

TOB-ADONIJAH, tob-ad-ō-nī'ja, tōb- (コカロ אַרוֹנְכְּהְיּ, tōbh'àdhōnīyāh, "good is the Lord"; Β, Τωβαδωβειά, Τōbadōbeiá, A and Luc., Τωβαδωνιά, Τōbadōniá): One of the Levites sent by King Jehoshaphat to teach in the cities of Judah (2 Ch 17 8). The name looks like a dittography arising from the two previous names, Adonijah and Tobijah.

TOBIAH, tö-bī'a (Τζζτ), tōbhīyāh; Α, Τωβίας,

Tõbias, omitted in B):

(1) An Ammonite slave (AV "servant"), probably of Sanballat, the governor of Samaria (Neh 2 10). He was grieved exceedingly when Nehe-miah came to seek the welfare of the children of Israel. In two ways he was connected by marriage with the Jews, having himself married the daughter of Shecaniah, the son of Arah, and his son Jehohanan having married the daughter of Meshullam, the son of Berechiah (6 18). Because of this close connection with the Jews, the nobles of the latter corresponded by letter with him and also reported his good deeds to Nehemiah and reported Nehemiah's words to Tobiah. In consequence of the report, Tobiah sent letters to Nehemiah to put him in fear (6 17-19). Nehemiah seems to have considered him to be his chief enemy; for he put him before Sanballat in his prayers to God to remember his opponents according to their works (6 14). In 13 4 we are told that he was an ally of Eliashib, the high priest who had the oversight of the chambers of the house of God and had prepared for him as a guest chamber the room which had before been used as a storehouse for offerings of various kinds. Nehemiah, having heard during his second visit to Jerus of this desecration of the temple, cast out the household stuff of Tobiah and cleansed the chambers, restoring the vessels of God and the offerings as of

(2) The eponym of a family which returned with

Zerubbabel, but could not trace its descent (Ezr R. DICK WILSON 2 60; Neh 7 62).

TOBIAS, tō-bī'as:

 The son of Tobit. See Tobit, Book of.
 Τωβίας, Τοδίας, Α, Τωβίω, Τοδίο, the father (according to Jos, grandfather) of Hyrcanus (q.v.) (2 Macc 3 11).

TOBIE, tō'bi. See Tubias.

TOBIEL, tö-bī'el, tō'bi-el (Τοβιήλ, Τοδιέλ, Α, Τωβιήλ, Τοδιέλ): The father of Tobit (Tob 1 1); another form of "Tabeel," "God is good."

TOBIJAH, to-bī'ja (בּלֶבֶּה , ṭōbhīyāh, "Yahweh is good"):

(1) A Levite in the reign of Jehoshaphat whom the king sent to teach in the cities of Judah (2 Ch

17 8; מוֹבְיָהוּ , tōbhīyāhū; LXX omits).

(2) One of a party of Jews that came from Babylon to Jerus with gold and silver for a crown for Zerubbabel and Joshua, or for Zerubbabel alone (Zec 6 10.14). The crown was to be stored in the temple in remembrance of the donors (LXX in both passages translates Τήμου by χρήσιμοι, chrésimoi, i.e. מוֹבֵיה, tōbheyhā).

TOBIT, tō'bit, BOOK OF:

 Name
 Canonicity
 Contents
 Fact or Fiction?
 Some Sources Date
 Place of Composition
 Versions
 Original Language

LITERATURE

The book is called by the name of its principal hero which in Gr is $\mathsf{T}\omega\beta\iota\tau$, $\mathsf{T}\ddot{o}bit$, $\mathsf{T}\omega\beta\epsilon\iota\tau$, $\mathsf{T}\ddot{o}b\epsilon it$ and (N) $\mathsf{T}\omega\beta\epsilon\iota\theta$, $\mathsf{T}\ddot{o}b\epsilon ith$. The original Heb

word thus transliterated (מוֹבְיָה , $t\bar{o}bh\bar{\imath}-y\bar{a}h$) means "Yahweh is good." The 1. Name Gr name of the son is $T\omega\beta las$, $T\bar{o}blas$, a variant of the same Heb word. In the Eng., Welsh, etc, tr³, the father and son are called Tobit and Tobias respectively, but in the Vulg both are known by the same name—Tobias—the cause of much confusion. In Syr the father is called *Tobit*, the son *Tobiya*, following apparently the Gr; the former is not a transliteration of the Heb form given above and assumes a different etymology, but what?

Though this book is excluded from Protestant Bibles (with but few exceptions), Tob 4 7-9 is read

in the Anglican offertory, and at one time Tobias and Sarah occupied in 2. Canonicity the marriage service of the Anglican rubrics the position at present held by Abraham and Sarah. For the position of the book in the LXX, Vulg and EV, see JUDITH, 2.

The Book of Tob differs in essential matters in its various VSS and even in different MSS of the same VSS (cf LXX). The analysis

3. Contents of the book which follows is based on the LXX MSS BA, which EV follows. The Vulg differs in many respects.

The Vulg differs in many respects.

The book tells of two Jewish families, living, one at Nineveh, the other at Ecbatana, both of which had fallen into great trouble, but at length recovered their fortunes and became united by the marriage of the son of one to the daughter of the other. Tobit had, with his brethren of the tribe of Naphtali, been taken captive by Enemessar (=Shalmaneser), remaining in exile under his two successors, Sennacherib and Sarchedonus (Esarhaddon). During his residence in the Northern Kingdom (Israel) and after his removal to Nineveh (Assyria), he continued faithful to the Jewish religion and supported the observances of that religion at Jerus. Moreover, he fasted regularly, gave alms freely, and buried such of his fellow-countrymen as had been put to death with the approval or by the command of the Assyr king. Notwithstanding this loyalty to the religion of his fathers and the fact that he buried Jewish corpses intended to be

disgraced by exposure, he like other Jews (Daniel, etc) won favor at court by his upright demeanor and was made steward of the king's estate. Under the next king (Sennacherib) all this was changed, for he not only lost his high office but was deprived of his wealth, and came perilously near to losing his life. Through an accident (bird dung falling into his eyes) he lost his sight, and, to make bad worse, his wife, in the manner of Job's, taunted him with the futility of his religious faith. Joblike he prayed that God might take him out of his distress.

onru dung rating into an seyes) he lost his sight, and, to make bad worse, his wife, in the manner of Job's, taunted him with the futility of his religious faith. Job-like he prayed that God might take him out of his distress.—Row it happened that at this time another Jewish family, equally loyal to the ancestral faith, had fallen into similar distress—Raguel, his wife Edna and his daughter Sarah, who resided at Ecbatana (Vulg "Rages"; cf 14) in Media. Now Sarah was an only daughter, comely of person and virtuous of character. She had been married to seven successive husbands, but each one of them had been slain on the bridal night by the demon Asmodeus, who seems to have been eaten up with jealousy and wished no other to have the charming maid whom he loved. The parents of Tobias at Nineveh, like those of Sarah at Ecbatana, wished to see their only child married that they might have descendants, but the marriage must be in each case to one belonging to the chosen race (3 7-15; but see 7, below). The crux of the story is the bringing together of Tobias and Sarah and the frustration of the jealous murders of Asmodeus. In the deep poverty to which he had been reduced Tobit bethought himself of the money (ten talents, i.e. about £3,500) which he had deposited with one Gabael of Rages (LXX A B, Rhāqori) in Media (see 1 14). This he desired his son to fetch; but the journey is long and dangerous, and he must have a trustworthy guide which he finds in Raphael, an angel sent by God, but who appears in the guise of an orthodox Jew. The old man is delighted with the guide, whom, however, he first of all carefully examines; and dismisses his son with strict injunctions to observe the Law, to give alms and not to take to wife a non-Jewish (EV "strange") maiden (4 3 ff). Proceeding on the journey they make a halt on reaching the Tigris, and during a bath in the river Tobias sees a fish that made as if it would devour him. The angel tells him to seize the fish and to extract from it and carefully keep its heart, liver and g

Luther seems to have been the first to call in question the literal historicity of this book, regarding it rather in the light of a didactic 4. Fact or Fiction? The large number of details pervading the book, personal, local and chronological, give it the appearance of being throughout a historical record; but

this is but part of the author's art. His aim is to interest, instruct and encourage his readers, who were apparently in exile and had fallen upon evil What the writer seeks to make clear is that if they are faithful to their religious duties, giving themselves to prayer and almsgiving, burying their dead instead of exposing them on the "Tower of Silence," as did the Persians, then God would be faithful to them as He had been to Tobit.

would be faithful to them as He had been to Tobit.

That the book was designed to be a book of religious instruction and not a history appears from the following considerations: (1) There are historical and geographical inaccuracies in the book. It was not Shalmaneser (Enemessar) who made the tribes of Naphtali and Zebulun exiles in Assyria, but Tiglath-pileser (734); see 2 K 15 29. Sennacherib was not the son of Shalmaneser (1 15), but of Sargon the Usurper. Moreover, the Tigris does not lie on the way from Nineveh to Echatana, as chs 6f imply.

(2) The prominence given to certain Jewish principles and practices makes it clear that the book was written on their account. See 1 3 ff. Tobit's integrity, his support of the Jerus sanctuary, his almsgiving, etc: (a) he buries the dead bodies of Jews; (b) he and his wife pray; (c) he teaches Tobias to keep the Law, give alms, etc. Note in particular the teaching of Raphael the angel (12 6 ff) and that contained in Tobit's song of praise

(ch 13). (3) The

(ch 13).

(3) The writer has borrowed largely from other sources, Bib. and non-Bib., and he shows no regard for correctness of facts so long as he succeeds in making the teaching clear and the tale interesting. The legend about the angel who pretended to be an orthodox Jew with a proper Jewish name and pedigree was taken from popular tradition and could hardly have been accepted by the writer as literally true.

For oral and written sources used by the author of Tob see the next section. A writer whose aim was to give an exact account of things which happened would hardly have gone to so many sources belonging to such different times, nor would he bring into one life events which in the sources belong to many lives (Job, etc).

The Book of Tob is dependent upon older sources, oral or written, more than is the case with most books in the Apoc. The following is

5. Some a brief statement of some of these: Sources (1) The Book of Job.—Besides belonging to the same general class of literature as Job, such as deals with the problem of suffering, Tob presents us with a man in whose career there are alternations of prosperity and adversity similar to those that meet us in Job. When Anna reproaches her husband for continuing to believe in a religion which fails him at the critical moment (Tob 2 14), we have probably to see a reflection of the similar incident in Job ("renounce God and die" [Job 2 9]).

(2) The Book of Sirach.—There are so many parallels between Sir and Tob that some kind of dependence seems quite clear. Take the following as typical: Both lay stress on the efficacy of almsgiving (4 11; 12 9; cf Sir 3 30; 29 12; 40 24). Both teach the same doctrine of Sheol as the abode of feelingless shades to which the good as well as the bad go (3 6.10; 13 2, cf Sir 46 19; 14 16; 17 28). The importance of interring the dead is insisted upon in both books (1 17; 2 3.7; 4 3 f; cf Sir 7 33; 30 18; 38 16). The same moral duties are emphasized: continued attention to Good and the life He enjoins (4 5 f.19; cf Sir 6 37; 8 8-14; 35 10; 37 2); chastity and the duty of marrying within one's own people (4 12 f; 8 6; cf Sir 7 26; 36 24); proper treatment of servants (4 14; cf Sir 7 20 f); the sin of covetousness (5 18 f; cf Sir 5); see more fully Speaker's Apoc, I, 161 f.

(3) The Ahikar legend.—We now know that the

story of Ahikar referred to in 14 10 existed in many forms and among many ancient nations. The substance of the legend is briefly that Ahikar was prime minister in Assyria under Sennacherib. Bein childless he adopted a boy Nadan (called "Aman in 14 10) and spared no expense or pains to establish him well in life. Upon growing up the young man turns out badly and squanders, not only his own money, but that of Ahikar. When rebuked and punished by the latter, he intrigues against his adoptive father and by false letters persuades the king that his minister is a traitor. Ahikar is condemned to death, but the executioner saves the fallen minister's life and conceals him in a cellar

below his (Aḥikar's) house. In a great crisis which unexpectedly arises the king expresses the wish that he had still with him his old and (as he thought) now executed minister. He is delighted to find after all that he is alive, and he loses no time in restoring him to his lost position, handing over to him Nadan for such punishment as he thinks fit.

for such punishment as he thinks fit.

There can be no doubt that the "Achiacharus" of Tob (Αχιάχαρος, Αchiácharos, 1 21 f; 2 10; 11 18; 14 10), a nephew of Tobit, is the Ahikar of the above story. George Hoffmann of Kiel (Δ'uszüge αus syrischen Akten persischer Martyrer) was the first to connect the Ahikar legend with the Achiacharus of Tob, though he believed that the story arose in the Middle Ages under the influence of Tob. Modern scholars, however, agree that the story is of heathen origin and of older date than Tob. Rendel Harris published a Syr VS of this legend together with an Intro and tr (Cambridge Press, 1898), but more important are the references to this tale in the papyri found at Elephantine and recently published by Eduard Sachau, Aram. Papyrus und Ostraka, (1911, 147 ff). This last proves that the tale is as old as 400 BC at least. For full bibliography on the subject (up to 1909) see Schürer, GJV', III, 256 ff. See also The Story of Akikar from the Syr, Arab., Armenian, Gr, Slavonic VSS by Conybeare, J. Rendel Harris and A. S. Lewis, 1898, and in particular Histoire et Sagesse d'Aḥikar, par François Nace, 1909.

(4) The occurrence in 14 10 of "Aman" for "Nadan" may show dependence upon Est, in which book Haman, prime minister and favorite of Ahasuerus (Xerxes, 485-464 BC) exhibits treachery comparable with that of Nadan. But Est seems to the present writer to have been written after and not before Tob (see Century Bible, "Esther," 299 ff). It is much more likely that a copyist substituted, perhaps unconsciously through mental association, the name Haman for that which stood originally in the text. Marshall (HDB, IV, 789) thinks that the author of Tob was acquainted with the Book of Jub, but he really proves no more than that both have many resemblances. In its angelology and demonology the Book of Jub is much more developed and belongs to a later date (about 100 BC; see R. H. Charles, Book of Jubilees, lvi ff, lviii ff). But the two writings have naturally much in common because both were written to express the sentiments of strict Jews living in the 2d cent. BC.

This book seems to reflect the Maccabean age, an age in which faithful Jews suffered for their religion. It is probable that Jth and Tob owe their origin to the same set of circumstances, the persecutions of the Jews by the Syrian party. The book belongs therefore to about 160 BC. The evidence is external and internal.

(1) External.—(a) 14 4–9 implies the existence of the Book of Jon and also the completion and recognition of the prophetic Canon (about 200 BC). (b) Since Sir is used as a source, that book must have been written, i.e. Tob belongs to a later date than say 180 BC. (c) The Christian Father Polycarp in 112 AD quotes from Tob, but there is no earlier allusion to the book. The external evidence proves no more than that Tob must have been written after 180 BC and before 112 AD.

(2) Internal.—(a) 14 5 f seems to show that Jon was written while the temple of Zerubbabel was in existence, but before this structure had been replaced by the gorgeous temple erected under Herod the Great: i.e. Tob was written before 25 BC. (b) The stress laid upon the burial of the dead suits well the period of the Syrian persecution, when we know Antiochus Epiphanes allowed Jewish corpses to lie about unburied. (c) We have in Tob and Jth the same zeal for the Jewish Law and its observance which in a special degree marked the Maccabean age. Nöldeke and Löhr (Kautzsch, Apok. des AT, 136) argue for a date about 175 BC, on the ground that in Tob there is an absence of that fervent zeal for Judaism and that hatred of men and

things non-Jewish which one finds in books written during the Maccabean wars. But we know for certain that when the Maccabean enthusiasm was at its height there existed all degrees of fervor among the Jews, and it would be a strange thing if all the literature of the time represented but one phase of the national life.

We have no means of ascertaining who wrote this book, for the ascription of the authorship to Tobit

(1 1 ff) is but a literary device. There

7. Place of are, however, data which help in fixing Composition the nationality of the writer and the country in which he lived. That the author was a Jew is admitted by all, for no other than a Jew could have shown such a deep interest in Jewish things and in the fortunes of the Jewish nation. Moreover, the fact that Tobit, though a member of the Northern Kingdom, is represented as worshipping at the Jerus temple and observing the feasts there (1 4–7) makes it probable that the author was a member of the Southern Kingdom wishing to glorify the religion of his country.

That he did not live in Pal is suggested by several considerations: (1) The book describes the varying fortunes of Jews in exile so completely and with such keen sympathy as to suggest that the writer was himself one of them. (2) The affectionate language in which he refers to Jerus and its religious associations (1 4 ff) is such as a member of the Diaspora would use. (3) The author nowhere reveals a close personal knowledge of Pal. That Tobit, the ostensible author (1 1), should be set forth as a native of Galilee (1 1 f) is due to the art of the writer.

Assuming that the book was written in a foreign land, opinions differ as to which. The evidence seems to favor either Persia or Egypt. In favor of Persia is the Pers background of the book. Asmodeus (3 8.17) is the Pers Aēšma daeva. The duty of burying the dead is suggested to the Jewish writer by the Pers (Zoroastrian) habit of exposing dead bodies on the "Tower of Silence" to be eaten by birds. Consanguineous marriages are forbidden in the Pent (see Lev 18 6 ff); but they are favored by Tob 19; 315; 412; 74. The latter seems to show that Tobias and Sarah whom he married were first cousins. Marriages between relatives were common among the Iranians and were defended by the magicians as a religious duty. One may say it was allowed in the particular case in question on account of the special circumstances, the fewness of Jews in the parts where the families of Tobit and Raguel lived; cf Nu 36 4 ff for another special case. The fact that a dog is made to accompany Tobias on his journey to Ecbatana (5 17; 11 4) favors a Pers origin, but is so repugnant to Sem ideas that it is omitted from the Heb VSS of this story (see Dog). For an elaborate defence of a Pers origin of Tob see J. H. Moulton, Expos T, XI, 157 ff; cf H. Maldwyn Hughes, The Ethics of Jewish Apocryphal Literature, 42 ff. The evidence is not decisive; for a knowledge of Iranian modes of thought and expression may be possessed by persons living far away from Iranian territory. And at some points Tob teaches things contrary to Zoroastrianism. Nöldeke and Löhr hold that the book was composed in Egypt, referring to the facts that the demon Asmodeus on being overcome flees to Egypt (8 3) and that there were Jews in Egypt who remained loyal to their ancestral faith and were nevertheless promoted to high places in the state. The knowledge of Mesopotamia shown by the author is so defective (see 4, above) that a Mesopotamian origin for the book cannot be conceived of.

Tob exists in an unusually large number of MSS and VSS showing that the book was widely read and regarded as important. But what is peculiar in the case of this book is that its contents differ largely—and not seldom in quite essential matters—in the various MSS, texts and trope (see 3, above).

Tob has come down to us in the following languages:

(1) Greek.—MSS of the Gr text belong to three classes:
(a) that found in the uncials BA (which are almost identical) and most Gr MSS; our Eng. and other modern to are made from this; (b) that of & which deviates from (a) often in important matters. The old Lat tallies with this very closely; (c) that of Codd. 44, 106 and 107 (adopting the numbers of Holmes and Parsons), which largely coincides with (b). From 7 10 onward this text forms the basis of the Syr (Pesh) VS. Opinions differ as to which of these three Gr texts is the oldest. Fritzsche, Nöldeke and Grimm defend the priority of BA. In favor of this are the following: This text exists in the largest number of MSS and tre; it is most frequently quoted by the Fathers and other early writers; it is less diffuse and more spontaneous, showing less editorial manipulation. Ewald, Reusch, Schürer, Nestle and J. Rendel Harris hold that & represents the oldest Gr text. Schürer (GJV, III, 243) gives the principal arguments for this view (cf Fuller, Speaker's Comm., I, 168 f). Is much fuller than BA. Condensation (cf BA) is much more likely, Fuller and Schürer say, than expansion (N); but this is questioned. In some cases N preserves an admittedly better text, which is of course true often of the LXX and even the minor VSS as against the MT.

(2) Latin.—(a) The Old Lat based on K found in (a) the editions published in 1751 by Sabbathier (Bib. Sac. Lat VSS Antia); (b) in the Book of Tob (A. Neubauer, 1878). This text exists in at least three recensions. (b) The Vulg, which simply reproduces Jerome's careless trade in a single night; see (3). In Jth and Tob the Vulg is in every respect identical with its tr made by Jerome.

(3) Aremaic (a term which strictly embraces Syr).—

yung is mevery respect identical with its tr made by Jerome.

(3) Aramaic (a term which strictly embraces Syr).—
(a) That from which Jerome's Jewish help made the Heb that formed the basis of Jerome's Lat VS. We have no copy of this (see next section). (b) That published by Neubauer (Book of Tob; a Chaldee Text) which was found by him imbedded in a Jewish Midr of the 15th cent. Neubauer was convinced and tried to prove that this is the VS which Jerome's teacher put into Heb and which therefore formed the basis of Jerome's own VS. In favor of this is the fact that in chs 1-36, and therefore throughout the book, Tob is spoken of in the third person alike in this Aram. (Chaldee) VS and in Jerome's Lat tr; whereas in all the other VSS (cf chs 1-36) Tob speaks in the first person ("I," etc). But the divergences between this Aram and Jerome's Lat VSS are numerous and important, and Neubauer's explanations are inadequate (op. cit., vi ff). Besides, Dalman (Grammatik des jüd.-palest. Aram., 1894, 27-29) proves from the language that this VS belongs to the 7th cent. AD or to a later time.

(4) Syriac.—The text of this VS was first printed in

des jūd.-palest. Aram., 1894, 27-29) proves from the language that this VS belongs to the 7th cent. AD or to a later time.

(4) Syriac.—The text of this VS was first printed in the London Polyglot (vol IV) and in a critically revised form in the Lib. Apoc. Vet. Test. Syr. of Lagarde. This text consists of parts of two different VSS. The Hexaplar text based on the usual MSS (BA, etc.) is used from 11—79. From 710 onward the text corresponds closely with the Gr. N. and Plesp. in parts, with the MSS 44, 106, 107. See fully Schürer, GJV', 244 ff.

(5) Hebrew.—None of the Heb recensions are old. Two Heb texts of Tob have been known since the 16th cent., having been printed then and often afterward. Both are to be found in the London Polyglot. (a) That known as Hebraeus Munster, though it had also been printed in 1516 at Constantinople. (b) That known as Hebraeus Fagius published it in 1542. It had, however, been previously published, i.e. in Constantinople in 1517. HF introduces Bib. phraseology wherever possible. Since these are comparatively late tre they have but little critical value, and the same statement applies to the two following Heb tre discovered, edited and tre by Dr. M. Gaster (see PSBA, XVIII, 204 ff, 259 ff; XIX, 27 ff): (a) A Heb MS found in the British Museum and designated by him HL. This MS agrees with the Vulg and Aram. at some points where the other authorities differ, and Dr. Gaster thinks it not unlikely that in HL we have a copy of the original text. He has not been followed by any scholar in this opinion. (b) Dr. Gaster copied some years ago from a Heb Midr. apparently no longer existing, a condensed Heb VS (HG) of Tob. Like HL it agrees often with the Vulg and Aram. against other VSS and MSS.

(6) Ethiopic.—Dillmann has issued the ancient Ethiopic VSS in his Biblia Veteris Testamenti Aethiopica, V, 1894.

The majority of modern scholars, who have a better knowledge of Sem than the older scholars, hold that the original text of Tob was 9. Original Sem (Aram. or Heb); so Ewald, Hilgen-feld, Graetz, Neubauer, Bickell, Fuller (Speaker's Apoc), Marshall (HDB). In favor of this are the following considerations: (1) The existence of an Aram. text in Jerome's day (see [3], (2) The proper names in the book, male

TOHU, tō'hū. See NAHATH. and female, have a Sem character. (3) The style of TOI, tō'ī, -i. See Tou.

the writer is Sem rather than Aryan, many of the expressions making bad Gr, but when turned into Sem yielding good Aram or Heb. See the arguments as set out by Fuller (Speaker's Apoc, I, 164 ff). Marshall (HDB, III, 788) gives his reasons for concluding that the original language was Aram... not Heb, in this opinion following Neubauer (op. cit.). Graetz (Monatsschrift für Geschichte und Wissenschaft der Juden, 1879, 386 ff) gives his grounds for deciding for a Heb original. That the book was written in Gr is the view upheld by Fritzsche, Nöldeke, W. R. Smith, Schürer and Löhr. The text of BA, says Löhr, contains Gr of the most idiomatic kind, and gives no suggestion of being a translation.

kind, and gives no suggestion of being a translation.

LITERATURE.—Much of the best literature has been cited in the course of the preceding article. See also "Literature" in art. APOCRYPHA, for text, comms., etc. and the Bible Dicts., EB (W. Erbt) and HDB (J. T. Marshall). Note in addition the following: K. D. Ilgen, Die Geschichte Tobias, nach den drei verschiedenen Originalen, Griechisch, Lateinisch u. Syr., etc., 1800; Ewald, Gesch. 19. (269–74; Graetz, Gesch. 19. 14, 466 ff; Nöldeke, "Die Texte des Buchs Tob," Monaisschrift der Berlin Acad., 1879, 45 ff; Elickell, "A Source of the Book of Tob," Athenaeum, 1890, 700 ff; 1891, 123 ff; I. Abrahams, "Tobit's Dog," Jewish Quarterly Review, I. 3, 288; E. Cosquin, "Le livre de Tobie et l'histoire du sage Ahikar," Rev. Bib. Int., VIII, 1899, 50–82, 510–31, rejects R. Harris' views; Margarete Plath, "Zum Buch Tob," Stud. und Krit., 1901, 377–414; I. Levi, "La langue originale de Tob," Rev. Juive, XLIV, 1902, 288–91, Oxford Apocrypha, "Tobit" (full bibliography). raphy).

T. WITTON DAVIES
TOCHEN, tō'ken (15th, tōkhen, "task," "meas-TOCHEN, to ken (1/21), toknen, task, measure"; B, Θόκκα, Thókka, A, Θόχχαν, Thóchchan):
One of the cities of Simeon, mentioned with Rimmon and Ashan (1 Ch 4 32). The name does not appear in Joshua's list (19 7), but in that place LXX gives Thokka, from which we may infer that the name has fallen out in the Heb. It is not identi-

TOGARMAH, tö-gär'ma (הוֹנֶרְמָה, הוֹנֶרְמָה, tōgharmāh; Θοργαμά, Thorgamá, Θεργαμά, Thergamá, Θυργαμά, Thurgamá, Θυργαβά, Thur-1. Its gabá; Vulg Thorgoma): The 3d son of Gomer, and grandson of Japheth, Forms: A his brothers being Ashkenaz and Riphath (Gen 10 3). The meaning of the name is doubtful. Grimm (Gesch. deutsch. Sprache, II, 325) suggests the control of the name and arma = Armenia. Etypology. Suggested Identification Sanskr. toka, Sanskr. toka, "tribe," and arma = Armenia. Etymological and other difficulties stand in the way of Fr. Delitzsch's identification of Togarmah with the Assyr Til-garimmu, "hill of Garimmu," or, possibly, "of the bone-heap," a fortress of Melitene, on the borders of Tabal (Tubal).

In Ezk 27 14 Togarmah is mentioned after Tubal,

Javan and Mesech as supplying horses and mules to the Tyrians, and in 38 6 it is said 2. Probably to have supplied soldiers to the army Armenia or of Gog (Gyges of Lydia). In the Assyr inscriptions horses came from Kûsu (neighborhood of Cappadocia), a Tract Connected Andia and Mannu, to the N. of Assyria. Both Kiepert and Dillmann regard Therewith

Togarmah as having been Southeastern Armenia. and this is at present the general opinion. The ancient identification of their country with Togarmah by the Armenians, though correct, is probably due to the LXX transposition of g and r (Thorgamá for Togarmah), which has caused them to see therein the name of Thorgom, father of Haik, the founder of their race (Moses of Khor, I, 4, secs. 9-11). Ezk 27 14 (Swete) alone has g before r: Θαιγραμά, Thai-gramá. The name "Armenia" dates from the 5th cent. BC. See Armenia; Table of Nations. T. G. Pinches

TOKEN, tō'k'n (מֹלֹת, 'ōth, usually rendered "sign" [on Dt 22 14 ff see the comms.]): "Sign" and "token" are virtually synonymous words and in AV are used with little or no distinction (in Ex 13, cf vs 9 and 16). If there is any difference, "token" is perhaps more concrete and palpable than "sign," but this difference cannot be stressed. The modern use of "token," however, as a "memo-The modern use of "token," however, as a "memorial of something past" is found in Nu 17 10; Josh 21 22 12. RV has substituted "sign" in Ex 13 16; Ps 135 9; Isa 44 25, and ARV has "evidence" in Job 21 29 (a needlessly prosaic change). The four NT examples, Mk 14 44; Phil 1 28; 2 Thess 15; 3 17 (each for a different Gr word) are selfexplanatory. See Sign.

BURTON SCOTT EASTON TOKHATH, tok'hath. See TIKVAH.

TOLA, tō'la (הּוֹלֶע, ''worm'' or ''scarlet stuff"):

(1) One of the four sons of Issachar (Gen 46 13; 1 Ch 7 1), mentioned among those who journeyed to Egypt with Jacob (Gen 46 8 f), and in the census taken by Moses and Eleazar, as father of the Tolaites (Nu 26 23) whose descendants in the reign of David included 22,600 "mighty men of valor" (1 Ch 7 2).

(2) One of the Judges, the son of Puah, a man of Issachar. He dwelt in the hill country of Ephraim in the village of Shamir, where after judging Israel 23 years he was buried (Jgs 10 1.2). In the order of succession he is placed between Abimelech and Jair. It is interesting to note that both Tola and Puah are names of colors, and that they occur together both in the case of the judge and in that of the sons of Issachar. They may therefore be looked upon as popular typical or ancestral names of the Issachar tribe, although current critical theories seek an explanation in a confusion of texts. Ella Davis Isaacs

TOLAD, tō'lad. See ELTOLAD. TOLAITES, tō'la-īts. See Tola.

TOLBANES, tol'ba-nēz, tol-bā'nēz (Τολβάνης, Tolbanēs): One of the porters who had taken foreign wives (1 Esd 9 25) = "Telem" of Ezr 10 24; perhaps identical with the porter Talmon (Neh 12 25).

TOLL, tōl: (1) Aram. מְלָּה, middāh, "toll" or "tribute" paid by a vassal nation to its conqueror (Ezr 4 20; 6 8; Neh 5 4); written also אַבְּלְבָּוֹדָם, mindāh (Ezr 4 13; 7 24). More accurately for אָבָּלְ, hălākh, "toll," or "way tax" (4 13.20; 7 24). In NT times the Romans had placed throughout Pal many toll stations (τελώνιον, telônion). Levi the publican was stationed at such a tax office (Mt une publican was stationed at such a tax office (Mt 99; Mk 214; Lk 527); cf $\tau \epsilon \lambda \dot{\omega} \eta \eta$, $t \epsilon l \partial n \bar{\epsilon} s$, a "tax collector" or "publican." The tax which the Jews paid toward the support of the temple, a didrachma, is called $\tau \epsilon \lambda o s$, 'toll" (Mt 1725), the same as the word rendered "tribute" (Rom 137). EDWARD BAGBY POLLARD

TOMB, toom. See Burial.

TOMORROW, too-mor'o. See Morrow.

TONGS, tongz (בְּלְקְתִּים, melkāhayim): This word is, where it occurs in AV and ERV, with two exceptions, changed in ARV into "snuffers" (Ex 25 38; Nu 4 9; 2 Ch 4 21; see SNUFFERS). The exceptions are 1 K 7 49, "tongs of gold," and Isa 6 6, "taken with the tongs from off the altar."

In Isa 44 12, where another word (מַלְעַבֶּד), ma'acadh) is used, "the smith with the tongs" of AV is changed in RV into "the smith maketh an axe" (cf Jer 10 3). See also Altar; Tools.

TONGUE, tung: Almost invariably for either לְשׁוֹלְן, lāshōn, or γλῶσσα, glōssa, the latter word with the cognates έτερδγλωσσος, heteróglōssos, "of strange the cognates ἐτερόγλωσσος, heteróglōssos, "of strange tongues" (1 Cor 14 21), γλωσσώθης, glōssôdēs, "talkative," ΕΥ "full of tongue" (Sir 8 3; 9 18), γλωσσούθης, glōssotomēō, "to cut out the tongue" (2 Macc 7 4), δίγλωσσος, díglōssos, "double-tongued" (Sir 5 9; 28 13). In 1 Tim 3 8, however, "double-tongued" is for δίλογος, dílogos, lit. "two-worded." Where "tongue" in AV translates διάλεκτος, diálektos (Acts 1 19; 2 8; 21 40; 22 2; 26 14), RV has "language," while for AV "in the Hebrew tongue" in Jn 5 2; Rev 9 11; 16 16 (Εβραϊστί, Hebrαϊstí) RV has simply "in Hebrew." In addition, in the OT and Apoc, AV uses "to hold In addition, in the OT and Apoc, AV uses "to hold one's tongue" as a tr for various verbs meaning "to be silent"; RV in the OT writes "to hold one's peace" and in the Apoc "to be silent," except in Sir 32 8, where AV is retained (σωπάω, siδράδ).

The various uses of "tongue" in Eng. are all possible also for $l\bar{a}sh\bar{o}n$ and $gl\bar{o}ssa$, whether as the physical organ (Ex 11 7; Mk 7 33, etc) or as meaning "language" (Gen 10 5; Acts 2 4, etc) or as describing anything shaped like a tongue or as describing anything shaped like a tongue (Isa 11 15; Acts 2 3, etc). In addition, both words, esp. lāshōn, appear in a wider range of meanings than can be taken by "tongue" in modern Eng. So the tongue appears as the specific organ of speech, where we should prefer "mouth" or "lips" (Ex 4 10; Ps 71 24; 78 36; Prov 16 1; Phil 2 11, etc), and hence "tongue" is used figuratively for the words uttered (Job 6 30; Ps 139 4; 1·Jn 3 18, etc). So the tongue can be said to have moral qualities (Ps 109 2; Prov 15 4, etc) or to be "glad" (Acts 2 26); to "love with the tongue" (1 Jn 3 18) is to love in word only, and to be "double-tongued" (Sir 5 9; 28 13; 1 Tim 3 8) is to be a liar. A further expansion of this figurative use has produced expressions that sound slightly tive use has produced expressions that sound slightly bizarre in Eng., although their meaning is clear enough: e.g., "Who have whet their tongue like a sword" (Ps 64 3); "His tongue is as a devouring fire" (Isa 30 27); "My tongue is the pen of a ready writer" (Ps 45 1), and, esp., "Their tongue walketh through the earth" (Ps 73 9).

In Job 20 12, "Though wickedness be sweet in his mouth though he hide it under his tongue" the

his mouth, though he hide it under his tongue," the figure is that of an uncultured man rolling a choice morsel around in his mouth so as to extract the utmost flavor. In Ps 10 7; 66 17 (RVm), however, "under the tongue" means "in readiness to utter," while in Cant 4 11, "Honey and milk are under thy tongue," the pleasure of a caress is described. To "divide their tongue" (Ps 56 9) is to visit on offenders the punishment of Babel. See Tongues, Confusion of.

Burton Scott Easton

TONGUES, tungz, CONFUSION OF: According to Gen 11 1-9, at some time not very long after the Flood, "the whole earth was of 1. The one language and of one speech. And Narrative it came to pass, as they journeyed east" (the "they" is left vague) that they settled in the land of Shinar (Babylonia). There they undertook to build "a city, and a tower, whose top may reach unto heaven," using the Bab burned brick and "slime" as building materials. The motive was to "make us a name; lest we be scattered abroad upon the face of the whole earth. This seems to mean that the buildings would give them a reputation for impregnability that would

secure them against devastating invasions. "And Jeh came down to see." And He said, "Nothing will be withholden from them, which they purpose to do. Come, let us go down, and there confound their language." The persons spoken to are not named (cf Gen 1 26; 3 22), nor is it explained how Jeh, who in ver 5 was on earth, is now in heaven. "So Jeh scattered them abroad from thence," and the name of the city was "called Babel [bābhel]; because Jeh did there confound [bālal] the language of all the earth: and from thence did Jeh scatter them abroad upon the face of all the earth."

The purpose of this narrative is the explanation of the diversity of human languages. They originated through an act of Jeh, in order to destroy the presumptuous designs of the first builders of Babylon.

presumptuous designs of the first builders of Babylon.

The section admittedly belongs to J and it has no connection with the matter (mostly P) in Gen 10. For ch 10 explains the origin of the nations "every one after his tongue, after their families" (vs 5.20.31) as due to the orderly migration and gradual spreading of the sons and descendants of Noah, and names Nimrod (ver 10) as the sole founder of Babylon. Nor does 11 1-9 logically continue the J matter in ch 9, as too many persons are involved for the time immediately following the Flood. Still, it is quite possible that some J matter was dropped when the J and P sources were united at this point. Another possibility is to see in Gen 11 1-9 the continuation of Gen 4 16-24, which it carries on smoothly, with the same distrust of human culture. The murderer Cain went to the E. of Eden (4 16), and his descendants brought in the knowledge of the various arts (4 20-22). These descendants journeyed still farther to the E. (11 2), attempted to use their skill in building the tower and were punished by the balai catastrophe. No account of the Deluge could have followed, for all the diversities of languages would have been wiped away by that event.

This assumption of a stecial, early source within J

versities of languages would have been wiped away by that event.

This assumption of a special, early source within J probably best explains the facts. It is indicated by the very primitive, naïve theology, which is much less developed than that of J as a whole. And the obscure relation of Gen II 1-9 to the Flood narrative is accounted for, for two narratives were combined here, one of which contained an account of the Deluge, while the other did not.

By using the repeated "going dawn" of vs 5.7 as a clue.

or which contained an account of the Deluge, while the other did not.

By using the repeated "going down" of vs 5.7 as a clue, the section can be resolved fairly easily into two narratives, e.g. (1) The men build a tower, "whose top may reach unto heaven," in order to make a name for themselves as marvelous builders. Jeh, seeing the work beginning and "lest nothing be withholden from them," etc, goes down and confounds their language.

(2) The men build a city, as a defensive measure, "lest we be scattered abroad on the face of the whole earth." Jeh goes down to see and scatters them abroad. For other analyses see the comms. But they are hardly imperative. For (2) gives no motive for Jeh's action, while "city" and "tower," "confusion of tongues" and "scattering," are complementary rather than parallel terms. The supposition that a few words describing Jeh's return to heaven have disappeared somewhere from yer 6 relieves the awkwardness.

The "historicity" of the paraetive will be unbelded."

The "historicity" of the narrative will be upheld by very few persons of the present day. languages began to diverge (if, indeed there ever was such a thing as a primi-4. His-

tive language) tens, if not hundreds, of thousands of years before the buildtoricity ing of Babylon and long before human beings had attained enough skill to erect the most rudimentary structures, let alone such an elaborate affair as the brick-built city and tower of Babel. And what is true of languages as a whole is equally true of the languages spoken in the vicinity of Pal. If Egyp, Hittite, and the Sem group have any common point of origin, it lies vastly back of the time and cultural conditions presupposed in Gen 11 1-9. It is needless to enlarge on this, but for the harm done by a persistent clinging to the letter of the narrative, White's History of the Warfare of Science with Theology may be consulted. It belonged to the genius of the Hebrews to seek religious explanations of the things around them. And such an explanation of the origin of languages is the content of Gen 11 1-9.

This explanation seems, as yet, to be without parallel, for the tr of the fragmentary British

Museum Inscription K 3657 is en
5. Sources tirely uncertain. Indeed, legends as to how the differences of human speech began seem to be extremely scanty everywhere, as if the question were not one that occupied the minds of primitive people. Comparative folklore still has much work to do as regards this special topic (for a few references see Enc Brit, 11th ed, art. "Babel," and Gunkel, Genesis3, in loc.). The other features of the narrative, however, are without great significance. Buildings that were unfinished because the builders offended the gods are fairly abundant, and it is quite possible that the writer of Gen 11 1-9 had some particular Bab structure in mind (see Babel, Tower of). Nor are attempts of men to climb into heaven difficult to conceive, when the sky is thought of (as it nearly always was until comparatively modern times) as a material dome. So Gr Bar (3 6 f) specifies that they "built the tower to the height of 463 cubits. And they took a gimlet, and sought to pierce the heaven, saying, Let us see whether the heaven is made of clay, or of brass, or of iron." Closely parallel to the Babel story is the Gr legend of the giants, who piled Pelion on Ossa in their attempt to storm the dwelling of the gods, and, as a matter of fact, the two accounts seem to be combined in Sib Or 3 97-104.

Whether aided by a tradition about some particular Bab tower or not, the localization of the story in Babylonia was inevitable. The Babylonians, above all nations in the world, relied on their wisdom and their skill, and so nowhere but in Babylon would this supreme presumption have been possible. Babylon, the embodiment of pride, at the very beginning of her existence was guilty of an act of pride so overwhelming as to call out God's vengeance. The "folk-etymology" bābhel-bālal (in Aram. bābhel-balbēl) may have been suggested by this story, or (perhaps more probably) it may have originated separately, perhaps at first as a piece of deliberate irony. Certainly the many languages that could be heard in Babylon were not without significance for the story.

The religious value of the story is dimmed for the modern reader because of the very primitive concepts that it contains. The men

concepts that it contains. The men 6. Religious are able to build up into heaven. In Value order to see what they are doing Jeh is obliged to "come down." He is obliged to take action lest His dwelling-place be invaded (cf Gen 3 22). And the "let us go down." of ver 7, while certainly not polytheistic, is equally certainly a polytheistic "remnant." On the other hand, it is to be noted that God's power is never in question and that there is no desperate and uncertain battle as in the Gr legend. Important, also (and often overlooked), is the realization that God's power is just as active in Babylon as it is in Pal. The primal meaning to the Israelite, however, was this: In Babylon was seen the greatest enemy of the people of God, possessing immeasurable resources. Humanly speaking, there were no limits to this power, and if it had been uncontrolled at the beginning, all the world would have been overwhelmed with the rule of evil. This God had prevented.

LITERATURE.—Driver in *HDB*; Cheyne (art. "Babel, Tower of") in *EB*; the comms. on Gen, esp. those of Skinner, Driver, Procksch, and Gunkel.

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TONGUES, GIFT OF: A spiritual gift mentioned in Acts 10 44-46; 11 15; 19 6; Mk 16 17, and described in Acts 2 1-13 and at length in 1 Cor 12-14, esp. ch 14. In fact, 1 Cor 14 contains

such a full and clear account that this passage is The speaker in a tongue addressed God basic.

(vs 2.28) in prayer (ver 14), principally in the prayer of thanksgiving (vs 15-17). The words so uttered 1. Basic Character of 1 Cor 14 were incomprehensible to the congrega-

tion (vs 2.5.9, etc), and even to the speaker himself (ver 14). Edification, indeed, was gained by the speaker (ver 4), but this was the edification of emotional experience only (ver 14). The words were spoken "in the spirit" (ver 2); i.e. the ordinary faculties were suspended and the Divine, specifically Christian, element in the man took control, so that a condition of ecstasy was produced. This immediate (mystical) contact with the Divine enabled the utterance of "mysteries" (ver 2)—things hidden from the ordinary human understanding (see MYSTERY). In order to make the utterances comprehensible to the congrega-tion, the services of an "interpreter" were needed. Such a man was one who had received from God a special gift as extraordinary as the gifts of miracles, healings, or the tongues themselves (12 10.30); i.e. the ability to interpret did not rest at all on natural knowledge, and acquisition of it might be given in answer to prayer (14 13). Those who had this gift were known, and St. Paul allowed the public exercise of "tongues" only when one of the interpreters was present (ver 28). As the presence of an interpreter was determined before anyone spoke, and as there was to be only one interpreter for the "two or three" speakers (ver 28), any in-terpreter must have been competent to explain any tongue. But different interpreters did not always agree (ver 26), whence the limitation to one.

These characteristics of an interpreter make it clear that "speaking in a tongue" at Corinth was not normally felt to be speaking in a

foreign language. In ver 10 EV is 2. Foreign Languages misleading with "there are, it may be, Barred Out so many kinds of voices in the world,"

which suggests that St. Paul is referring directly to the tongues. But tosaúta there should be rendered "very many," "ever so many," and the verse is as purely illustrative as is ver 7. Hence foreign languages are to be barred out. (Still, this need not mean that foreign phrases may not occasionally have been employed by the speakers, or that at times individuals may not have made elaborate use of foreign languages. But such cases were not normative at Corinth.) Consequently, if "tongues" means "languages," entirely new languages must be thought of. Such might have been of many kinds (12 28), have been regarded as a fit creation for the conveyance of new truths, and may even at times have been thought to be celestial languages—the "tongues of angels" (13 1). On the other hand, the word for "tongue" (glôssa) is of fairly common use in Gr to designate obsolete or incomprehensible words, and, specifically, for the obscure phrases uttered by an oracle. This use is closely parallel to the use in Corinth and may be its source, although then it would be more natural if the "ten thousand words in a tongue" of 14 19 had read "ten thousand glössai." In no case, however, can "tongue" mean simply the physical organ, for 14 18.19 speaks of articulated words and uses the pl. "tongues" for a single speaker (cf vs 5.6).

A complete explanation of the tongues is given by the phenomena of ecstatic utterances, esp. when

taken in connection with the history of NT times. In ecstasy the soul feels 3. A State itself so suffused with the Divine that of Ecstasy the man is drawn above all natural modes of perception (the understanding becomes "unfruitful"), and the religious nature alone is felt to be active. Utterances at such times naturally become altogether abnormal. If the words remain coherent, the speaker may profess to be uttering revelations, or to be the mere organ of the Divine voice. Very frequently, however, what is said is quite incomprehensible, although the speaker seems to be endeavoring to convey something. In a still more extreme case the voice will be inarticulate, uttering only groans or outcries. At the termination of the experience the subject is generally unconscious of all that has transpired.

nation of the experience the subject is generally unconscious of all that has transpired.

For the state, cf Philo, Quis rerum. divin., Il-ilii.249-66: "The best [ectassy] of all is a Divinely infused rapture and 'mania,' to which the race of the prophets is subject. . . . The wise man is a sounding instrument of God's voice, being struck and played upon invisibly by Him. . . . As long as our mind still shines lis active] we are not possessed [by God] but . . . when the Divine light shines, the human light sets. . . The prophet . . . is passive, and another [God] makes use of his vocal organs." Cf, further, the descriptions of Celsus (Origen, Contra Cels., vii. 9), who describes the Christian "prophets" of his day as preaching as if God or Christ were speaking through them, closing their words with "strange, fanatical, and quite unintelligible words, of which no rational person can find the meaning." The Gr papyri furnish us with an abundance of magical formulae couched in unintelligible terms (e.g. Pap. Lond., 121, "Loo, eloai, marmarakada, menepho, mermai, icor, aeio, erephie, pherephio," etc), which are not infrequently connected with an ecstatic state (e.g. Reitzenstein, Poimandres, 53-58).

Interpretation of the utterances in such a state would always be difficult and diversities of interpretation would be unavoidable. Still, with a fixed content, such as the Christian religion gave, and with the aid of gestures, etc., men who felt that they had an understanding of such conditions could undertake to explain them to the congregation. It is to be noted, however, that St. Paul apparently does not feel that the gift of interpretation is much to be relied on, for otherwise he would have appraised the utility of tongues more highly than he does. But the popularity of tongues in Corinth is easily understood. The speaker was felt to be taken into the closest of unions with God and hence to be an especial object of God's favor. Indeed, the occurrence of the phenomenon in a neo-convert was irrefragab

The account in Acts 2 differs from that of 1 Cor 14 in making the tongues foreign languages, although the ability to use such languages is

4. The Acnot said to have become a permanent count in apostolic endowment. (Nor is it said Acts 2 that the speech of Acts 2 14-36 was

delivered in more than one language.) When the descent of the Spirit occurred, those who were assembled together were seized with ecstasy and uttered praises to God. A crowd gathered and various persons recognized words and phrases in their own tongues; nothing more than this is said. That the occasion was one where a miracle would have had unusual evidential value is evident, and those who see a pure miracle in the account have ample justification for their position. But no more than a providential control of natural forces need be postulated, for similar phenomena are abundantly evidenced in the history of religious experience. At times of intense emotional stress the memory acquires abnormal power, and persons may repeat words and even long passages in a foreign language, although they may have heard them only Now the situation at Jerus at the time of the Feast gave exactly the conditions needed, for then there were gathered pilgrims from all countries, who recited in public liturgical passages (esp. the Shemoneh 'Esreh' in their own languages. These, in part, the apostles and the "brethren" simply reproduced. Incomprehensible words and phrases may well have been included also (Acts 2 13), but for the dignity of the apostles and for the importance of Pentecost St. Luke naturally cared to emphasize only the more unusual side and that with the greatest evidential value. It is urged, to be sure, that this interpretation contradicts the account in 1 Cor 14. But it does so only on the assumption that the tongues were always uniform in their manifestation and appraisement everywhere—and the statement of this assumption is its own refutation. If the modern history of ecstatic utterances has any bearing on the Apostolic age, the speaking in foreign languages could not have been limited only to Pentecost. (That, however, it was as common as the speaking in new "languages" would be altogether unlikely.) But both varieties St. Luke may well have known in his own experience.

St. Paul's treatment of the tongues in 1 Cor 12-14 is a classical passage for the evaluation of religious emotionalism. Tongues are a 5. Religious Divine gift, the exercise is not to be forbidden (14 39), and St. Paul himself is grateful that he has the gift in Emotionalism an uncommon degree (14 18). Indeed, to those who treat them simply with scorn they become a "sign" that hardening is taking place (14 21-23). Yet a love of them because they are showy is simply childish (14 20; 13 11), and the possessor of the gift is not to think that he has the only thing worth obtaining (ch 12). The only gift that is utterly indispensable is love (ch 13), and without it tongues are mere noise (13 1). The without it tongues are mere noise (13 1). public evidential value of tongues, on which perhaps the Corinthians were inclined to lay stress, St. Paul rates very low (14 21-23). Indeed, when exercised in public they tend to promote only the self-glorification of the speaker (14 4), and so are forbidden when there is not an interpreter, and they are limited for public use at all times (14 27. 28). But the ideal place for their exercise is in private: "Let him speak to himself, and to God" (14 28). The applicability of all this to modern conditions needs no commentary. Ultra-emotionalistic outbreaks still cause the formation of eccentric sects among us, and every evangelist knows well-meaning but slightly weak individuals who make themselves a nuisance. On the other hand, a purely intellectual and ethical religion is rather a dreary thing. A man who has never allowed his religious emotions to carry him away may well be in a high state of grace—but he has missed something, and something of very great value. See also Spiritual Gifts; Tongues of Fire.

SPIRITUAL GIFTS; TONGUES OF FIRE.

LITERATURE.—Plumptre in DB is still useful. Wright, Same NT Problems (1898), and Walker, The Gift of Tongues and Other Essays (1906), have collections of material. Of the comms. on I Cor those of Heinrici (latest ed. 1896), Lietzmann (1907) and J. Weiss (1910) are much the best, far surpassing Robertson and Plummer in ICC (1911). For the Gr material, see *earaars in the index of Rhode's Psyche. Gunkel, Die Wirkungen des heiligen Geistes (1888, 2d reprint in 1909), was epoch-making. For the later period, see Weinel, Die Wirkungen des Geistes und der Geister (1899); Lake, The Earlier Epistles of St. Paul (London, 1911); and see Inge in The Quarterly Review (London, 1914).

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TONGUES, INTERPRETATION, in-tûr-prétā/shun, OF. See Spiritual Gifts; Tongues,
Gift of.

TONGUES OF FIRE (γλῶσσαι ὡσεὶ πυρός, glōssai hōsei purós): The reference in this topic is to the marvelous gift of the Holy Spirit on the Day of Pentecost (Acts 2 1-13). After His resurrection the Lord bade His disciples to tarry in Jerus until He should fulfil to them the promise of the Father, and until they should be clothed with power from on high (Lk 24 49). Acts 1 8 repeats the same gracious promise with additional particulars: "But ye shall receive power, when the Holy Spirit is come upon you: and ye shall be my witnesses both in Jerus, and in all Judaea and

Samaria, and unto the uttermost part of the earth." These were probably the last words Our Lord spoke on earth before He ascended to the right hand of God.

When the Day of Pentecost was fully come and the disciples, no doubt by previous arrangement and with one accord, were gathered together in one place, the promise was gloriously fulfilled. On that day, the Manifestations first day of the week, the Lord's day, the Spirit of God descended upon

them in marvelous copiousness and power. The gift of the Spirit was accompanied by extraordinary manifestations or phenomena. These were three and were supernatural. His coming first appealed to the ear. The disciples heard a from heaven," which rushed with mighty force into the house and filled it even as the storm rushes, but there was no wind. It was the sound that filled the house, not a wind. It was an invisible cause producing audible effects. Next, the eye was arrested by the appearance of tongues of fire which rested on each of the gathered company. Our AV "cloven tongues" is somewhat misleading, for it is likely to suggest that each fire-like tongue was cloven or forked, as one sometimes sees in the pictures representing the scene. But this is not at all the meaning of Luke's expression; rather, tongues parting asunder, tongues distributed among them, each disciple sharing in the gift equally with the others. "Like as of fire," or, more exactly, "as if of fire," indicates the appearance of the tongues, not that they were actually aflame, but that they prefigured the marvelous gift with which the disciples were now endowed.

Finally, there was the impartation to them of a new strange power to speak in languages they had never learned. It was because they were filled with the Holy Spirit that this extraordinary gift was exhibited by them. Not only did the Spirit enable them thus to speak, but even the utterance of words depended on His Divine influence—they spake "as the Spirit gave them utterance."

spake "as the Spirit gave them utterance."

Many attempts have been made by writers on the Acts to explain the phenomenon of Pentecost so as to exclude in whole or in part the supernatural element which Luke unquestionably recognizes. Some try to account for the gift of tongues by saying that it was a new style of speaking, or new forms of expression, or new and elevated thoughts, but this is both unnatural and wholly inconsistent with the narrative where a real difference of language is implied. Others imagine that the miracle was wrought upon the ears of the hearers, each of whom supposed what he heard to be uttered in his mother-tongue. But this view contradicts the distinct statement in Acts 2 4: they "began to speak with other tongues," i.e. the disciples did. It contradicts what the multitude affirmed, viz. "How hear we, every man in our own language, wherein we were born?" (ver 8). Furthermore, the view contains an element of falsehood, for in this case the miracle was wrought to make men believe what was not actually the fact. The only reasonable explanation of the phenomena is that which the record bears on its face, and which Luke obviously meant his readers to believe, viz. that the Holy Spirit enabled the disciples to speak in the various languages represented by the multitude gathered together at the time.

The scenes witnessed at Pentecost were somewhat

The scenes witnessed at Pentecost were somewhat analogous to the events which occurred at the giving of the Law at Sinai, but the contrast between them is much more pronounced. We are told in He 12 18.

19 that "tempest," "fire," and "the voice of words" attended the inauguration of the Mosaic dispensation. Something similar was witnessed at Pentecost. But the differences between the two are very marked. At Sinai there were also the blackness and darkness, the quaking earth, the thunderings and lightnings, the voice of the trumpet exceeding loud, the terror of the people, and the fear of Moses (Ex 19 16-18; He 12 18.19). Nothing of this was seen at Pentecost.

of the disciples.

The phenomena characterize the two dispensations. That of Sinai was legal. Its substance was: Do and live; disobey and die. Law knows no mercy, extends no grace. Exact justice is its rule, perfect righteousness its requirement, and death its penalty. No wonder terrible things accompanied its proclamation, and Moses trembled with fear. No wonder it was called "a flery law" (Dt 33 2).

With the advent of the Spirit came perfect grace, Divine power and complete pardon for the worst Orvine power and complete paraon for the worst of men. At Sinai God spoke in one
3. Qualities language. At Pentecost the Spirit Imparted by through the disciples spoke in many the Spirit tongues (15 in all are mentioned in Acts 2). The Law was for one people clear the result is for the whole rece. The sound alone; the gospel is for the whole race. The sound that accompanied the outpouring of the Spirit filled all the house and all the disciples likewise—token and pledge of the copiousness, the fulness of the The tongues of flame signified the power of speech, boldness of utterance, and persuasiveness which from henceforth were to mark the testimony

which from henceforth were to mark the testimony of the disciples.

The marvelous capabilities which the witnesses display after Pentecost are most noteworthy. It is common to admire their courage and zeal, to contrast their fearlessness in the presence of enemies and danger with their former timidity and cowardice. It is perhaps not so common to recognize in them the qualities that lie at the foundation of all effective work, that which gives to witness-bearing for Christ its real energy and potency. These qualities are such as: knowledge and wisdom, zeal and prudence, confidence and devotion, boldness and love, skill and tact. These and the like gitts appear in their discourses, in their behavior when difficulties arise and dangers impend, and in their conduct before the angry rulers. It is altogether remarkable with what skill and tact they defend themselves before the Sanhedrin, and with what effectiveness they preach the gospel of the grace of God to the multitude, often a scoffing and hostile multitude. In Peter's address on the Day of Pentecost there are the marks of the highest art, the most skillful logic, and the most persuasive argument. Professor Stifier well says of it: "It is without a peer among the products of uninspired men. And yet it is the work of a Galilean fisherman, without culture or training, and his maiden effort." The like distinguished traits are found in Peter's address recorded in Acts 3, in that to Cornelius and his friends, and in his defence when arraigned by the strict believers at Jerus for having gone into the company of men uncircumcised and having eaten with them. No less must be said of the equally wonderful reply of Stephen to the charge brought against him as recorded in Acts 7. It is quite true that Stephen did not share in the effusion of the Spirit on the Day of Pentecost, so far as we know, but he did share in the gift and power of the Spirit soon after, for we are told that he was also full of grace and power. Accordingly, it should be no surprise to read, as the ef

The tongues of fire which we have been considering appear to have differed in one important

aspect from the like gift bestowed on the Corinthians (1 Cor 12, 14). At 4. Distinguished from 1 Cor Pentecost the disciples spoke in the languages of the various persons who 12, 14 heard them; there needed to be no interpreter, as was provided for at Corinth. Paul distinctly orders that if there be no one to explain or interpret the ecstatic utterance of a speaker, he shall keep silent (1 Cor 14 28).

At Pentecost many spoke at the same time, for the Spirit had perfect control of the entire company and used each as it pleased Him. At Corinth Paul directed that not more than two or at most three should speak in a tongue, and that by course (one

at a time). At Pentecost each one of the 15 nationalities there represented by the crowd heard in his own tongue wherein he was born the wonderful works of God. At Corinth no one understood the tongue, not even the speaker himself, for it seems to have been a rhapsody, an uncontrolled ecstatic outburst, and in case there was no one to interpret or explain it, the speaker was to hold his peace and speak to himself and to God, i.e. he must not disturb the worship by giving voice to his ecstasy unless the whole assembly should be edified thereby. Paul sets prophecy, or preaching the word of God, far above this gift of tongues.

It may not be out of place here to say that the socalled "gift of tongues," so loudly proclaimed by certain
excitable persons in our day, has nothing in common with
the mighty action of the Spirit of God on the day of
Pentecost, and hardly anything with that which the
Corinthian Christians enjoyed, and which Paul regulated with a master-hand. See Tongues, Gift of.

LITERATURE.—Stiffer, Intro to the Book of Acts;
Alexander, Comm. on the Acts; Kuyper, Work of the
Holy Spirit; Moorehead, Outline Studies in Acts—Eph.

WM. G. MOOREHEAD

TOOLS, toolz: In the Bible, references to the handicrafts are almost entirely incidental, and not many tools are named. The following art. aims to give a list of those mentioned, together with those that must have existed also. For detailed descrip-tion and the Heb and Gr terms employed, see the

separate articles.
(1) The percussion tool was the hammer, used for splitting or trimming stone, beating metals, and in wood-carving, as well as for driving nails, tent nins, etc. Several words are tr⁴ "hammer." but pins, etc. Several words are trd "hammer, the distinction between them is very vague and in some cases the propriety of the tr is dubious. tainly no such distinction is made as that between "hammer" and "mallet," nor were separate names given to the different hammers used in the various

given to the different hammers used in the various crafts (cf, e.g., Jgs 4 21; 1 K 6 7; Isa 44 12; Jer 10 4—all for makkābhāh). See Hammer.

(2) Of cutting tools, the simplest was of course the knife. In Ex 20 25, however, the knife ("sword," EV "tool") appears as a stone-cutter's implement and is without doubt a chisel. But the heather of Ps 74 6 may be a knife. the hatchet of Ps 74 6 may be a knife. See

HATCHET; KNIFE.

For ax, again, various words are employed in a way that is quite obscure to us and apparently with meanings that are not fixed. So garzen in Dt 20 19 is certainly an ax, but in the Siloam Inscription (II. 2,4) it is a pickax (see MATTOCK). The various words trd "ax" (RV "axe") must also somewhere include the word for adz, but the specific term, if there were any such $(ma^{\alpha} \alpha_{\alpha}^{\alpha} dh / ?])$, is unknown. But the adz is a very ancient tool and must certainly have existed in Pal. See Ax (AxE), Ax-HEAD.

The saw was used both for wood and for stone (1 K 7 9), in the latter case being employed in connection with water and sand. But sawing stone was a very laborious process, and this was one reason why the ancients preferred stone in large blocks. These were quarried by the use of heavy hammers and wedges. See Saw.

The plane (makçō'āh) of Isa 44 13 should be trd

chisel. Chisels, of course, are almost as old as humanity, and were used on both wood and stone and doubtless also on metals. In particular, with a broad chisel and an adz the surface of wood may be finished very smoothly, and these two implements took the place of the plane. For wood-carving the

concave chisel (gouge) may have been invented.

The pencil of Isa 44 13 is probably a stylus, for engraving as well as for marking out lines. For engraving on gems (Ex 28 9, etc) particularly delicate instruments of this kind must have been

used. See LINE; PENCIL.

(3) Among the boring tools, only the awl appears (Ex 21 6; Dt 15 17), an instrument primarily for the use of workers in leather. Holes in wood or stone were made by a drill, often worked with the aid of a drawn bow, through the string of which the drill was passed. See AwL.

(4) Blunted tools were of course sharpened on stones, as everywhere. In 1 S 13 21 EV speaks of sharpening with a file, but the text of the verse is hopelessly corrupt and the tr mere guesswork. But files of some sort (stone?) must of course have

been used by metal-workers. See File.

(5) Measuring tools were the line and the rod (see Reed), and the latter must also have been used as a straight-edge. The compasses of Isa 44 13 were for drawing circles, but doubtless served for measuring also. See Compasses. Plumb-line ('ănākh in Am 7 7 f, a symbol of the searching moral investigation which would be followed by a precise and exact judgment; cf mishkōleth, "plumet," 2 K 21 13; Isa 28 17) and plummet ('ebhen bedhīl, "a stone of tin," Zec 4 10, used by Zerubbabel in testing the completed walls) were likewise necessities and had existed from a very early period. Tools of some sort must have been used in addition by builders in drawing plans, but their nature is unknown. See Line.

(6) The tools for holding and handling work (vises, tongs, pincers, etc) are never alluded to (AV in Isa 44 12 is wrong; see Tongs). For moving larger objects no use was made of cranes, and lifting was done by the aid of inclined planes and rollers; but blocks of stone weighing hundreds of tons could

be handled in this way.

The material of the Heb tools was either iron or bronze. The former was introduced at least by the time of David (2 S 12 31), but the mention of iron as a material is often made in such a way (Am 1 3, etc) as to show that it was not to be taken for granted. In fact, iron was hard to work and expensive, and bronze probably persisted for a while as a cheaper material. Stone tools would be used only by the very poor or as occasional makeshifts or for sacred purposes (Josh 5 2).

For the agricultural tools see Agriculture. See also Carpenter; Crafts; Potter; Smith, etc. Burton Scott Easton

TOPARCHY, tō'pär-ki, top'är-ki (τοπαρχία, toparchia): AV renders this Gr word by "government" in 1 Macc 11 28 (AVm and RV "province"). It denotes a small administrative district corresponding to the modern Turkish Nahieh, administered by a Mudīr. Three such districts were detached from the country of Samaria and added to Judaea. Elsewhere (10 30; 11 34) the word used to describe them is nômos. Some idea of the size of these districts may be gathered from the fact that Judaea was divided into ten (Pliny v.14) or eleven (BJ, III, iii, 5) toparchies.

TOPAZ, tō'paz. See Stones, Precious.

TOPHEL, tō'fel (ΣΤ), tōphel; Τόφολ, Τόphol): This name is found in a passage with many difficulties (Dt 1 1). The verse ostensibly makes clearer the position occupied by the camp of Israel where Moses addressed the people, by reference to certain other places which might be presumed to be better known. Not one of them, however, has been satisfactorily identified. Some think Tophel may be represented by the modern et-Tafeleh, 15 miles S.E. of the Dead Sea, on the caravan road from Petra to Kerak. Apart from the question of position, the change of t to t is not easily explained. Meantime we must suspend judgment. W. Ewing

TOPHETH, tō'feth (גַּשְׁבְּהֹר, ha-tōpheth, etymology uncertain; the most probable is its connection with a root meaning "burning"—the "place of burning"; AV Tophet, except in 2 K 23 10): The references are to such a place: "They have built the high places of Topheth, which is in the valley of the son of Hinnom, to burn their sons and their daughters in the fire" (Jer 7 31). On account of this abomination Topheth and the Valley of Hinnom should be called "The valley of Slaughter: for they shall bury in Topheth, till there be no place to bury," RVm "because there shall be no place else" (ver 32); see also Jer 19 6.12.13.14. Josiah is said to have "defiled Topheth" as part of his great religious reforms (2 K 23 10). The site of this shameful place would seem to have been either at the lower end of the Valley of Hinnom (q.v.), near where Akeldama is now pointed out, or in the open ground where this valley joins the Kidron.

E. W. G. MASTERMAN
TORAH, tō'rä. See Law in the OT; Revela-

TORCH, tôrch (Ττ΄), lappīdh; λαμπάs, lampās; in AV this word occurs only 4 t [Nah 2 3.4 (Heb 4.5); Zec 12 6; Jn 18 3]. In RV it is found 10 t [Gen 15 17; Jgs 7 16.20; Job 41 19 (Heb 11); Ezk 1 13; Dnl 10 6; Nah 2 4 (Heb 5); Zec 12 6; Jn 18 3; Rev 8 10]): A flambeau; a large portable light. See Lamp; Lantern.

TORMAH, tôr'ma (ΠΟΡΊΑ, tormāh, "fraud"; Β, ἐν κρυφῆ, en kruphḗ, "in secret," Α, μετὰ δώρων, metά dôrōn, "with gifts"): This name is given in EVm as an alternative to "privily," or "craftily" RV (Jgs 9 31). There is no knowledge of such a place. The text is corrupt.

TORMENT, tôr'ment, PLACE OF: A literal tr in Lk 16 28 of τόπος της βασάνου, tópos tếs basánou. See Hell.

TORMENTOR, tor-men'tēr: AV 2 Macc 7 29 for δήμως, dêmios, "belonging to the people," and so "public executioner," RV "butcher." A term of utter contempt, whose force is lost in AV. Also Mt 18 34 for βασανωστής, basanistês, "torturer." Normally the bankrupt debtor was sold into slavery. But, apparently, in extreme cases (where concealment of assets was suspected?) the defaulter was sent to prison until restitution should be made. Probably the imprisonment itself was regarded as "torment" (as it doubtless was), and the "tormentors" need mean nothing more than jailers.

BURTON SCOTT EASTON

TORTOISE, tôr'tus, tôr'tis, tôr'tois (AV) (كِّةِ, çābh, RV "great lizard"; cf Arab. فُتُّنِّ, dabb, the thorny-tailed lizard): The word çābh occurs as the name of an animal only in Lev 11 29, being the third in the list of unclean "creeping things."

The same word is found in Isa 66 20, trd "litters," and in Nu 7 3, where 'ephlôth côth is trd "covered wagons." Gesenius derives the word, in all senses, from √ côthabh, "to move gently," "to flow"; cf Arab, dabba, "to flow." The Arab. noun dabb is Uromastix spinipes, the Arabian thorny-tailed lizard. This lizard is about 18 in. long, its relatively smooth body being terminated with a great tail armed with rings of spiny scales. The Arabs have a familiar proverb, 'a' kad min dhanab ud-dabb," knottier than the tail of the dabb." LXX has for côth in Lev 11 29 ὁ κροκοδειλος ὁ χερσαίος, no krokôdeilos ho chersatos, the Eng. equivalent of which, "land-crocodile," is used by RV for the fifth in the list of unclean "creeping things," kôab, AV "chameleon."

The writer does not know what can have led the translators of AV to use here the word "tortoise." Assuming that the thorny-tailed lizard is meant,

the "great lizard" of RV may be considered to be a fair translation. See Lizard.

ALFRED ELY DAY TOTEMISM, tō'tem-iz'm: How far the belief in totems and totemistic relationships existed in early Israel cannot be discussed at length here. Evidence of the belief in deified animal ancestors is supposed by some writers to be found in the tribal names Leah ("wild cow"), Rachel ("ewe"), Simeon (synonymous with the Arab. sim'u, which denotes a cross between a wolf and a hyena), Hamor ("ass"), Caleb ("dog"), Zibiah ("gazelle"), etc. But these names in themselves "do not prove a totem stage in the development of Israel" (HPN, 114); philologically, the view has a shaky foundation (see, e.g. art. "Leah" in 1-vol HDB).

Again, it is true that, as a rule, in totemic com-munities the individual may not kill or eat the name-giving object of his kin, these animals being regarded as sacred in totem worship and therefore "unclean" (taboo) as food. But the attempt to "unclean" (taboo) as food. But the attempt to connect such personal names as Shaphan ("rockbadger"), Achbor ("mouse"), Huldah ("weasel")—all from the time of Josiah (2 K 22 3.12.14; cf Deborah ["bee"], Gaal ["beetle"?], Tola ["crimson worm," "cochineal"], Nahash ["serpent"])—with the list of unclean animals in Lev 11 (see vs 5m.29) and Dt 14 is beset with difficulties (cf, however, Isa 66 17; Ezk 8 10 f), since all the names cannot possibly be explained on this ground. See also SACRIFICE IN THE OT, II, 2, (4); VI, 1.

Robertson Smith (followed by Stade and Benzinger) strongly advocated the view "that clear traces of totemism can be found in early Israel" (see *HDB*, III, 100). G. B. Gray also seems inclined to favor the view that some of these names may be "indirectly derivative from a totem stage of society" (HDB, III, 483 f), while at the same time he recognizes that "the only question is whether other explanations are not equally satisfactory' (HPN, 105).

Other writers, such as Wellhausen, Nöldeke (ZDMG, 157 f, 1886), Marti (Gesch. der israelit. Religion, 4th ed, 24), Addis (Heb Rel., 33 f), have opposed or abandoned the theory as applied to Israel.

"Upon the whole we must conclude once more that, while it is certainly possible that Totemism once prevailed in Israel, its prevalence cannot be proved; and, above all, we must hold that the religion of Israel as it presents itself in the OT has not retained the very slightest recollection of such a state of things" (Kautzsch, HDB, extra vol, 614 f; cf p. 623).

The theory is also opposed by Jos. Jacobs (art. "Are there Totem-Clans in the Old Testament?" in Archaeol. Review, III [1889], no. 3, 145 ff); F. V. Zapletal, Der Tolemismus u. die Religion Israels; and S. A. Cook, in JQR, XIV, no. 55.

The evidence on either side is inconclusive, but the weight of authority is opposed to the view that totemism ever existed in Israel. What is certain is that totemism was never a potent factor, either in the early religion of Israel as an organized people, or in any of the dominant cults of the historical period as a whole (see arts. "Family" in HDB, I, 850 [Bennett]; "Sacrifice," HDB, IV, 331 [Paterson], and Defilement [Crannell], IMAGES, 3, 6 [Cobern], and ISRAEL, RELIGION OF, II, 1, (4) [Orelli], in this Encyclopaedia).

[Orelli], in this Encyclopaedia).

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A. F. Scot, Offering and Sacrifice (1900); and I. Benzinger, Hebraische Archaol. (1907); against, Enc Brit, 11th ed, XIII, 177, art. "Hebrew Religion" (Whitehouse); Standard BD, 782; Temple DB, art. "Shaphan." For a general account and discussion of totemism, see Frazer, Totemism and Exogamy (1910) and The Golden Bough (3d ed, 1907-13); Westermarck, History of Human

Marriage (1891); Deans, Tales from the Totems of Hidery (1898); Lang, Myth, Ritual, Religion (new ed. 1899), The Secret of the Totem (1905), and art. "Totemism" in Enc Brit, 11th ed. XXVII, with extensive bibliography; HDB, extra vol, 115; and Cymru, 1892-93, p. 137; 1893-94, p. 7.

TOU, tō'ŏō (¬¬¬¬, tō'ū; B, Đôa, Thôa, A, Đoou, Thoou): King of Hamath. As an enemy of Hadarezer, after David's victory over the latter, he sent David a message of congratulation (1 Ch 18 9 f). In 2 S 8 9 f spelled "Toi."

TOW, tō (לְּלֶּבֶת), nº 'ōreth [Jgs 16 9; Isa 1 31]): The coarser part of flax, with short threads, used as an example of easily inflammable material. Also Isa 43 17 AV for אָּנָשָׁם, pishtāh, the usual word for "flax" (so ERV), here as used for a wick (so ARV, ERVm).

TOWER, tou'er. See Fortification, I, 5; CITY, II, 1.

TOWER OF BABEL. See ASTRONOMY; BABEL, Tower of: Tongues, Confusion of.

TOWER OF DAVID (Cant 4 4). See JERU-SALEM.

TOWER OF EDAR (THE FLOCK). See Eder.

TOWER OF HANANEEL. See HANANEL.

TOWER OF IVORY (מְנָדֵל הַשֶּׁן, mighdal hashēn): Occurs only in Cant 7 4. Cheyne would, not unreasonably, emend the text and read the "tower of Shenir" as a parallel to the "tower of Lebanon" in the same verse. If the reading "tower of ivory" is correct, the reference must be to some piece of furniture in the adornment of which ivory was much used, and when we compare the word mighdāl here with its use for a "pulpit" in Neh 8 4, we can think only of a reminiscence of something of the nature of the throne of ivory made by Solomon (1 K 10 18).

W. M. Christie

TOWER OF LEBANON (מְלַבְּלֹהְ הַלְּבֶּלוֹן, mighdal ha-l'bhānōn [Cant 7 4]): The designation "which looketh toward Damascus" compels us to identify it with some portion of, or something in, the eastern range of "Lebanon, toward the sun-rising" (Josh 13 It would then of necessity correspond to the chief summit of Hermon, on which there has been from ancient times also a tower-like temple, and from which the view is almost of boundless extent, Damascus with its gardens and groves being surprisingly near and appearing like a beautiful island in a wide extended sea. See LEBANON.

W. M. Christie TOWER OF MEAH, mē'a. See HAMMEAH.

TOWER OF PENUEL. See PENIEL.

TOWER OF SHECHEM (מִלְכַל שְׁלֶם, mighdal sh*khem): Mentioned only in Jgs 9 46-49. It seems along with the Beth-millo and the Beth-elberith to have comprised the three strongest parts of the fortification when Abimelech besieged the town. It was, however, abandoned by its defenders, who took refuge in the Beth-millo, in which they

TOWER OF SILOAM. See SILOAM.

TOWER OF SYENE, sī-ē'nė. See SEVENEH.

TOWER OF THE FURNACES. See Fur-NACES, TOWER OF.

TOWN, toun: This word is used to represent a number of different Heb terms in the OT. (1) When any explanatory word or attendant circumstances show that a "city" was unwalled, and sometimes in the contrary case (1 S 23 7), the Heb it is trd "town" by AV, and RV generally agrees with it (Dt 3 5; 1 S 27 5; Est 9 19). (2) Both AV and RV translate hawwoth by "towns" (Nu 32 41; Josh 13 30; 1 K 4 13; 1 Ch 2 23), while häçērim and prāzōth both appear in AV as "towns," but in RV as "villages!" (Gen 25 16; Zec 2 4). See HAVVOTH-JAIR. (3) Bath, lit. "daughter," is sometimes found in the pl. between the name of a city and hāçērīm, "villages," as in Josh 15 45 m, "Ekron, with its daughters and its villages." "Towns" is evidently the appropriate tr, and, even without hāçērīm, bath is rendered "town" (RV Nu 21 25, etc). The same use of "daughter" occurs also in the Gr of 1 Macc 5 65 (thugātēr), AV "town," RV "village," m "daughter." (4) AV and ERV gloss kīr, "wall," in Josh 2 15 by rendering it "town wall"; ARV omits. (5) The Gr term kōmopóleis (Mk 1 38), being a combination of the words for "village" and "city," is a clear attempt to describe something between the two, and is well trd "town." (6) AV uses "town" (Mt 10 11, etc) and "village" (Mt 9 35, etc) quite indifferently for kōmē; RV has "village" throughout. For similar changes of AV "town" of 2 Macc 8 6 (chōra); 11 5; 12 21 (chōríon, RV "place"). See City; VILLAGE.

TOWN CLERK, klûrk, klärk (γραμματεύς, grammateús): The word "clerk," "writer," "town clerk," "scribe," is found in this meaning only in Acts 19 35, "when the townclerk had quieted the multitude." Cremer defines the word as signifying a "public servant among the Greeks and the reader of the legal and state-papers" (Lex. NT). There was considerable difference between the authority of these "clerks" in the cities of Asia Minor and of Greece. Among the Greeks the grammatets were usually slaves, or at least persons belonging to the lower classes of society, and their office was a nominal, almost a mechanical, one. In Asia, on the contrary, they were officers of considerable consequence, as the passage quoted indicates (Thuc. vii.19, "the scribe of the city") and the grammateus is not infrequently mentioned in the inscriptions and on the coins of Ephesus (e.g. Brit. Mus. Inscrip., III, 2, 482, 528). They had the supervision of the city archives, all official decrees were drawn up by them, and it was their prerogative to read such decrees to the assembled citizens. Their social position was thus one of eminence, and a Gr scribe would have been much amazed at the deference shown to his colleagues in Asia and at the power they wielded in the administration of affairs. See, Further, Hermann, Staats Altertum, 127, 20; and Furthersus.

Henry E. Dosker EPHESUS.

TRACHONITIS, trak-ō-nī'tis: Appears in Scripture only in the phrase τη̂s Ἰτουραίας καὶ Τραχωνίτιδος χώρας, tês Itouratas kat Trachōntitidos chōras, lit. "of the Ituraean and Trachonian region" (Lk 31). Trachonitis signifies the land associated with the trachōn, "a rugged stony tract." There are two volcanic districts S. and E. of Damascus, to which the Greeks applied this name: that to the N.W. of the mountain of Bashan (Jebel ed-Drūze) is now called el-Lejā', "the refuge" or "asylum." It lies in the midst of an arable and pastoral country; and although it could never have supported a large population, it has probably always been inhabited. The other is away to the N.E. of the mountain, and is called in Arab. eṣ-Ṣafā. This covers much the larger area. It is a wild and in-

hospitable desert tract, remote from the dwellings of men. It was well known to the ancients; but there was nothing to attract even a sparse population to its dark and forbidding rocks, burning under the suns of the wilderness. It therefore plays no part in the history. These are the two Trachons of Strabo (xvi.2, 20). They are entirely volcanic in origin, consisting of lava belched forth by volcanoes that have been extinct for ages. In cooling, the lava has split up and crumbled into the most weird and fantastic forms. The average elevation of these districts above the surrounding country is about 30 ft. Es-Ṣafā is quite waterless. There are springs around the border of el-Lejā', but in the interior, water-supply depends entirely upon cisterns. Certain great hollows in the rocks also form natural reservoirs, in which the rain water is preserved through the summer months.

reservoirs, in which the rain water is preserved through the summer months.

El-Lejā' is roughly triangular in shape, with its apex to the N. The sides are about 25 miles in length, and the base about 20. The present writer has described this region as he saw it during two somewhat lengthened visits: "From Zor'a our course lay N.E. by E. . . . What a wild solitude it is! Far on every hand stretched a veritable land of stone. The first hour or two of our march no living thing was seen. . . . Wherever we looked, before or behind, lay wide fields of volcanic rock, black and repulsive, . . . with here and there a deep circular depression, through which in the dim past red destruction belched forth, now carefully walled round the lip to prevent wandering sheep or goat from falling in by night. The general impression conveyed was as if the dark waters of a great sea, lashed to fury by a storm, had been suddenly petrified. . . . At times we passed over vast sheets of lava which in cooling had cracked in nearly regular lines, and which, broken through in parts, appeared to rest on a stratum of different character, like pieces of cyclopaean pavement. Curious rounded rocks were occasionally seen by the wayside, like gigantic black soap bubbles blown up by the subterranean steam and gases of the active volcanic age; often, with the side broken out as if burst by escaping vapor, the mass, having cooled too far to collapse, remained an enduring monument of the force that formed it. Scanty vegetation peeped from the fissures in the rocks, or preserved a precarious existence in the scanty soil sometimes seen in a hollow between opposing slopes. In a drary waterless land where the cloudless sun, beating down on fiery stones, creates a heat like that of an oven, it were indeed a wonder if anything less hardy than the ubiquitous thistle could long hold up its head. . . . When the traveler has fairly penetrated the rough barriers that surround el-Lejā' he finds not a little pleasant land within—fertile soil which, if only freed a

In some parts, esp. those occupied by the Druzes, fair crops are grown. Where the Arabs are masters, poverty reigns. They also have an evil reputation. As one said to the present writer, "They will even slay the guest." 'Arab el-Lejā' anjas ma yakūn is a common saying, which may be freely rendered: "Than the Arabs of el-Lejā' greater rascals do not exist." Until comparatively recent years there were great breadths of oak and terebinth. These have disappeared, largely owing to the enterprise of the charcoal burners. The region to the N.E. was described by a native as bass wa'r, "nothing but barren rocky tracts" (cf Heb ya'ar), over which in summer, he said, not even a bird would fly. There are many ruined sites. A list of 71 names collected by the present writer will be found in PEFS, 1895, 366 ff. In many cases the houses, strongly built of stone, are still practically complete, after centuries of desertion.

There may possibly be a reference to the Trachons in the OT where Jer speaks of the harērīm, "parched places" (17 6). The cognate el-Ḥarrah is the word used by the Arabs for such a burned, rocky area. For the theory that el-Lejā' corresponds to the OT "Argob," see Argob.

The robbers who infested the place, making usc

of the numerous caves, were routed out by Herod the Great (Ant, XV, x, 1 ff; XVI, ix, 1; XVII, ii, Trachonitis was included in the tetrarchy of Philip (viii, 1; ix, 4). At his death without heirs it was joined to the province of Syria (XVIII, iv, 6). Caligula gave it to Agrippa I. After his death in 44 AD, and during the minority of his son, it was administered by Rom officers. From 53 till 100 AD it was ruled by Agrippa II. In 106 AD it was incorporated in the new province of Arabia. Under the Romans the district enjoyed a period of great prosperity, to which the Gr inscriptions amply testify. To this time belong practically all the remains to be seen today. The theaters, temples, public buildings and great roads speak of a high civilization. That Christianity also made its way into these fastnesses is vouched for by the ruins of churches. Evil days came with the advent of the Moslems. Small Christian communities are still found at *Khabab* on the western *Luhf*, and at *Sūr* in the interior. The southeastern district, with the chief town of *Dāmet el-'Alia*, is in the hands of the Druzes; the rest is dominated by the Arabs. W. Ewing

TRADE, trad:

I. GENERAL

1. Terms
2. Position of Palestine
3. Trade Products of Palestine
4. Palestinian Traders

HISTORY
1. To David
2. Solomon
3. Maritime Trade
4. To the Exile
5. The Exile and After

LITERATURE

I. General.—For a full list of the commercial terms used in the OT, reference must be made to EB, IV, cols. 5193-99. Only 1. Terms the more important can be given here.

For "merchant" the Heb uses almost always one of the two participial forms אָם, soḥēr, or דּוֹכֶל, rōkhēl, the two participial forms \\ \textit{\ "place of merchandise." "market." The participle \(\textsty \) \(\text{Tr}
Any road map of the ancient world shows that Pal, despite its lack of harbors, occupied an extremely important position as regards the 2. Position trade-routes. There was no exit to

of Palestine the W. from the great caravan center Damascus, there was virtually no exit landward from the great maritime centers Tyre and Sidon, and there was no exit to the N. and N.E. from Egypt without crossing Pal. In particular, the only good road connecting Tyre (and Sidon) with Damascus lay directly across Northern Pal, skirting the Sea of Galilee. In consequence, foreign merchants must at all times have been familiar figures in Pal (Gen 37 25.28; 1 K 10 15; Nch 13 16; Isa 2 6; Zeph 1 11, etc). As a corollary, tolls laid on these merchants would always have been a fruitful source of income (1 K 10 15; Ezk 26 2; Ezr 4 20), and naturally Pal enjoyed particular advantages for the distribution of her own products

through the presence of these traders. Of these products the three great staples were grain, oil and wine (Hos 2 8; Dt 7 13, etc). The

wine of Pal, however, gained little reputation in the ancient world, and its 3. Trade Products of export is mentioned only in 2 Ch 2
Palestine 10.15; Ezr 3 7, while Ezk 27 18 says
expressly that for good wine Tyre sent
to Damascus. Grain would not be needed by Egypt, but it found a ready market in Phoenicia, both for consumption in the great cities of Tyre and Sidon and for export (1 K 5 11; Ezr 3 7; Ezk 27 17, etc). A reverse dependence of Pal on Tyre for food (Isa 23 18; cf Gen 41 57) could have occurred only under exceptional circumstances. Oil was needed by Egypt as well as by Phoenicia (Hos 12 1; Isa 57 9), but from Northern Israel was probably shipped into Egypt by way of Phoenicia. Hos 2 5.9 mentions wool and flax as products of Hos 2 5.9 mentions wool and flax as products of Israel, but neither could have been important. Flax was a specialty of Egypt (Isa 19 9) and is hardly mentioned in the OT, while for wool Israel had to depend largely on Moab (2 K 3 4; Isa 16 1). Minor products that were exported were "balm honey, spicery and myrrh, pistachio-nuts and almonds" (Gen 43 11 m; see the separate arts., and cf "pannag and balm" in Ezk 27 17). These were products of Gilead (Gen 37 25). "Oaks of Bashan" had commercial value, but only for use for oars (Ezk 27 5) mercial value, but only for use for oars (Ezk 27 5), and so in small logs. Pal had to import all heavy timbers (1 K 5 6, etc). Despite Dt 8 9, Pal is deficient in mineral wealth. The value of Pal's manufactured products would depend on the skill of the inhabitants, but for the arts the Hebrews seem to have had no particular aptitude (1 K 5 6: cf 1 S 13 19 ff).

In comparison with the great volume of international trade that was constantly passing across Pal, the above products could have 4. Palestin- had no very great value and the great

ian Traders merchants would normally have been foreigners. A wide activity as "middlemen" and agents was, however, open to the inhabitants of Pal, if they cared to use it. Such a profession would demand close contact with the surrounding nations and freedom from religious scruples. The Canaanites evidently excelled in

commercial pursuits of this time, so much so that "Canaanite" and "merchant" were convertible

II. History.—The Israelites entered Canaan as a nomadic people who had even agriculture yet to learn, and with a religious self-con-1. To David sciousness that restrained them from too close relations with their neighbors.

Hence they were debarred from much participation in trade. The legislation of the Pent (in sharp disin trade.

tinction from that of CH) shows this non-commercial spirit very clearly, as there are no provisions that relate to merchants beyond such elementary matters as the prohibition of false weights, etc (Dt 25 13; Lev 19 36; CC has not even these rules). In particular, the prohibition of interest (Ex 22 25 Dt 23 19, etc) shows that no native commercial life was contemplated, for, without a credit-system, trade on any extensive scale was impossible. this was to be left to foreigners (Dt 23 20; cf 15 6; 28 12.44). The Jewish ideal, indeed, was that each household should form a self-sufficient producing unit (Prov 31 10-27), with local or national exchange of those commodities (such as tools and salt) that could not be produced at home. And this ideal seems to have been maintained tolerably well. The most northerly tribes, through their proximity to the Phoenicians, were those first affected by the commercial spirit, and in particular the isolated half-tribe of Dan. In Jgs 5 17 we find them "remaining in ships" at the time of Barak's victory. As their territory had no seacoast, this must mean that they were gaining funds by serving in the ships of Tyre and Sidon. Zebulun and Issachar, like-wise, appear in Dt 33 19 as the merchants of Israel, apparently selling their wares chiefly at the time of the great religious assemblages. But the disorders at the time of the Judges were an effectual bar against much commerce. Saul at length succeeded in producing some kind of order, and we hear that he had brought in a prosperity that showed itself in richer garments and golden ornaments for the women (2 S 1 24; see Money). David's own establishment of an official shekel (2 S 14 26) is proof that trade was becoming a matter of importance.

Under Solomon, however, Israel's real trade began. The writer of K lays special stress on his imports.

From Tyre came timber (1 K 5 6,

2. Solomon etc) and gold (9 11). From Sheba
came gold and spices (10 10, "gave"
here, like "presents" elsewhere, is a euphemism).
From Ophir and elsewhere came gold, silver, precious stones, almug trees, ivory, apes and peacocks
(10 11.22.25). According to MT 10 28 f, horses and chariots were brought from Egypt and re-sold to the N.

But the text here is suspected. Egypt had no reputation as a horse-mart in comparison with Northern Syria and Western Armenia (see TOGARMAH). So many scholars prefer to read "Musri" (in Northwestern Arabia) for "Egypt" (mer for merym—see the comms., esp. EB, III, cols. 3162-63). Yet the change does not clear up all the difficulties, and Egypt was certainly famous for her chariots. And cf Dt 17 16.

In exchange Solomon exported to Tyre wheat and oil (1 K 5 11; 2 Ch 2 10.15 adds "barley and wine"). What he sent to the other countries is not specified, and, in particular, there is no mention of what he exchanged for gold. 1 K 5 11; 9 11, however, indicate that Hiram was the intermediary for most of this gold traffic, so that at the final settlement of accounts Solomon must have been heavily in Hiram's debt. 1 K 9 11 proves this. Solomon had undertaken a larger task than the resources of Pal could meet, and in payment was obliged to cede Northern Galilee to Hiram. (The writer of 1 K explains that "the cities were worthless," while Ch passes over the unedifying incident altogether, if 2 Ch 8 2 is not a reversal of the case.)

Among Solomon's other activities sea-commerce was not forgotten. David's victory over Edom gave access to the Red Sea at Ezion3. Maritime geber, and this port was utilized by Trade Hiram and Solomon in partnership (1 K 9 26 ff), Hiram, apparently, supplying the ships and the sailors (10 11). After Solomon's death, Edom revolted and the way to

the sea was closed (11 14). It was not recovered until the time of Jehoshaphat, and he could do nothing with it, "for the ships were broken at Eziongeber" (22 48), i.e. in the home harbor. Either they were badly built or incompetently manned. The Hebrews had no skill as sailors. See Ships and Boats.

After the time of Solomon the commerce established by him of course continued, with fluctuations.

Samaria became so important a city 4. To the from the trade standpoint that Ben-Exile hadad I forced Baasha to assign a street there to the merchants of Da-mascus, while Ahab succeeded in extracting the reverse privilege from Ben-hadad II (1 K 20 34). The long and prosperous contemporary reigns of Jeroboam II and Uzziah evidently had great importance for the growth of commerce, and it was the growing luxury of the land under these reigns that called forth the denunciations of Amos, Hosea and Isaiah. Amos complains of the importation of expensive foreign luxuries by the rich (cf Isa 3 18-23), who wasted the natural products of Pal (6 3-6; 3 12.15). Grain, the chief article of value, was extorted from the poor (5 11), and the grain-dealers were notoriously dishonest (8 4-6); 8 6c in EV suggests the sale of adulterated grain. meaning of the Heb, however, is obscure, but of course adulteration must have existed, and it is doubtless not without significance that the labels on the recently discovered Samaritan jar-fragments emphasize the purity of the contents (Harvard Theol. Rev., 1911, 138–39). The extent of commercialism so overwhelms Hosea that he exclaims 'Ephraim is become a Canaanite!' (12 7 m). The most unscrupulous dealing is justified by the plea, "Surely I am become rich" (ver 8). Isaiah is shocked at the intimate contracts made with foreigners, which prove so profitable to the makers, but which bring in idolatry (2 6-8). It was in the time of Isaiah that Assyr influence began to make itself felt in Judah, and the setting up in the Temple of a pat-tern of an Assyr altar (2 K 16 10 f) must have been accompanied with an influx of Assyr commodities of all descriptions. (Similarly, the religious reaction under Hezekiah would have been accompanied by a boycott on Assyr goods.) Data for the following preëxilic period are scanty, but Ezk 26 2 shows that Jerus retained a position of some commercial importance up to the time of her fall. Of especial interest are Isa 23 and Ezk 26, 27 with their descriptions of the commerce of Tyre. Ezekiel indeed confines himself to description, but Isaiah characterizes the income of all this trade as "the hire of a harlot" (vs 17.18), a phrase that reappears in Rev 18 3.9—a chapter couched in the genuine old prophetic tone and based almost exclusively on Isa and Ezk. But it is important to note that Isaiah realizes (23 18) that all this enterprise is capable of consecration to Jeh and is therefore not wrong in itself.

capable of consecration to Jeh and is therefore not wrong in itself.

The deportation into Babylon brought the Jews directly into the midst of a highly developed commercial civilization, and, although we 5. The Exile are ignorant of the details, they must and After have entered into this life to a very considerable extent. Indeed, it is more than probable that it was here that the famed commercial genius of the Jews made its appearance. Certain it is that exiles acquired great wealth and rose to high position (Zec 6 10 f; Neh 1 11; 5 17, etc.), and that when an opportunity to return to Pal was opened, most of the exiles preferred to stay where they were (see Exile). As a matter of fact, the Palestinian community was beggarly poor for years (Zec 8 10; Hag 1 6; Neh 1 3; Mal 3 10-12, etc.) and could not even prevent the sale of its chil-

dren into slavery (Joel 3 6). Such trade as existed was chiefly in the hands of foreigners (Joel 3 17; Zec 14 21), but the repeated crop-failures must have forced many Jews into commerce to keep from The history of the 4th cent. is very obstarving. scure, but for the later commercial history of the Jews the foundation of Alexandria (332 BC) was a fact of fundamental importance. For Alexandria rapidly became the commercial center of the world and into it the Jews, attracted by the invitations of the Ptolemies, poured in streams. Alexandria's policy was closely copied by Antioch (on the period see Ant, XII, i, iii; cf ALEXANDRIA; ANTIOCH), and Ant, XII, iv, shows that the ability of the Jews was duly recognized by the Gentiles. But this development was outside Pal. Sir does not count commerce among the list of trades in 38 24-30 (note, however, the increased importance of artisans) and his references to commerce throughout are not esp. characteristic (5 8; 8 13, etc; but see 42 7). But even the trade of Pal must have been increasing steadily. Under the Maccabees Joppa was captured, and the opening of its port for Gr commerce is numbered among Simon's "glories" (1 Macc 14 5). The uniamong Simon's "giories" (1 Macc 14 5). The unification of the trade-world under Rome, of course, gave Pal a share in the benefits. Herod was able to work commercial miracles (Ant, XV, vi, 7; viii, 1; ix, 2; xi, 1; XVI, v, 3, etc.), and the Pal of the NT is a commercial rather than an agricultural nation. Christ's periodic toward all of the NT is a commercial rather than an agricultural nation. Christ's parables touch almost every side of commercial life and present even the pearl merchant as a not unfamiliar figure (Mt 13 45). Into the ethics of commerce, however, He entered little. Sharp dealings were everywhere (Mk 12 40; Lk 16 1-12, etc), and the service of Mammon, which had pushed its way even into the temple (Mk 11 15–17 and ||'s), was utterly incompatible with the service of God (Mt 6 19-34, etc). In themselves, however, the things of Caesar and the things of God (Mk 12 17 and ||'s) belong to different spheres, and with financial questions pure and simple He refused to interfere (Lk 12 13 f). For further details and for the (not very elaborate) teaching of the apostles see

LITERATURE.—The appropriate sections in the HA's and Bib. dicts., esp. G. A. Smith's indispensable art. "Trade" in EB, IV, cols. 5145-99 (1903); for the later period, GJV4, II, 67-82 (1907), III, 97-102 (1909). Cf also Herzfeld, Handelsgeschichte der Juden des Alterthums² (1894).

BURTON SCOTT EASTON

TRADES, trādz. See CRAFTS.

TRADITION, tra-dish'un: The Gr word is παράδοσιs, parádosis, "a giving over," either by word of mouth or in writing; then that which is given over, i.e. tradition, the teaching that is handed down from one to another. The word does not occur in the Heb OT (except in Jer 39 [32] 4; 41 [34] 2, used in another sense), or in LXX or Apoc (except in 2 Esd 7 26, used in a different sense), but is found 13 t in the NT (Mt 15 2.3.6; Mk 7 3.5.8.9. 13; 1 Cor 11 2; Gal 1 14; Col 2 8; 2 Thess 2 15; 3 6).

The term in the NT has apparently three meanings. It means, in Jewish theology, the oral teachings of the elders (distinguished an-

1. Meaning cestors from Moses on) which were in Jewish
Theology reverenced by the late Jews equally with the written teachings of the OT, and were regarded by them as equally authoritative on matters of belief and conduct. There seem to be three classes of these oral teachings: (a) some oral laws of Moses (as they supposed) given by the great lawgiver in addition to the written laws; (b) decisions of various judges which became precedents in judicial matters; (c) interpretations of great teachers (rabbis) which came

to be prized with the same reverence as were the OT Scriptures.

It was against the tradition of the elders in this first sense that Jesus spoke so pointedly to the scribes and Pharisees (Mt 15 2 f; Mk 7 3 f). The Pharisees charged Jesus with transgressing "the tradition of the elders." Jesus turned on them with the question, "Why do ye also transgress the commandment of God because of your tradition?" He then shows how their hollow traditionalism has fruited into mere ceremonialism and externalism (washing of hands, vessels, saying "Corban" to a suffering parent, i.e. "My property is devoted to God, and therefore I cannot use it to help you," etc), but He taught that this view of uncleanness was essentially false, since the heart, the seat of the soul, is the source of thought, character and conduct (Mk 7 14 f).

The word is used by Paul when referring to his personal Christian teachings to the churches at Corinth and Thessalonica (1 Cor 11

2. As Used 2; 2 Thess 2 15; 3 6). In this sense in 1 Cor the word in the sing, is better trd and 2 Thess "instruction," signifying the body of teaching delivered by the apostle to the church at Thessalonica (2 Thess 3 6). But Paul in the other two passages uses it in the pl., meaning the separate instructions which he delivered to the churches at Corinth and Thessalonica.

The word is used by Paul in Col 2 8 in a sense apparently different from the two senses above.

3. As Used in Col He warns his readers against the teachings of the false teachers in Colossae, which are "after the tradition of men." Olshausen, Lightfoot, Dargan, in their

comms. in loc., maintain that the reference is to the Judaistic character of the false teachers. This may be true, and yet we must see that the word "tradition" has a much broader meaning here than in 1 above. Besides, it is not certain that the false teachings at Colossae are essentially Jewish in character. The phrase "tradition of men" seems to emphasize merely the human, not necessarily Jewish, origin of these false teachings.

The vb. $\pi a \rho a \delta l \delta \omega \mu$, $\rho a r a d l d \bar{\sigma} m i$, "to give over," is also used 5 t to express the impartation of Christian instruction: Lk 12, where eyewitnesses are said to have handed down the things concerning Jesus; 1 Cor 11 2.23 and 15 3 referring to the apostle's personal teaching; 2 Pet 2 21, to instruction by some Christian teacher (cf 1 Pet 1 18).

LITERATURE.—Broadus, Allen, Meyer, comms. on Mt (15 2 t): Swete, Gould, comms. on Mk (7 3 f); Lightfoot, Meyer, comms. on Gal (1 14); Lightfoot, Olshausen, Dargan (Am. Comm.), comms. on Col (2 8); Milligan, comm. on 1 and 2 Thess (2 Thess 2 15 and 3 6); Weber, Jewish Theology (Ger., Altsyn. Theol.); Pocock, Porta Mosis, 350-402; Schürer, HJP, II, i, sec. 25; Edersheim, Life and Times of Jesus the Messiah, II, ch xxxi; Jos, Ant, XIII, x, 6.

CHARLES B. WILLIAMS

TRAFFIC, traf'ik, TRAFFICKER, traf'ik-er (1927, k*na'an, הַרְּטָׁת, miṣḥār, הַחַּסְ, ṣāḥar, הֹבְּטְ, r*khullāh): (1) K*na'an="Canaan," and, as the Canaanites were celebrated merchants, came to mean "merchant," and so "traffic" (see Canaan). Ezk 17 4 refers to the great eagle who "cropped off the topmost of the young twigs [of cedar] thereof, and carried it unto a land of traffic; he set it in a city of merchants." (2) Miṣḥār means "trade," and so "traffic"; comes from a root meaning "to travel round," e.g. as a peddler. 1 K 10 15 reads: "Besides that which the traders brought, and the traffic of the merchants." This refers to the income of Solomon. (3) Ṣāḥar means "to go about," "occupy with," "trade," "traffic," "merchant," and so the business of the moving merchant or peddler. Joseph

said to his brothers: "So will I deliver you your brother, and ye shall traffic in the land" (Gen 42 34). He evidently meant that they should have license to become, throughout Egypt, traveling traders. (4) R*khullāh, from a root meaning "to travel for trading," and so a peddled traffic, as in spices, etc. Ezekiel speaks against the prince of Tyre: "By thy great wisdom and by thy traffic hast thou increased thy riches" (28 5); and against the king of Tyre: "in the unrighteousness of thy traffic," etc. (Ezk 28 18). See Market; Merchandise; Ships and Boats, II, 2, (2); Trade.

William Edward Raffety

TRAGACANTH, trag'a-kanth: For "spicery" in Gen 37 25, RVm gives "gum tragacanth or storax." See Spice; Storax.

TRAIN, trān (vb. בַּבְּרָ, hānakh, "educate" [Prov 22 6], with adj. hānīkh [Gen 14 14]): In 1 K 10 2 the Queen of Sheba's "train," the noun is בַּרָל, hayil, the usual word for "force," "army." But in Isa 6 1 the "train" (בול אור), shūl, "loose hanging garment") is that of God's robe (RVm "skirts").

TRAIN, trān, TRAINED, trānd: The word is used in two places in both AV and RV, viz. Gen 14 14, where it means "drilled," "prepared for war," and Prov 22 6. "Train up a child" means more than to teach, and includes everything that pertains to the proper development of the child, esp. in its moral and spiritual nature. In this broader sense also RV substitutes "train" for the "teach" of AV in Tit 2 4 (sōphronizō).

TRANCE, trans (ἔκστασις, ékstasis): The condition expressed by this word is a mental state in which the person affected is partially or wholly unconscious of objective sensations, but intensely alive to subjective impressions which, however they may be originated, are felt as if they were revela-tions from without. They may take the form of visual or auditory sensations or else of impressions of taste, smell, heat or cold, and sometimes these conditions precede epileptic seizures constituting what is named the aura epileptica. The word occurs 5 t in AV, twice in the story of Balaam (Nu 24 4.16), twice in the history of Peter (Acts 10 10; 11 5), and once in that of Paul (Acts 22 17). In the Balaam story the word is of the nature of a gloss rather than a tr, as the Heb nāphal means simply "to fall down" and is tr^d accordingly in RV. Here LXX has en húpnō, "in sleep" (see Sleep, Deep). In Peter's vision on the housetop at Joppa he saw the sail (othônē) descending from heaven, and heard a voice. Paul's trance was also one of both sight and sound. The vision on the Damascus road (Acts 9 3-9) and that recorded in 2 Cor 12 2-4 were also cases of trance, as were the prophetic ecstasies of Saul, Daniel and Elisha, and the condition of John in which he says that he was "in the Spirit" (Rev 1 10).

The border line between trance and dream is indefinite: the former occurs while one is, in a sense, awake; the latter takes place in the passage from sleep to wakefulness. The dream as well as the vision were supposed of old to be channels of revelation (Job 33 15). In Shakespearean Eng., trance means a dream (Taming of the Shrew, I, i, 182), or simply a bewilderment (Lucrece, 1595).

In the phenomena of hypnotic suggestion, sometimes affecting a number of persons simultaneously, we have conditions closely allied to trance, and doubtless some of the well-authenticated phantom appearances are similar subjective projections from the mind affecting the visual and auditory centers of the brain.

ALEX. MACALISTER

TRANSFIGURATION, trans-fig-ū-rā'shun (μεταμορφόσμαι, metamorphóomai, "to be transformed"): Used only with reference to the transfiguration of Christ (Mt 17 2; Mk 9 2) and the change wrought in the Christian personality through fellowship with Christ (Rom 12 2; 2 Cor 3 18).

(1) About midway of His active ministry Jesus, accompanied by Peter, James and John, withdrew to a high mountain apart (probably Mt. Hermon; see next art.) for prayer. While praying Jesus was "transfigured," "his face did shine as the sun," "and his garments became glistering, exceeding white, so as no fuller on earth can whiten them." It was night and it was cold. The disciples were drowsy and at first but dimly conscious of the wonder in progress before their eyes. From the brightness came the sound of voices. Jesus was talking with Moses and Elijah, the subject of the discourse, as the disciples probably learned later, being of the decease (exodus) which Jesus was about to accomplish at Jerus. As the disciples came to themselves, the figures of Moses and Elijah seemed to withdraw, whereupon Peter impetuously demanded tents to be set up for Jesus and His heavenly visitants that the stay might be prolonged and, if possible, made permanent. Just then a cloud swept over them, and out of the cloud a voice came, saying, "This is my beloved Son: hear ye him." In awe the disciples prostrated themselves and in silence waited. Suddenly, lifting up their eyes they saw no one, save Jesus only (Mt 17 1-13; Mk 9 2-13; Lk 9 28-36).

Such is the simple record. What is its signifi-cance? The Scripture narrative offers no explanation, and indeed the event is afterward referred to only in the most general way by Peter (2 Pet 1 16–18) and, perhaps, by John (Jn 1 14). That it marked a crisis in the career of Jesus there can be no doubt. From this time He walked consciously under the shadow of the cross. A strict silence on the subject was enjoined upon the three witnesses of His transfiguration until after "the Son of man should have risen again from the dead." This means that, as not before, Jesus was made to realize the sacrificial character of His mission; was made to know for a certainty that death, soon and cruel, was to be His portion; was made to know also that His mission as the fulfilment of Law (Moses) and prophecy (Elijah) was not to be frustrated by death. In His heart now would sound forever the Father's approval, "This is my beloved Son, in whom I am well pleased." The scene, therefore, wrought out in Jesus a new fervor, a new boldness, a new confidence of ultimate victory which, as a source of holy joy, enabled Him to endure the cross and to despise the shame (He 12 2). In the disciples the scene must have wrought a new faith in the heavensent leadership of Jesus. In the dark days which were soon to come upon them the memory of the brightness of that unforgettable night would be a stay and strength. There might be opposition, but there could be no permanent defeat of one whose work was ratified by Moses, by Elijah, by God Himself. Indeed, was not the presence of Moses and Elijah a pledge of immortality for all? How in the face of such evidence, real to them, however it might be to others, could they ever again doubt the triumph of life and of Him who was the Lord of life? The abiding lesson of the Transfiguration is that of the reality of the unseen world, of its nearness to us, and of the comforting and inspiring fact that "spirit with spirit may meet."

The transfigured appearance of Jesus may have owed something to the moonlight on the snow and to the drowsiness of the disciples; but no one who has ever seen the face of a saint fresh from communion with God, as in the case of Moses (Ex 34 29-35) and of Stephen (Acts 6 15), will have any difficulty in believing that

the figure of Jesus was irradiated with a "light that never was on sea or land." See Comms. and Lives of Christ; also a suggestive treatment in Westcott's Intro to the Study of the Gospels.

(2) The transfiguration of Christians is accomplished by the renewing of the mind whereby, in utter abandonment to the will of God, the disciple displays the mind of Christ (Rom 12 2); and ty that intimate fellowship with God, through which, as with unveiled face he beholds the glory of the Lord, he is "transformed into the same image from glory to glory, even as from the Lord the Spirit" (2 Cor 3 18).

TRANSFIGURATION, trans-fig-û-rā'shun, MOUNT OF (referred to as the "holy mount" in 2 Pet 1 18): Records of the Transfiguration are found in Mt 17 1 ff; Mk 9 2 ff; Lk 9 28 ff. From these narratives we gather that Jesus went with His disciples from Bethsaida to the neighborhood of Caesarea Philippi, where Peter's memorable confession was made. Some six or eight days later Jesus went up into a high mountain to pray, taking with Him Peter, James and John. There He was transfigured before them. Descending the next day, He healed a demoniac boy, and then passed through Galilee to Capernaum.

It is quite evident that the tradition placing the scene on the Mount of Olives must be dismissed. Another tradition, dating from the 4th cent.,

1. Not Oli- identifies the mountain with Tabor. In the art. on Tabor, Mount, reasons are vet or Tabor stated for rejecting this tradition. It was indeed possible in the time indicated to travel from Caesarea Philippi to Tabor; but there is nothing to show why this journey should have been undertaken; and, the mountain top being occupied by a town or village, a suitable spot could not easily have been found.

In recent years the opinion has become general that the scene must be placed somewhere on Mt.

Hermon. It is near to Caesarea

2. Mt. Philippi. It is the mountain par excellence in that district (Lk 9 28). It was easily possible in the time to make the journey to Hasbeiyah and up the lofty steeps. The sacred associations of the mountain might lend it special attractions (Stanley, S and P, 399). This is supported by the transient comparison of the celestial splendor with the snow, where alone it could be seen in Pal (ib, 400).

It seems to have been forgotten that Mt. Hermon lay beyond the boundaries of Pal, and that the district round its base was occupied by Gentiles (HJP, II, i, 133 f). The sacred associations of the mountain were entirely heathen, and could have lent it no fitness for the purpose of Jesus; hos chiôn, "as snow," in Mk 9 3, does not belong to the original text, and therefore lends no support to the identification. It was evidently in pursuance of His ordinary custom that Jesus "went up into the mountain to pray" (Lk 9 28). This is the only indication of His purpose. It is not suggested that His object was to be transfigured. "As he was praying," the glory came. There is no hint that He had crossed the border of Pal; and it is not easy to see why in the circumstances He should have made this journey and toilsome ascent in heathen territory. Next morning as usual He went down again, and was met by a crowd that was plainly Jewish. The presence of "the scribes" is sufficient proof of this (Mk 9 14). Where was such a crowd to come from in this gentile district? Matthew in effect says that the healing of the demoniac took place in Galilee (Mt 17 22). The case against Mt. Hermon seems not less conclusive than that against Tabor.

The present writer has ventured to suggest an identification which at least avoids the difficulties that beset the above (*Expos T*, XVIII, 333 f).

Among the mountains of Upper Galilee Jebel Jermuk is esp. conspicuous, its shapely form rising full 4,000 ft. above the sea. It is the highest mountain in Pal proper, and is quite fitly described as hupsēlón ('high''). It stands to the W. over against the Safed uplands, separated from them by



Safed and Jebel Jermuk.

a spacious valley, in the bottom of which runs the tremendous gorge, Wādy Leimūn. It is by far the most striking feature in all the Galilean landscape. The summit commands a magnificent view, barred only to the S.W. by other mountains of the range. It rises from the midst of a district which then supported a large population of Jews, with such important Jewish centers as Kefr Bir'im, Gishcala, Meirōn, etc, around its base. Remote and lonely as it is, the summit was just such a place as Jesus might have chosen for prayer. It was comparatively easy to reach, and might be comfortably climbed in the evening. Then on His descent next day the crowd might easily assemble from the country and the villages near by. How long Our Lord stayed near Caesarea Philippi after the conversation recorded in Mt 16 21ff we do not know. From Baniās to Gishcala, e.g. one could walk on foot without fatigue in a couple of days. If a little time were spent in the Jewish villages passed on the way, the six days, or Luke's "about eight days," are easily accounted for. From this place to Capernaum He would "pass through Galilee" (Mk 9 30).

TRANSFORM, trans-fôrm' (Rom 12 2; RV 2 Cor 3 18 for μεταμορφόσμαι, metamorphóσmai, and AV 2 Cor 11 13.14.15 for μετασχηματίζω, metaschēmatizō, RV "fashion"): The comms. often explain the former word as connoting a change of nature, while the latter refers only to the appearance, but this distinction is probably fanciful.

TRANSGRESSION, trans-gresh'un: From "transgress," to pass over or beyond; to overpass, as any rule prescribed as the limit of duty; to break or violate, as a law, civil or moral; the act of transgressing; the violation of a law or known principle of rectitude; breach of command; offence; crime; sin. In the OT TUD, pesha', occurs 80 t, rendered in all VSS by "transgression." Its meaning is "rebellion"; see Rebellion. The word "rebellion" differs from this word in that it may be in the heart, though no opportunity should be granted for its manifestation: "An evil man seeketh only rebellion" (Prov 17 11). Here the wise man contemplates an evil heart, looking for an excuse or opportunity to rebel.

The NT uses παράβασις, parábasis, "trespass": "The law was added because of transgressions" (Gal 3 19); "Where there is no law, neither is there trans-

gression" (Rom 4 15); "for the redemption of the transgressions that were under the first covenant" (He

DAVID ROBERTS DUNGAN TRANSLATION, trans-la'shun: The vb. "translate" is found once in the OT (2 S 3 10 AV, in the sense of "to transfer") and 3 t in the NT (Col 1 13, μεθίστημ, methistēmi, where it means "to transfer"; twice in He 11 5, where it has the quasitechnical sense of removing one from the earthly to the heavenly state without the intervening ex-

perience of death).

The noun "translation" occurs only in He 11 5, μετάθεσις, metáthesis, where it refers to the transition, the general nature of which has just been described in connection with the vb. With their customary reserve in regard to such matters, the Scriptures simply record the fact of Enoch's translation without commenting either upon the attendant circumstances, or upon the nature of the change involved in his experience. Doubtless what Paul says in 1 Cor 15 51.52 applied in the case of Enoch and also in that of Elijah (2 K 2 11).

W. M. MCPHEETERS

TRAP (שוֹקשׁ , mōķēsh; θήρα, thếra, lit. "hunting, used metaphorically in Pss and Rom as "trap"): Any of the methods for taking birds; see SNARE; NET; GIN, etc. It is probable that a trap was more particularly a hole in the ground covered with twigs, concealed by leaves and baited with food. Such devices were common in taking the largest animals and may have been used with birds also. Trap is mentioned frequently in connection with snare and in such manner as to indicate that they were different devices: "Know for a certainty that Jeh your God will no more drive these nations from out of your sight; but they shall be a snare and a trap unto you" (Josh 23 13). Another such reference will be found in Ps 69 22:

"Let their table before them become a snare; And when they are in peace, let it become a trap."

This is quoted in Rom 11 9:

"Let their table be made a snare, and a trap, And a stumbling block, and a recompense unto them."

An instance where a trap alone is referred to can be found in Jer 5 26: "They set a trap, they catch men." Isa (42 22) uses this expression, "snared in holes." This might mean that a snare was placed in a hole, or that the hole was the snare to lure bird or animal to its death. The former proposition is sustained by Job, who says, "A noose is hid for him in the ground, and a trap for him in the way" (18 10). This tr appears as if it were reversed and should read, "A trap is hid for him in the ground should read, "A trap is hid for him in the ground and a noose in the way."

GENE STRATTON-PORTER TRAVAIL, trav'al (יָבֶּר), yāladh [Gen 35 16, etc], הרל, $h\bar{u}l$, דרל, $h\bar{v}l$ [properly "writhe," Job 15 20, etc]; & \$\delta(\varphi, \bar{\pi}\) din [classical \$\bar{\pi}\) dis [Mt 24 8, etc], & \$\delta(\varphi\varphi\), \$\delta(\varphi\varphi)\$ [Sir 19 11, etc; Gal 4 19, etc]): "Travail" and its derivatives are used in the primary sense of the labor of childbirth, descriptive of the actual cases of Rachel (Gen 35 16), Tamar (Gen 38 27), Ichabod's mother (1 S 4 19), and the apocalyptic woman clothed with the sun (Rev 12 2). In the majority of passages, however, "travail" is used found the apocal part of the suppose average and painful corrections. figuratively, to express extreme and painful sorrow (9 t in Jer), "as of a woman in travail." It is also employed in the sense of irksome and vexatious employed in the sense of in the rendering of business (6 t in Eccl, where it is the rendering of the thousand book "travail" is the word 'inyān'). In the same book "travail" is used to express the toil of one's daily occupation (4.4.6), where it is the tr of 'āmāl. In three places (Ex 18 8; Nu 20 14; Lam 3 5) where AV has "travel" RV has changed it to "travail," as in these passages the word tela'ah refers to the sense of

weariness and toil, rather than to the idea of journeying (in AV the spellings "travel" and "travail" were used indiscriminately; cf Sir 19 11; 31 5). The sorrows which are the fruits of wickedness are compared to the pain of travail in Job 15 20 (hūl) and Ps 7 14 (hābhal), the word used here meaning the torture or twisting pains of labor; see also the fanciful employment of "travail" in Sir 19 11.

In the NT the travail of childbirth is used as the figure of the painful and anxious struggle against the evils of the world in the soul's efforts to attain the higher ideals of the Christian life (Jn 16 21 [tíktō]; Rom 8 22; Gal 4 27); twice, however, it is the rendering of mochthos, the ordinary word for "toil," "hardship" or "distress" (1 Thess 2 9; 2 Thess

3 8). See Birth; Labor.

ALEX. MACALISTER

TRAVELLER, trav'el-er: Jgs 5 6 for הַלַּדָּ נְתִיבָה, hālakh nºthībhāh, "goers on paths"; 2 S 12 4 for אָרָה, hēlekh, lit. "a going"; Job 31 32 for אָרָא, ¹ Tarah, participle of a vb. meaning "to wander"; Sir 26 12; 42 3 for δδοιπόρος, hodoipóros, "one making a way." See Wayfaring Man.

TREAD, tred. See WINE PRESS.

TREASON, trē'z'n: The tr of אָדֶּר, kesher, in EV 1 K 16 20; 2 K 11 14 || 2 Ch 23 13. Kesher (from שָׁבֶּׁ , kāshar, "to bind") means "a conspiracy" (2 S 15 12; 2 K 12 20, etc), and the tr "treason" is due to AV's love of variety.

TREASURE, trezh'ur, TREASURER, trezh'ur-er, TREASURY, trezh'ūr-i (אוֹצָר , 'ōçār, וַבְּלָּ, genaz, ָּבֶּנֶד, genez, דְּנָדְ, ganzakh, דְּכָּה, hōṣen, מַמְמֵרוֹן, matmān, בְּלְבֶּוֹן , miṣkenāh, עָתְלְבָּוֹן , mikhman, בְּלְבָוֹן , sāphan; ץמֹנָם, gáza, θησαυρός, thēsaurós):

I. In the OT .- The Eng. word "treasure" has in the OT.—The Eng. word "treasure" has in the OT at least five somewhat distinct meanings as expressed in the words: "treasure,"

1. Treas—

g*naz (Aram.) or genez (Heb), usually meaning "the thing stored"; trd "treasures" in Ezr 6 1, but in 5 17 and 7 20 trd "treasure-house": "search made in the king's treasure-house." In Est 3 9; 4 7 the Heb form is trd "treasury," as is ganzakh in 1 Ch 28 11.

"Storehouse" rot the thing stored but the place

"Storehouse," not the thing stored but the place of storage; 'õçār means depository, cellar, garner,

armory, store or treasure-house. In several places it ought to be trd by some of these words. It is the most frequent word for treasure. ERV 2. Storehouse and ARV both translate in some instances by other words, e.g. 1 K 7 51, "treasuries of the house of Jeh," so also 2 Ch 5 1; "treasury" in Neh 7 70. 71, "gave to the treasury a thousand darics of gold"; in Job 38 22, "treasuries of the snow" (cf Prov 8 21; Jer 10 13; 51 16; Ezr 2 69).

"Treasure" or something concealed. There are 3 Heb words with this meaning and all in AV trd
"treasure." (1) Matmōn, which lit.

3. Hidden means "a secret storehouse" and so a

secreted valuable, usually money Riches buried, and so hidden riches of any kind, hid treasures: "treasure in your sacks" (Gen 43 23); "dig for it more than for hid treasures" (Job 3 21); "search for her as for hid treasures" (Prov 2 4); "We have stores hidden in the field, of wheat," etc (Jer 41 8). (2) Mikhman, treasure as hidden, used only in Dnl 11 43: "have power over the treasures of gold and silver." (3) Sāphan, meaning hidden treasure or valuables concealed: "hidden treasures of the sand" (Dt 33 19).

Perhaps the strength of riches and so treasure, the Heb word being hösen, from a root meaning to hoard or lay up: "In the house of the 4. Strength righteous is much treasure" (Prov 15 6); "They take treasure and precious

things" (Ezk 22 25).

"Something prepared," made ready, the Heb word being 'āthādh, meaning "prepared," "ready," therefore something of value and so

5. Something Preures," fortifications or other things "made ready" (Isa 10 13).

In the OT the Heb word most often trd "treasure" is ${}^{\prime}\bar{o}_{c}\bar{a}r$. It occurs in the sing, as follows: Dt 28 12; 1 Ch 29 8; Neh 10 38; Ps 17 14; 135 4; Prov 15 16; 21 20; Eccl 2 8; Isa 33 6; Dnl 1 2; Hos 13 15; in the pl.: Dt 32 34; 1 K 14 26; 15 18; 2 K 12 18; 14 14; 16 8; 18 15; 20 13.15; 24 13, etc.

The same word is in AV trd "treasuries" in 1 Ch 9 26; 28 12; 2 Ch 32 27; Neh 13 12.13; Ps 135 7; and "treasury" in Josh 6 19.24; Jer 38 11.

II. In the NT .- There are two words trd "treasure": Gáza is of Pers origin, meaning "treasure."

Found only once in Acts 8 27 concerning the Ethiopian "who was over 1. Gaza all her [Queen Candace's] treasure." In the compound γαζοφυλάκιον, gazophulákion, In the compound $\gamma a_3 opvio a keo,$ gazopui akron, "guarding of gaza," the same word appears and the compound is tr^4 "treasury" in Mk 12 41.43 || Lk 21 1; Jn 8 20. See Temple; Treasury (or

TEMPLE). The word thēsauros, means lit. a "deposit," so wealth and treasure. Evidently throughout the NT it has a twofold usage as describ-

2. Theing (1) material treasure, either money or other valuable material possession, sauros and (2) spiritual treasure, e.g. "like unto treasure hid in a field" (Mt 13 44); "good treasure of the heart" (Mt 12 35). Other references to material treasure are Mt 6 21; 13 52; Lk 12 21.34, etc. References to spiritual treasure are Mt 19 21; Mk 10 21; Lk 6 45; 12 33; 18 22; pl. Mt 6 20; Col 2 3.

In Mt 27 6 the word for "treasury" is κορβανας.

korbanás; cf RVm and see CORBAN.

Treasurer (בְּלָבֶר, 'āçar, בְּלָבֶר, gedhābhār, נְּלָבֶר, לְּבָבר, gizbār, 120, sākhan; οἰκονόμος, οἰκοπόπος): 'Āçar, meaning primarily "to store up," and hence one who lays up in store, i.e. a "treasurer": "I made treasurers over the treasuries" (Neh 13 13). made treasurers over the treasuries" (Neh 13 13). (2) $G^{\circ}dh\bar{a}bh\bar{a}r$ (Aram.), used only in Dnl 3 2.3: "treasurers," named with judges and counsellors as recognized officials. (3) $Gizb\bar{a}r$, used in Ezr 7 21 (Aram.) and equivalent in Ezr 1 8 (Heb): "treasurers beyond the river" and "Mithredath the treasurer." (4) $S\bar{a}khan$, primarily meaning "one who ministers to," and hence a keeper of treasure, treasurer: "Get thee unto this treasurer" (Isa 22 Perhaps the idea of steward is here intended. (5) Oikonomos, by AV trd "chamberlain," more properly in ARV trd "treasurer": "Erastus the treasurer of the city saluteth you" (Rom 16 23).

WILLIAM EDWARD RAFFETY TREASURY, trezh'úr-i (OF TEMPLE) (אוֹנֶיר), 'ōçār, usually; ਜ਼ਹੂਰ, ganzakh, 1 Ch 28 11; γαζο φυλάκιον, gazophulákion, κορβανας, korbanás): The need of a "treasury" in 1. Origin

connection with the house of Jeh would of the early be felt for the reception of the Treasury offerings of the people, of tithes, and of the spoils of war dedicated to Jeh. Already in Josh 6 19.24, therefore, we read of a "treasury of the house of Jeh," into which "the silver and gold,

and vessels of brass and iron," taken at Jericho, were brought. In the reign of David, and in his plans for the future temple, great prominence is given to the "treasuries." In 1 Ch 26 20 ff are given the names of those who were over "the treasures of the house of God," and over "the treasures of the dedicated things" ("the spoil won in battles," ver 27), the latter being applied "to repair the house of Jeh."

In David's plans for Solomon the "treasuries" (ganzakkīm) are mentioned with the "porch," "the houses," the "upper rooms," the "inner chambers" of the Temple (1 Ch 28 11);

and the same distinction is made of Solomonic Temple "the treasuries ['ōç°rōth] of the house of God," and "the treasuries of the dedicated things" (ver 12). In the accounts of the actual building of the Temple, "treasuries" are not mentioned, but subsequent notices give ample evidence of their existence. In the narratives of the repeated plunderings of the Temple (see TEMPLE), constant allusion is made to the carrying away of "the treasures of the house of Jeh" and "the treasures of the kinds and "the treasures" of the kinds and "the treasures of the kinds and "the treasures" of the kinds and "the treasures of the kinds and "the treasures" of ures of the king's house" or palace (1 K 14 26; 15 15.18; 2 K 12 18; 14 14; 16 8; 18 15; 24 13). In the episode of Jehoash's repair of the Temple (2 K 12; 2 Ch 24), we have a refreshing glimpse of the presence and uses of the treasury; but this brighter gleam is soon swallowed up again in darkness. Of the larger store-chambers we get a glance in Jer, where we are told that "the house of the king" was "under the treasury" (38 11), i.e. on a lower level under the south wall.

The Book of Neh introduces us to treasurychambers in the second temple—now used for the

voluntary offerings (tithes) of the people—corn, and wine, and oil (Neh 13 4 ff; cf Mal 3 10). A certain 3. The Second Meshullam had repaired the city wall "over against his chamber" (Neh 3 Temple

30), and he, with other Levites, kept "the watch at the storehouses of the gates" (12 25). These gates were probably gates of exit on the southern

gates were probably gates of each on the southern side, as in the Herodian temple.

In Herod's temple the name "treasury" was specially given to the "court of the women" (see TEMPLE, HEROD's), where were 13

4. Herod's trumpet-shaped boxes for the receptions of the worshippers.

Temple in tion of the offerings of the worshippers. the NT It was here that Jesus saw the poor widow cast in her two mites (Mk 12 41; Lk 21 1-4), and the court is expressly named the "treasury" in Jn 8 20: "These words spake he in the treasury, as he taught in the temple." It is a legitimate deduction that this court was the ordi-

nary scene of the Lord's ministry when teaching in See also Treasure, Treasurer, W. Shaw Caldecott the temple. TREASURY.

TREATY, trē'ti (בְּרֵית , b erīth, בְּרֵית , kārath b erīth, "make a covenant," "league," "treaty"): Although the Israelites were forbidden to make treaties, or enter into covenant, with the Canaanites because of the risk thereby involved of religious apostasy and moral contamination (Ex 23 32; 34 12; Dt 7 2; Jgs 2 2), they were so situated in the midst of the nations that treaty relations of some sort with their neighbors were from time to time inevitable. After the rise of the monarchy, treaties were common. David and Solomon had friendly relations with Hiram, king of Tyre (1 K 5 15 ff); Asa, to rid himself of the hostile approaches of Baasha, king of Israel, entered into a league with Ben-hadad of Syria, which the prophet Hanani denounced (2 Ch 16 1 ff); Ahab entered into a similar compact with Ben-hadad's son and successor, and set him at liberty when he was his prisoner of war (1 K 20 34); and at a later time Jehoshaphat joined Ahab in an expedition against Ben-hadad II to Ramoth-gilead in which Ahab lost his life (1 K

22). Sometimes with Syria and neighboring states against the terrible Assyr power, and sometimes with Egypt against Assyria or Babylon, the kings of Israel and Judah entered into treaty to resist their advances and to preserve their own independence (2 K 17 4; Hos 7 11; Isa 30 1). Against such alliances the prophets raised their testimony (Isa 31 1; Jer 27 3 ff). See also WAR, 9; ROME, V, 1.

T. NICOL Israel and Judah entered into treaty to resist their

TREE, trē. See BOTANY.

TREE OF LIFE (פְּלְים), 'פּֿרָ hayyām; ξόλον τῆς ζωῆς, xúlon tếs zōếs): The expression "tree of life" occurs in four groups or connections: (1) in the story of the Garden of Eden, (2) in the Proverbs of the Wise Men, (3) in the apocryphal writings, and (4) in the Apocalypse of John.

The tree was in the midst of the Garden, and its

fruit of such a nature as to produce physical immortality (Gen 2 9; 3 22). After

1. The Tree guiltily partaking of the tree of the of Life in knowledge of good and evil, and the the Garden sinful tendency having thus been imof Eden planted in their natures, the man and woman are driven forth from the Garden lest they should eat of the tree of life and live forever (3 22). The idea seems to be that, if they should eat of it and become immortalized in their sinful condition, it would be an unspeakable calamity to them and their posterity. For sinful beings to live forever upon earth would be inconceivably disastrous, for the redemption and development of the race would be an impossibility in that condition. Earth would soon have been a hell with sin propagating itself forever. To prevent such a possibility they were driven forth, cherubim were placed at the entrance of the Garden, the flame of a sword revolving every way kept the way of the tree of life, and this prevented the possibility of man possessing a physical immortality. It is implied that they had not yet partaken of this tree and the opportunity is now forever gone. Immortality must be reached in some other way

The interpretation of the story is a standing problem. Is it mythical, allegorical, or historical? Opinions vary from one of these extremes to the other with all degrees of difference between. In general, interpreters may be divided into three

classes:

(1) Many regard the story as a myth, an ancient representation of what men then conceived early man to have been, but with no historical basis behind it. All rationalistic and modern criticals scholars are practically agreed on this. Budde in his Urgeschichte says there was but one tree, that is the tree of the knowledge of good and evil, and the intimation of a tree of life is an interpolation. Barton has endeavored to show that the tree of life was really the date-palm, and the myth gathered around this tree because of its bisexual nature. He holds that man came to his self-realization through the sexual relation, and therefore the date-palm came to be regarded as the tree of life, and the tree of the knowledge of good and evil. But this difference came in later when the knowledge of its origin became obscured. He calls attention to the fact that the sacred palm is found in the sanctuary of Ea at Eridu. All such interpretations are too obviously based upon a materialistic evolution hypothesis.

(2) There are those who regard the entire story as

evolution hypothesis.

(2) There are those who regard the entire story as Ilteral: one tree would actually impart physical immortality, the other the knowledge of evil. But this involves endless difficulties also, requires tremendous differences between the laws of Nature then and now, vast differences in fruits, men and animals, and an equally vast difference in God's dealings with man.

(3) We prefer to regard it as a pictorial-spiritual story, the representing of great spiritual facts and religious history in the form of a picture. is the usual Bible method. It was constantly employed by the prophets, and Jesus continually "pictured" great spiritual facts by means of material objects. Such were most of His parables.

John's Apocalypse is also a series of pictures representing spiritual and moral history. So the tree of life is a picture of the glorious possibilities which lay before primitive man, and which might have been realized by him had not his sin and sinful condition prevented it. God's intervention was a great mercy to the human race. Immortality in sin is rendered impossible, and this has made possible an immortality through redemption; man at first is pictured as neither mortal nor immortal, but both are possible, as represented by the two trees. He sinned and became mortal, and then immortality was denied him. It has since been made possible in a much higher and more glorious way.

This picture was not lost to Israel. The "tree of life," became a common poetic simile to represent

that which may be a source of great 2. A Common Poetic conception deepens from a physical source of a mere physical immortality Simile

to a moral and spiritual source of a full life, mental, moral and spiritual, which will potentially last forever. Life, long life, is here attributed to a certain possession or quality of mind and heart. Wisdom is a source and supply of life to man. This wisdom is essentially of a moral quality, and this moral force brings the whole man into right relations with the source of life. Hence a man truly lives by reason of this relationship (Prov 3 18). The allusion in this verse is doubtless to Gen 2 9; 3 22. An expression very similar is Prov 10 11, where the mouth of the righteous is declared to be a fountain of life. Good words are a power for good, and hence produce good living. Prov 11 30 has a like thought: "The fruit of the righteous is a tree of life," i.e. the good life is a source of good in its influence on others. Prov 13 12 says: "Hope deferred maketh the heart sick; but when the desire cometh, it is a tree of life." The meaning seems to be that the gratification of good and lawful desires produces those pleasures and activities which make up life and its blessings. Prov 15 4 says: "A gentle tongue is a tree of life," i.e. its beneficent influences help others to a better life.

The apocryphal writings contain a few references to the tree of life, but use the phrase in a different sense from that in which it is used in the canonical books: "They shall have the tree of life for an ointment of sweet savour" (2 Esd 2 12).

Writings to it. Ethiopic Enoch, in his picture of the Messianic age, uses his imagination very freely in describing it: "It has a fragrance beyond all fragrances; its leaves and bloom and wood wither not forever; its fruit is beautiful and resembles the date-palm" (24 4). Slavonic Enoch speaks thus: "In the midst there is the tree of life... and this tree cannot be described for its excellence and sweet odor" (8 3). 2 Esd describing the future says: "Unto you is paradise opened, the tree of life is planted" (8 52).

The Apocalypse of John refers to the tree of life in three places (Rev 2 7; 22 2.14). These are pictures of the glorious possibilities of life which await the redeemed soul. 4. The In Ezekiel's picture of the ideal state Book of and the Messianic age, there flows Rev from the sanctuary of God a life-giving river having trees upon its banks on either side, yielding fruit every month. The leaf of this tree would not wither, nor its fruit fail, because that which gave moisture to its roots flowed from the which gave moisture to us foots howed home the sanctuary. This fruit was for food and the leaves for medicine (47 12). Very similar to this and probably an expansion of it is John's picture in Rev: "To him that overcometh, to him will I give to eat of the tree of life, which is in the Paradise of God" (2 7). This means that all the possibilities of a complete and glorious life are open to the one that overcomes, and by overcoming is prepared to

become immortal in a vastly higher sense than was

possible to primitive man. In his picture of the New Jerus, the river of water of life has the tree of life on either side (22 2). Its leaf never fades and its monthly fruitage never fails. Food and medicine these are to be to the world, supplied freely to all that all may enjoy the highest possibilities of activity and blessedness which can come to those who are in right relationships with God and Jesus Christ. In 22 14 John pronounces a blessing on those who wash their robes, who lead the clean and pure Christ life, for they thereby have the right and privilege of entering into the gates of the City and partaking of the tree of life. This means not only immortal existence, but such relations with Jesus Christ and the church that each has unrestricted access to all that is good in the universe of God. The limit is his own limited capacity.

JAMES JOSIAH REEVE TREES, GOODLY. See GOODLY TREES.

TREES, SHADY, shā'di. See Lotus Trees.

TREES, THICK. See THICK TREES.

TRENCH, trench, trensh. See Siege, (5), (8).

TRESPASS, tres'pas: To pass over, to go beyond one's right in place or act; to injure another; to do that which annoys or inconveniences another; any violation of law, civil or moral; it may relate to a person, a community, or the state, or to offences against God. The Heb DWN, 'āshām ("sin"), is used very frequently in the OT when the trespass is a violation of law of which God is the author. The Gr word is παράπτωμα, paráptōma.

In the OT an offering was demanded when the offence was against God: a female lamb; in other cases, according to the magnitude of the wrong, a ram or a goat; the offering was to be preceded by a confession by the one committing the trespass. If the trespass was against a human being, the wrongdoer must make it right with the person, and when reconciliation should have been effected, then the offering for sin was to be made. See under SACRIFICE IN THE OT, "Trespass Offering." If a person's property has been injured, then the trespasser shall add a fifth to the value of the property injured and give that to the injured party (Lev 6 5). Zacchaeus, wanting to make full restitution, went beyond the demands of the Law (Lk 19 1-9).

The NT teaching on the subject is, first to be reconciled to the brother and then offer, or worship (Mt 5 23.24). In all cases, also, the offended party must forgive if the offender shall say, "I repent" (Mt 6 14; Eph 4 32; Col 3 13). We have been alienated by our trespasses from God (Eph 2 1). It was the Father's good will to reconcile all to Himself through Christ (Col 1 20-22). We must be reconciled to God (2 Cor 5 20.21). This being done, our trespasses shall be forgiven and we shall DAVID ROBERTS DUNGAN be justified.

TRESPASS OFFERING. See Sacrifice in the

TRIAL, trī'al. See Courts, Judicial; San-HEDRIN.

TRIAL OF JESUS. See JESUS, ARREST AND TRIAL OF.

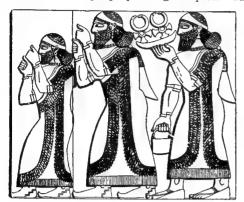
TRIBE, trib (in the OT always for コロウ , matteh, 183 t, or ロスツ, shēbhet, 145 t, also spelled ロスツ shebhet; Aram. ኳሷኒ , shebhat [Ezr 6 17]): Both words mean "staff," and perhaps "company led by chief with staff" (OHL, 641) is the origin of the meaning "tribe." In the Apoc and NT always for $\phi \nu \lambda \eta$, phulž, from $\phi \nu \omega$, phulž, "beget," with δωδεκάφυλον, dōdekáphulon, "twelve tribes," in Acts **26** 7. Of the two Heb words, shebhet appears to be considerably the older, and is used in Ps 74 2; Jer 10 16; 51 19 of the whole people of Israel, and in Nu 4 18; Jgs 20 12 (RVm); 1 S 9 21 (RVm) of subdivisions of a tribe (but the text of most of these six verses is suspicious). Further, in Isa 19 13, shēbhet is used of the "tribes" (nomes?) of Egypt and phulē in Mt 24 30 of "all the tribes of the earth," but otherwise shēbhet, matteh and phulē refer exclusively to the tribes of Israel. In 2 S 7 7 for shibhetē, "tribes," read shōphetē, "judges" (cf RVm).

BURTON SCOTT EASTON TRIBULATION, trib-ū-lā'shun (¬և, çar, ¬և, çār, "staid," "narrow," "pent up"; cf Nu 22 26): Closely pressed, as of seals (Job 41 15[7]); of 1. In the OT limited (Prov 24 10, "small"). Hence,

of the hardships which Christ's followers would suffer (Mt 13 21; 24 9.21.29; Mk 4 17; 13 19. 24; Jn 16 33; 1 Cor 7 28); or which they are now passing through (Rom 5 3; 12 12; 2 Cor 4 17; Phil 4 14); or through which they have already come (Acts 11 19; 2 Cor 2 4; Rev 7 14).

EDWARD BAGBY POLLARD TRIBUTE, trib'ūt (O'), mas, "tribute," really meaning "forced laborers," "labor gang" [1 K 4 6; 9 15.21]; also "forced service," "serfdom"; possibly "forced payment" is meant in Est 10 1; the idea contained in the modern word is better given by 177, middāh [Ezr 6 8; Neh 5 4]): Words used only of the duty levied for Jeh on acquired spoils are DD, mekhes, "assessment" (Nu 31 28.37.38.39.40. , mekhes, לאל, ליב, belō, "excise" (Ezr 4 13.20; Neh 7 24), massā', "burden" (2 Ch 17 11), and שָּלֶט, 'ōnesh, "fine" or "indemnity" (2 K 23 33; cf Prov 19 19). The tr "tribute" for רבו אוניים, miṣṣath, in Dt 16 10 is wrong (cf RVm). $\kappa \hat{\eta} \nu \sigma \sigma_s$, $k \hat{e} n s \sigma_s$ (Mt 22 17; Mk 12 14) = "census," while $\phi \phi \rho \sigma_s$, $p h \hat{\sigma} r \sigma_s$ (Lk 20 22; 23 2; Rom 13 6.7), signifies an annual tax on persons, houses, lands, both being direct The phóroi were paid by agriculturists, payment being made partly in kind, partly in money, and are contrasted with the têlē of the publicans, while ke nsos is strictly a poll tax. The amount of tribute required as a poll tax by the Romans was the $\delta l \delta \rho a \chi \mu o \nu$, didrachmon (Mt 17 24), AV "tribute," RV "half-shekel." The $\sigma \tau a \tau \eta \rho$, stater (ver 27), was a tetradrachm, "one shekel," or pay for two. After the destruction of Jerus, the Jews were re-

quired to pay this poll tax toward the support of the worship of Jupiter Capitolinus. Different kinds of personal taxes were raised by the Romans: (1) an income tax, (2) the poll tax. The latter must be paid by women and slaves as well as by free men, only children and aged people being exempted. The



A Subject People Paying Tribute.

payment exacted began with the 14th year in the case of men and the 12th in the case of women, the obligation remaining in force up to the 65th year in the case of both. For purposes of assessment, each person was permitted to put his own statement on record. After public notice had been given by the government, every citizen was expected to respond without personal visitation by an official (see Lk 2 1 ff). On the basis of the records thus voluntarily made, the tax collectors would enforce the payment of the tribute. See also Tax, Taxing.

Frank E. Hirsch

TRIBUTE MONEY (τὸ νόμισμα τοῦ κήνσου, tό nómisma toù kếnsou [Mt 22 19], "the coin used in payment of the imperial taxes"): Lit. "the lawful money of the tax," which, in the case of the poll tax, had to be paid in current coin of the realm (see Mt 17 27).

TRICLINIUM, tri-klin'i-um (Lat from Gr τρικλίνιον, triklinion, from tri and klinē, "a couch"): A couch for reclining at meals among the ancient Romans, arranged along three sides of a square, the fourth side being left open for bringing in food or tables, when these were used. In the larger Rom houses the dining-rooms consisted of small alcoves in the atrium arranged to receive triclinia. In early OT times people sat at their meals (Gen 27 19; Jgs 19 6; 1 S 20 5; 1 K 13 20). Reclining was a luxurious habit imported from foreign countries by the degenerate aristocracy in the days of the later prophets (Am 2 8; 6 4). Still, we find it common in NT times (Mt 9 10; 26 7; Mk 6 22.39; 14 3.18; Lk 5 29; 7 36.37; 14 10; 17 7; Jn 12 2; in these passages, though EV reads "sat," the Gr words are anakeimai, sunanakeimai, anapipto, katákeimai and anaklinō, all indicating "reclining"; cf Jn 13 23; 21 20; here AV translates these words "lean," probably with reference to the Jewish custom of leaning at the Passover feast). In Jn 2 8.9 the ruler or governor of the feast is called architriklinos, that is, the master of the triclinium. See Meals, III. Nathan Isaacs

TRIM: The only non-modern use is in Jer 2 33 "How trimmest thou thy way to seek love!" used for לְּבָּל, yāṭabh, "to make good," here "to study out," and the whole phrase means "to walk in an artificial manner," "like a courtesan." TRINE (TRIUNE) IMMERSION, trīn (trī'ūn)

I. LINGUISTIC BASIS

1. Immersion 2. Triple Action

2. Triple Action
II. DOCTRINAL ARGUMENT
III. HISTORICAL PRACTICE
1. The Jews
2. John the Baptist
3. The Didache
4. Justin Martyr
5. Tertullian
5. Purpomius

6. Eunomius 7. Greek Church

LITERATURE

I. Linguistic Basis.—The meaning of the word $\beta \alpha \pi \tau l \zeta \omega$, baptizō, is "to dip repeatedly," "to submerge" (Thayer, Gr Lex. NT). It is

merge" (Thayer, Gr Lex. NT). It is probably the frequentative of βάπτω, δαρτδ, "to dip," meaning "to dip repeatedly." The word baptizδ (and βάπτωμα, bάptisma) in the NT is "used absolutely, 'to administer the rite of ablution,' 'to baptize'" (ib). It is "an immersion in water, performed as a sign of the removal of sin," etc (ib); "Baptizō, to dip in or under water" (Liddell and Scott, Gr Lex." Lex.).

The threefold immersion is based upon the Trinity into which the believer is to be baptized "into the name of the Father and of

2. Triple the Son and of the Holy Spirit" (εls τὸ ὅνομα τοῦ πατρὸς καὶ τοῦ υἱοῦ καὶ τοῦ Action άγιου πνεύματος, eis to onoma toù patros kaí toú huioú kaí toú hagiou pneúmatos, Mt 28 19).

(On the genuineness of this passage see Plummer, Comm. on Mt.)

II. Doctrinal Argument.—Whether Jesus spoke the words of Mt 28 19 as a baptismal formula or not does not affect the question. The passages in Acts, "in the name of Jesus Christ" (2 38; 10 48), and "in the name of the Lord Jesus" (8 16; 19 5), are not baptismal formulae, but mean the confession of Christ with all that Christ stands for, viz. the fulness of God and His salvation. The idea of the Trinity pervades the NT and many of the earliest writings (cf 1 Cor 12 4-6; 2 Cor 13 14; Eph 2 18; 3 14-17; 4 4-6; 2 Thess 2 13-15; He 6 4-6; 1 Jn 3 23.24; 4 2; Jude vs 20.21; Rev 1 4.5). "Baptized into Christ" has the same religious content as Mt 28 19. Triune immersion is the symbol of baptism into the Triune God. All believers in the Trinity should see the consistency of this symbol. Baptism is the symbol (1) of a complete cleansing, (2) of death, (3) of burial, (4) of resurrection, and (5) of entering into full union and fellowship with the Triune God as revealed by Triune immersion is the only symbol that symbolizes all that baptism stands for. Note the words of Sanday on Rom 6 1–14 (comm. on Rom, ICC, 153): "Baptism has a double function:

(1) It brings the Christian into personal contact with Christ, so close that it may fitly be described as personal union with Him. (2) It expresses symbolically a series of acts corresponding to the redeeming acts of Christ. Immersion = Death. Submersion = Burial (the ratification of Death). Emergence = Resurrection. All these the Christian has to undergo in a moral and spiritual sense, and by means of his union with Christ." Hence the psychological need of a true symbol, triune immersion, to teach and impress the significance of the new

III. Historical Practice.—The Jews received proselytes by circumcision, baptism (complete immersion) and sacrifice (Schürer, HJP,

1. The

II, 2, pp. 319 f; Edersheim, LTJM,

II, 745, and I, 273).

John the Baptist baptized "in the

river Jordan'. (Mt 3 6) and "in Ænon near to

Salim, because there was much water there" (Jn 3 23). Philip and the eunuch "both went down into the water' and they "came up 2. John the out of the water." All NT baptisms were by immersion (see also Rom 6 Baptist

1-11)

The Didacke (100-150 AD) ch vii: "Baptize into the name of the Father and of the Son and of the Holy Spirit in living [running] water.

But if they have not living water, baptize into other water; and if thou canst not in cold, in warm" (βαπτίσατε 3. The Didache els τὸ ὄνομα τοῦ πατρὸς καὶ τοῦ υἰοῦ καὶ τοῦ ἀγίου πνεύματος έν ὕδατι ζώντι, baptisate eis tó ónoma toú patrós kai tou huiou kai tou hagiou pneumatos en hudati zônti). "But if thou have not either, pour out water thrice $[\tau \rho ls, tris]$ upon the head into the name of the Father and Son and Holy Spirit." Here the triple action is maintained throughout, even in

clinical baptism, while immersion is the rule. Justin Martyr (Ap., i.61) describes baptism which can only be understood as triune im-

mersion.

Tertullian (De Corona, iii) says, "Hereupon we are thrice immersed" 4. Justin Martyr (dehing ter mergitamur). Again (Ad

Praxeam, xxvi), "And lastly he commands them to baptize into the Father and the Son and the Holy

Spirit, not into a unipersonal God. And indeed it is not only once but 5. Tertullian three times that we are immersed into the Three Persons, at each several mention of their names" (nam nec semel, sed ter, ad singula nomina, in personas singulos, tinguimur).

Eunomius (c 360) introduced single immersion "into the death of Christ." This innovation was condemned. Apos Const, 50, says, "If any presbyter or bishop does not perform the one initiation with three immersions, but with giving one immersion only into the death of the Lord, let him be deposed." Single immersion was allowed by Gregory the Great (c 691) to the church in Spain in opposition to the Arians who used a trine (not triune) immersion (Epis., i.43). This was exceptional.

The Gr church has always baptized by triune The historical practice of the Chrisimmersion.

tian church may well be summed up in the words of Dean Stanley: "There 7. Greek can be no question that the original Church form of baptism-the very meaning

of the word-was complete immersion in the deep baptismal waters; and that for at least four centuries, any other form was either unknown, or regarded, unless in the case of dangerous illness, as an exceptional, almost monstrous case. . . few drops of water are now the western substitute for the threefold plunge into the rushing river or the wide baptisteries of the East" (Hist of Eastern Church, 28). "For the first three centuries the almost universal practice of baptism was that those who were baptized, were plunged, submerged, immersed into the water" (Christian Institutions, p. 21). See further, Baptism; Literature, Sub-

p. 21). See Iuther, Barry,
Apostolic, II, 5.

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ERE; Bible Dicts.; Church Fathers; Church Histories,
and Histories of Baptism.

Daniel Webster Kurtz

TRINITY, trin'i-ti:

The Term 'Trinity''
Purely a Revealed Doctrine
No Rational Proof of It
Finds Support in Reason
Not Clearly Revealed in the OT
Prepared for in the OT
Presupposed Rather Than Inculcated in the NT
Revealed in Manifestation of Son and Spirit
Implied in the Whole NT
Conditions the Whole NT

Father and Son in Johannine Discourses

11. Father and Son in Johannine Discourses
12. Spirit in Johannine Discourses
13. The Baptismal Formula
14. Genuineness of Baptismal Formula
15. Paul's Trinitarianism
16. Conjunction of the Three in Paul
17. Trinitarianism of Other NT Writers
18. Variations in Nomenclature
19. Implications of "Son" and "Spirit"
20. The Question of Subordination
21. Witness of the Christian Consciousness
22. Formulation of the Doctrine
LITERATURE

The term "Trinity" is not a Bib. term, and we are not using Bib. language when we define what is

1. The Term "Trinity"

expressed by it as the doctrine that there is one only and true God, but in the unity of the Godhead there are three coeternal and coequal Persons, the same in substance but distinct in

subsistence. A doctrine so defined can be spoken of as a Bib. doctrine only on the principle that the sense of Scripture is Scripture. And the definition of a Bib. doctrine in such un-Bib. language can be justified only on the principle that it is better to preserve the truth of Scripture than the words of Scripture. The doctrine of the Trinity lies in Scripture in solution; when it is crystallized from its solvent it does not cease to be Scriptural, but only comes into clearer view. Or, to speak without figure, the doctrine of the Trinity is given to us in Scripture, not in formulated definition, but in fragmentary allusions; when we assemble the disjecta membra into their organic unity, we are not passing from Scripture, but entering more thoroughly into the meaning of Scripture. We may state the doctrine in technical terms, supplied by philosophical reflection; but the doctrine stated is a genuinely Scriptural doctrine.

In point of fact, the doctrine of the Trinity is purely a revealed doctrine. That is to say, it

embodies a truth which has never been 2. Purely a discovered, and is indiscoverable, by Revealed natural reason. With all his searching, man has not been able to find out Doctrine for himself the deepest things of God.

Accordingly, ethnic thought has never attained a Trinitarian conception of God, nor does any ethnic religion present in its representations of the Divine being any analogy to the doctrine of the Trinity.

religion present in its representations of the Divine being any analogy to the doctrine of the Trinity.

Triads of divinities, no doubt, occur in nearly all polytheistic religions, formed under very various influences. Sometimes, as in the Egyp triad of Osiris, Isis and Horus, it is the analogy of the human family with its father, mother and son which lies at their basis. Sometimes they are the effect of mere syncretism, three deities worshipped in different localities being brought together in the common worship of all. Sometimes, as in the Hindu triad of Brahma, Vishnu and Shiva, they represent the cyclic movement of a pantheistic evolution, and symbolize the three stages of Being, Becoming and Dissolution. Sometimes they are the result apparently of nothing more than an odd human tendency to think in threes, which has given the number three wide-spread standing as a sacred number (so H. Usener). It is no more than was to be anticipated, that one or another of these triads should now and again be pointed to as the replica (or even the original) of the Christian doctrine of the Trinity. Gladstone found the Trinity in the Homeric mythology, the trident of Possidon being its symbol. Hegel very naturally found it in the Hindu Trimurti, which indeed is very like his pantheizing notion of what the Trinity is. Others have perceived it in the Buddhist Triratna (Söderblom); or (despite their crass dualism) in some speculations of Parseesing; or, more frequently, in the notional triad of Platonism (e.g. Knapp); while Jules Martin is quite sure that it is present in Philo's neo-Stoical doctrine of the "powers," esp. when applied to the explanation of Abraham's three visitors. Of late years, eyes have been turned rather to Babylonia; and H. Zimmern finds a possible forerumer of the Trinity in a Father, Son, and Intercessor, which he discovers in its mythology. It should be needless to say that none of these risads has the slightest resemblance to the Christian doctrine of the Trinity embodies much more than the notion of

As the doctrine of the Trinity is indiscoverable by reason, so it is incapable of proof from reason. There are no analogies to it in Nature, not even in the spiritual nature of man, 3. No Rational who is made in the image of God. In Proof of It His trinitarian mode of being, God is unique; and, as there is nothing in the universe like Him in this respect, so there is nothing which can help us to comprehend Him. Many attempts have, nevertheless, been made to construct a rational proof of the Trinity of the Godhead. Among these there are two which are particularly attractive, and have therefore been put forward again and again by speculative thinkers through all the Christian ages. These are derived from the implications, in the one case, of self-consciousness; in the other, of love. Both selfconsciousness and love, it is said, demand for their very existence an object over against which the self stands as subject. If we conceive of God as self-conscious and loving, therefore, we cannot help conceiving of Him as embracing in His unity some form of plurality. From this general position both arguments have been elaborated, however, by

various thinkers in very varied forms.

arguments have been elaborated, however, by various thinkers in very varied forms.

The former of them, for example, is developed by a great 17th-cent, theologian—Bartholomew Keckermann (1614)—as follows: God is self-conscious thought; and God's thought must have a perfect object, existing eternally before it; this object to be perfect must be itself God; and as God is one, this object which is God must be the God that is one. It is essentially the same argument which is popularized in a famous paragraph (§73) of Lessing's The Education of the Human Race. Must not God have an absolutely perfect representation of Himself—that is, a representation in which everything that is in Him is found? And would everything that is in God be found in this representation it? If everything, everything without exception, that is in God is to be found in this representation, it cannot, therefore, remain a mere empty image, but must be an actual duplication of God. It is obvious that arguments like this prove too much. If God's representation of Himself, to be perfect, must possess the same kind of reality that He Himself possesses, it does not seem easy to deny that His representations of everything else must possess objective reality. And this would be as much as to say that the eternal objective coexistence of all that God can conceive is given in the very idea of God; and that is open pantheism. The logical flaw lies in including in the perfection of a representation qualities which are not proper to a representations, however perfect. A perfect representation must, of course, have all the reality proper to a representations, however perfect. A perfect representation must, of course, have all the reality proper to a representation, but objective reality is so little proper to a representation that a representation. This fatal flaw is not transcended, but only covered up, when the argument is compressed, as it is in most of its modern presentations, in effect to the mere assertion that the condition of self-consciousness is a

a standing public which mits only a very standing solution.

The case is much the same with the argument derived from the nature of love. Our sympathies go out to that old Valentinian writer—possibly it was Valentinus himself—who reasoned—perhaps he was the first so to reason—that "God is all love," "but love is not love unless there be an object of love." And they go out more richly still to Augustine, when, seeking a basis, not for a theory of emanations, but for the doctrine of the Trinity, he analyzes this love which God is into the triple implication of "the lover," "the loved" and "the love itself," and sees in this trinary of love an analogue of the Triune God. It requires, however, only that the argument thus broadly suggested should be developed into its details for its artificiality to become apparent. Richard of St. Victor works it out as follows: It belongs to the nature of amor that it should turn to another as caritas. This other, in God's case, cannot be the world;

since such love of the world would be inordinate. It can only be a person; and a person who is God's equal in eternity, power and wisdom. Since, however, there cannot be two Divine substances, these two Divine persons must form one and the same substance. The best love cannot, however, confine itself to these two persons; it must become condilectic by the desire that a third should be equally loved as they love one another. Thus love, when perfectly conceived, leads necessarily to the Trinity, and since God is all He can be, this Trinity must be real. Modern writers (Sartorius, Schöberlein, J. Müller, Liebner, most lately R. H. Grützmacher) do not seem to have essentially improved upon such a statement as this. And after all is said, it does not appear clear that God's own all-perfect Being could not supply a satisfying object of His all-perfect love. To say that in its very nature love is self-communicative, and therefore implies an object other than self, seems an abuse of figurative language.

Perhaps the ontological proof of the Trinity is nowhere since such love of the world would be inordinate.

not supply a satisfying object of His all-perfect love. To say that in its very nature love is self-communicative, and therefore implies an object other than self, seems an abuse of figurative language.

Perhaps the ontological proof of the Trinity is nowhere more attractively put than by Jonathan Edwards. The peculiarity of his presentation of it lies in an attempt to add plausibility to it by a doctrine of the nature of spiritual ideas or ideas of spiritual things, such as thought, love, fear, in general. Ideas of such things, he urges, are just repetitions of them, so that he who has an idea of any act of love, fear, anger or any other act or motion of the mind, simply so far repeats the motion in question; and if the idea be perfect and complete, the original motion of the mind is absolutely reduplicated. Edwards presses this so far that he is ready to contend that if a man could have an absolutely perfect idea of all that was in his mind at any past moment, he would really to all intents and purposes, be over again what he was at that moment. And if he could perfectly contemplate all that is in his mind at any given moment, as it is and at the same time that it is there in its first and direct existence, he would really be two at that time, he would be himself again." This inow is the case with the Divine Being. "God's idea of Himself is absolutely perfect, and therefore is an express and perfect image of Him, exactly like Him in every respect. . . . But that which is the express, perfect image of God and in every respect like Him is every respect. In the second Person of the Trinity being thus attained, the argument advances. "The Godhead being thus begotten of God's loving lhaving? I an idea of Himself and showing forth in a distinct Subsistence or Person in that idea, there proceeds a most pure act, and an infinitely holy and sacred energy arises between the Father and the Son in mutually loving and delighting in each other. . . The Deity becomes all act, the Divine essence itself flows out and is as it

Inconclusive as all such reasoning is, however, considered as rational demonstration of the reality of the Trinity, it is very far from possessing no value. It carries home 4. Supto us in a very suggestive way the superiority of the Trinitarian concepported by Reason tion of God to the conception of Him as an abstract monad, and thus brings important rational support to the doctrine of the Trinity, when once that doctrine has been given us by revelation. If it is not quite possible to say that we cannot conceive of God as eternal self-consciousness and eternal love, without conceiving Him as a Trinity, it does seem quite necessary to say that when we conceive Him as a Trinity, new fulness, richness, force are given to our conception of Him as a self-conscious, loving Being, and therefore we conceive Him more adequately than as a monad, and no one who has ever once conceived Him as a

Trinity can ever again satisfy himself with a monad-

istic conception of God. Reason thus not only performs the important negative service to faith in the Trinity, of showing the self-consistency of the doctrine and its consistency with other known truth, but brings this positive rational support to it of discovering in it the only adequate conception of God as self-conscious spirit and living love. Difficult, therefore, as the idea of the Trinity in itself is, it does not come to us as an added burden upon our intelligence; it brings us rather the solution of the deepest and most persistent difficulties in our conception of God as infinite moral Being, and illuminates, enriches and elevates all our thought of God. It has accordingly become a commonplace to say that Christian theism is the only stable theism. That is as much as to say that theism requires the enriching conception of the Trinity to give it a permanent hold upon the human mind—the mind finds it difficult to rest in the idea of an abstract unity for its God; and that the human heart cries out for the living God in whose Being there is that fulness of life for which the conception of the Trinity alone provides.

out for the living God in whose Being there is that fulness of life for which the conception of the Trinity alone provides.

So strongly is it felt in wide circles that a Trinitarian conception is essential to a worthy idea of God, that there is abroad a deep-cated unwillingness to allow that God could ever have made Himself known otherwise than as a Trinity. From this point of view it is inconceivable that the OT revelation should know nothing of the Trinity. Revealed in the OT knower—and this is the faith of universal Christendom—a living idea of God must be thought in some way after a Trinitarian fashion, it must be antecedently probable that traces of the Trinity cannot be lacking in the OT, since its idea of God is in must be antecedently probable that traces of the Trinity cannot be lacking in the OT, since its idea of God is a nice question. Certainly we cannot speak broadly of the revelation of the doctrine of the Trinity. In the OT, is a nice question. Certainly we cannot speak broadly of the revelation embodied in the OT alone have ever attained to the doctrine of the Trinity. It is another question, however, whether there may not exist in the pages of the OT urns of expression or records of occurrences it which one already acquainted with the doctrine that Trinity in such phenomena as the pl. form of the Divine name Blohim, the occasional employment with reference to God of pl. pronouns (*Let us make man in our image," Gen 1 26; 3 22; 17; 64.

110 1; Hos 17), threefold liturgical formias (bt 16; Nu 6 24.26; 1sa 6 3), a certain tendency to hypotatize the conception of Wisdom (Prov 8), and espite remarkable phenomena of God which seem to distinct the seem of the Angel of Joh (Gen 16 2-13; 28). 11.

11.13; 48 15.16; Ex 3 2.25; 1; which go and the planning of the restance of the Angel of Joh (Gen 16 2-13; 28). 11.

12. So 3 6; Isa 6 1; ex 9 2.5; Isa 48 16; So 1; Isa 6 1; so a ppeal, not so much to specific texts of the Question. Passages like Ps 33 6; Isa 61 1: 63 9-12; Hag 2 5.6, in which God and His Wo

in the Christian revelation. And we can scarcely stop there. After all is said, in the light of the later revelation, the Trinitarian interpretation remains the most natural one of the phenomena which the older writers frankly interpreted as intimations of the Trinity; esp. of those connected with the descriptions of the Angel of Jeh, no doubt, but also even of such a form of expression as meets us in the "Let us make man in our image" of Gen 1 26—for surely ver 27: "And God created man in his own image," does not encourage us to take the preceding verse as announcing that man was to be created in the image of the angels. This is not an illegitimate reading of NT ideas back into the text of the OT; it is only reading the text of the OT under the OT; it is only reading the text of the OT may be likened to a chamber richly furnished but dimly lighted; the introduction of light brings into it nothing which was not in it before; but it brings out into clearer view much of what is in it but was only dimly or even not at all perceived before. The mystery of the Trinity is not revealed in the OT; but the mystery of the Trinity inderlies the OT revelation, and here and there almost comes into view. Thus the OT revelation of God is not corrected by the fuller revelation which follows it, but only perfected, extended and enlarged.

It is an old saying that what becomes patent in the NT was latent in the OT. And it is important that the continuity of the revelation of

6. Prepared God contained in the two Testaments should not be overlooked or obscured. for in the OT If we find some difficulty in perceiving

for ourselves, in the OT, definite points of attachment for the revelation of the Trinity, we cannot help perceiving with great clearness in the NT abundant evidence that its writers felt no incongruity whatever between their doctrine of the Trinity and the OT conception of God. The NT writers certainly were not conscious of being "setters forth of strange gods." To their own apprehension they worshipped and proclaimed just the God of Israel; and they laid no less stress than the OT itself upon His unity (Jn 17 3; 1 Cor 8 4; 1 Tim 2 5). They do not, then, place two new gods by the side of Jeh, as alike with Him to be served and worshipped; they conceive Jeh as Himself at once Father, Son and Spirit. In presenting this one Jeh as Father, Son and Spirit, they do not even betray any lurking feeling that they are making innovations. Without apparent misgiving they take over OT passages and apply them to Father, Son and Spirit indifferently. Obviously they understand themselves, and wish to be understood, as setting forth in the Father, Son and Spirit just the one God that the God of the OT revelation is; and they are as far as possible from recognizing any breach between themselves and the Fathers in presenting their enlarged conception of the Divine This may not amount to saying that they saw the doctrine of the Trinity everywhere taught in the OT. It certainly amounts to saying that they saw the Triune God whom they worshipped in the God of the OT revelation, and felt no incongruity in speaking of their Triune God in the terms of the OT revelation. The God of the OT was their God, and their God was a Trinity, and their sense of the identity of the two was so complete that no question as to it was raised in their minds.

The simplicity and assurance with which the NT writers speak of God as a Trinity have, however,

a further implication. If they betray no sense of novelty in so speaking of 7. Presupposed Him, this is undoubtedly in part bein the NT cause it was no longer a novelty so to

speak of Him. It is clear, in other words, that, as we read the NT, we are not witnessing the birth of a new conception of God. we meet with in its pages is a firmly established conception of God underlying and giving its tone to the whole fabric. It is not in a text here and there that the NT bears its testimony to the doctrine of the Trinity. The whole book is Trinitarian to the core; all its teaching is built on the assumption of the Trinity; and its allusions to the Trinity are frequent, cursory, easy and confident. It is with a view to the cursoriness of the allusions to it in the NT that it has been remarked that "the doctrine of the Trinity is not so much heard as over-heard in the statements of Scripture." It would be more exact to say that it is not so much inculcated as presupposed. The doctrine of the Trinity does not appear in the NT in the making, but as already made. It takes its place in its pages, as Gunkel phrases it, with an air almost of complaint, already "in full completeness" (voiling fertig), leaving no trace of its growth. "There is nothing more wonderful in the history of human thought," says Sanday, with his eye on the appearance of the doctrine of the Trinity in the NT, "than the silent and imperceptible way in which this doctrine, to us so difficult, took its place without struggle-and without controversy—among accepted Christian truths." The explanation of this remarkable phenomenon is, however, simple. Our NT is not a record of the development of the doctrine or of its assimilation. It everywhere presupposes the doctrine as the fixed possession of the Christian community; and the process by which it became the possession of the Christian community lies behind the NT.

We cannot speak of the doctrine of the Trinity, therefore, if we study exactness of speech, as re-

vealed in the NT, any more than we can speak of it as revealed in the OT. 8. Manifested in The OT was written before its revelation; the NT after it. The revela-tion itself was made not in word but Son and Spirit

in deed. It was made in the incarnation of God the Son, and the outpouring of God the Holy Spirit. The relation of the two Testaments to this revelation is in the one case that of preparation for it, and in the other that of product of it. The revelation itself is embodied just in Christ and the Holy Spirit. This is as much as to say that the revelation of the Trinity was incidental to, and the inevitable effect of, the accomplishment of redemption. It was in the coming of the Son of God in the likeness of sinful flesh to offer Himself a sacrifice for sin; and in the coming of the Holy Spirit to convict the world of sin, of righteousness and of judgment, that the Trinity of Persons in the Unity of the Godhead was once for all revealed to men. Those who knew God the Father, who loved them and gave His own Son to die for them; and the Lord Jesus Christ, who loved them and delivered Himself up an offering and sacrifice for them; and the Spirit of Grace, who loved them and dwelt within them a power not themselves, making for righteousness, knew the Triune God and could not think or speak of God otherwise than as triune. The doctrine of the Trinity, in other words, is simply the modification wrought in the conception of the one only God by His complete revelation of Himself in the redemptive process. It necessarily waited, therefore, upon the completion of the re-demptive process for its revelation, and its revelation, as necessarily, lay complete in the redemptive process.

From this central fact we may understand more fully several circumstances connected with the revelation of the Trinity to which allusion has been made. We may from it understand, for example, why the Trinity was not revealed in the OT. It may carry us a little way to remark, as it has been customary to remark since the time of Gregory of Nazianzus, that it was the task of the OT revelation to fix firmly in the minds and hearts of the people of God the great fundamental truth of the unity of the Godhead; and it would have been dangerous to speak to them of the plurality within this unity until this task had been fully accomplished. The real reason for the delay in the revelation of the Trinity, however, is grounded in the secular development of the redemptive purpose of God: the times were not

ripe for the revelation of the Trinity in the unity of the Godhead until the fulness of the time had come for God to send forth His Son unto redemption, and His Spirit unto sanctification. The revelation in word must needs wait upon the revelation in fact, to which it brings its necessary explanation, no doubt, but from which also it derives its own entire significance and value. The revelation of a Trinity in the Divine unity as a mere abstract truth without relation to manifested fact, and without significance to the development of the kingdom of God, would have been foreign to the whole method of the Divine procedure as it lies exposed to us in the pages of Scripture. Here the working-out of the Divine purpose supplies the fundamental principle to which all else, even the progressive stages of revelation itself, is subsidiary; and advances in revelation are ever closely connected with the advancing accomplishment of the redemptive purpose. We may understand also, however, from the same central fact, why it is that the doctrine of the Trinity lies in the NT rather in the form of allusions than in express teaching, why it is rather everywhere presupposed, coming only here and there into incidental expression, than formally inculcated. It is because the revelation, having been made in the actual occurrences of redemption, was already the common property of all Christian hearts. In speaking and writing to one another, Christians, therefore, rather spoke out of their common Trinitarian consciousness, and reminded one another of their common fund of belief, than instructed one another in what was already the common property of all. We are to look for, and we shall find, in the NT allusions to the Trinity, rather evidence of how the Trinity, believed in by all, was conceived by the authoritative teachers of the church, than formal attempts, on their part, by authoritative declarations, to bring the church into the understanding that

The fundamental proof that God is a Trinity is supplied thus by the fundamental revelation of the 9. Implied

Trinity in fact: that is to say, in the incarnation of God the Son and the outpouring of God the Holy Spirit. In a word, Jesus Christ and the Holy Spirit are the fundamental proof of the Trinity. This is as much as to in the Whole NT the doctrine of the Trinity. say that all the evidence of whatever kind, and from whatever source derived, that Jesus Christ is God manifested in the flesh, and that the Holy Spirit is a Divine Person, is just so much evidence for the doctrine of the Trinity; and that when we go to the NT for evidence of the Trinity we are to seek it, not merely in the scattered allusions to the Trinity as such, numerous and instructive as they are, but primarily in the whole mass of evidence which the NT provides of the Deity of Christ and the Divine personality of the Holy Spirit. When we have said this, we have said in effect that the whole mass of the NT is evidence for the Trinity. For the NT is saturated with evidence of the Deity of Christ and the Divine personality of the Holy Spirit. Precisely what the NT is, is the documentation of the religion of the incarnate Son and of the outpoured Spirit, that is to say, of the religion of the Trinity, and what we mean by the doctrine of the Trinity is nothing but the formulation in exact language of the conception of God presupposed in the religion of the incarnate Son and outpoured Spirit. We may analyze this conception and adduce proof for every constituent element of it from the NT declarations. We may show that the NT everywhere insists on the unity of the Godhead; that it constantly recognizes the Father as God, the Son as God and the Spirit as God; and that it cursorily presents these three to us as dis-tinct Persons. It is not necessary, however, to enlarge here on facts so obvious. We may content ourselves with simply observing that to the NT there is but one only living and true God; but that to it Jesus Christ and the Holy Spirit are each God in the fullest sense of the term; and yet Father, Son and Spirit stand over against each other as I, and Thou, and He. In this composite fact the NT gives us the doctrine of the Trinity. For the doctrine of the Trinity is but the statement in wellguarded language of this composite fact. Through-

out the whole course of the many efforts to formulate the doctrine exactly, which have followed one another during the entire history of the church, indeed, the principle which has ever determined the result has always been determination to do justice in conceiving the relations of God the Father, God the Son and God the Spirit, on the one hand to the unity of God, and, on the other, to the true Deity of the Son and Spirit and their dis-tinct personalities. When we have said these three things, then-that there is but one God, that the Father and the Son and the Spirit is each God, that the Father and the Son and the Spirit is each a distinct person—we have enunciated the doctrine of the

Trinity in its completeness.

That this doctrine underlies the whole NT as its constant presupposition and determines everywhere its forms of expression is the primary fact to be We must not omit explicitly to note, however, that it now and again also, as occasion arises for its incidental enunciation, comes itself to expression in more or less completeness of statement. The passages in which the three Persons of the Trinity are brought together are much more numerous than, perhaps, is generally supposed; but it should be recognized that the formal collocation of the elements of the doctrine naturally is relatively rare in writings which are occasional in their origin and practical rather than doctrinal in their immediate purpose. The three Persons already come into view as Divine Persons in the annunciation of the birth of Our Lord: "The Holy Ghost shall come upon thee,' said the angel to Mary, 'and the power of the Most High shall overshadow thee: wherefore also the holy thing which is to be born shall be called the Son of God' (Lk 1 35 m; cf Mt 1 18 ff). Here the Holy Ghost is the active agent in the production of an effect which is also ascribed to the power of the Most High, and the child thus brought into the world is given the great designation of "Son of God." The three Persons are just as clearly brought before us in the account of Mt (1 18 ff), though the allusions to them are dispersed through a longer stretch of narrative, in the course of which the Deity of the child is twice intimated (ver 21: 'It is He that shall save His people from their sins'; ver 23: 'They shall call His name Immanuel; which is, being interpreted, God-withus'). In the baptismal scene which finds record by all the evangelists at the opening of Jesus' ministry (Mt 3 16.17; Mk 1 10.11; Lk 3 21.22; Jn 1 32-34), the three Persons are thrown up to sight in a dramatic picture in which the Deity of each is strongly emphasized. From the open heavens the Spirit descends in visible form, and 'a voice came out of the heavens, Thou art my Son, the Beloved, in whom I am well pleased.' Thus care seems to have been taken to make the advent of the Son of God into the world the revelation also of the Triune God, that the minds of men might as smoothly as possible adjust themselves to the preconditions of the Divine redemption which was in process of being wrought out.

With this as a starting-point, the teaching of Jesus is Trinitarianly conditioned throughout. He has much to say of God His Father, from whom as His Son He is in some 10. Conditrue sense distinct, and with whom He tions the is in some equally true sense one. And Whole Teaching of He has much to say of the Spirit, who

Jesus represents Him as He represents the Father, and by whom He works as the Father works by Him. It is not merely in the Gospel of Jn that such representations occur in the teaching of Jesus. In the Synoptics, too, Jesus claims a Sonship to God which is unique (Mt 11 27; 24 36; Mk 13 32; Lk 10 22; in the following

passages the title of "Son of God" is attributed to Him and accepted by Him: Mt 4 6; 8 29; 14 33; 27 40.43.54; Mk 3 11; 12 6-8; 15 39; Lk 4 41; 22 70; cf Jn 1 34.49; 9 35; 11 27), and which involves an absolute community between the two in knowledge, say, and power: both Mt (11 27) and Lk (10 22) record His great declaration that He knows the Father and the Father knows Him with perfect mutual knowledge: "No one knoweth the Son, save the Father; neither doth any know the Father, save the Fatner; neutner doth any know the Fatner, save the Son." In the Synoptics, too, Jesus speaks of employing the Spirit of God Himself for the performance of His works, as if the activities of God were at His disposal: "I by the Spirit of God"—or as Lk has it, "by the finger of God"—"cast out demons" (Mt 12 28; Lk 11 20; of the promise of the Spirit in Mk 13 11; Lk 12 12).

as Lk has it, "by the finger of God"—"cast out demons" (Mt 12 28; Lk 11 20; of the promise of the Spirit in Mk 13 11; Lk 12 12).

It is in the discourses recorded in Jn, however, that Jesus most conjously refers to the unity of Himself, as the Son, with the Father, and to the mission of Son, with the Father, and to the mission of the Spirit from Himself, as the Son, with the Father, and to the mission of the Spirit from Himself, as the Son, with the Father are one (10 30; Ly 11 12 1.22.25) with a unity of interpendent of the man of the Father are one (10 30; Ly 11 21.22.25) with a unity of interpendent of the Father in me, and I in the Father." 10 38; cf 16 10.11), so that to have seen Him was to have seen the Father (14 9; cf 15 21); but the removes all doubt as to the essential nature of His oneness with the Father by explicitly asserting His eternity ("Before Abraham was born, I am," Jn 8 58). His co-eternity with God ("had with thee before the world was." 17 5). So clear is that in speaking currently of Himself as God 58 on (5 25; 9 35; 11 4; cf 10 30). He meant, in accordance still the didning significance of the idea of the decent of the de

works." Jn 14 7.9.10), we read as follows (Jn 14 16-26):
"And I will make request of the Father, and He shall give you another (thus sharply distinguished from Our Lord as a distinct Person] Advocate, that He may be with you forever, the Spirit of Truth. . . . He abideth with you and shall be in you. I will not leave you orphans; I come unto you. . . . In that day ye shall know that I am in the Father. If a man love me, he will keep my word; and my Father will love him and make our abode with him. . . . These things have I spoken unto you while abiding with you. But the Advocate, the Holy Spirit, whom the Father will send in my name, He shall teach you all things, and bring to your remembrance all that I said unto you.' It would be impossible to speak more distinctly of three who were yet one. The Father, Son and Spirit are constantly distinguished from one another—the Son makes request of the Father, and the Father in response to this request gives an Advocate, "another" than the Son, who is sent in the Son's name. And yet the oneness of these three is so kept in sight that the coming of this "another Advocate" is spoken of without embarrassment as the coming of the Son Himself (vs 18.19.20.21), and indeed as the coming of the Father and the Son (ver 23). There is a sense, then, in which, when Christ goes away, the Spirit comes in His stead; there is also a sense in which, when the Spirit comes, Christ comes in Him; and with Christ's coming the Father comes too. There is a distinction between the Persons brought into view; and with it an identity among them; for both of which allowance must be made. The same phenomena meet us in other passages. Thus, we read again (15 26): 'But when there is come the Advocate whom I will send unto you from [fellowship with] the Father, the Spirit of Truth, which goeth forth from [fellowship with] the Father, the Spirit of the Son, and yet, like Him, has His eternal home (in fellowship with) the Father, from whom He, like the Son, comes forth for His saving work, being

of the things of the Father.

It is not to be said, of course, that the doctrine of the Trinity is formulated in passages like these, with which the whole mass of Our Lord's discourses in Jn are strewn; but it certainly is presupposed in them, and that is, considered from the point of view of their probative force, even better. As we read we are kept in continual contact with three Persons who act, each as a distinct person, and yet who are in a deep, underlying sense, one. There is but one God—there is never any question of that—and yet this Son who has been sent into the world by God not only represents God but is God, and this Spirit whom the Son has in turn sent unto the world is also Himself God. Nothing could be clearer than that the Son and Spirit are distinct Persons, unless indeed it be that the Son of God is just God the Son and the Spirit of God just God the Spirit.

Meanwhile, the nearest approach to a formal announcement of the doctrine of the Trinity which is recorded from Our Lord's lips, or, perhaps we may say, which is to be 13. The found in the whole compass of the NT, Baptismal Formula has been preserved for us, not by John,

but by one of the synoptists. It too, however, is only incidentally introduced, and has for its main object something very different from formulating the doctrine of the Trinity. It is embodied in the great commission which the resurrected Lord gave His disciples to be their "marching orders" "even unto the end of the world": "Go

ye therefore, and make disciples of all the nations, baptizing them into the name of the Father and of the Son and of the Holy Spirit" (Mt 28 19). In seeking to estimate the significance of this great declaration, we must bear in mind the high solemnity of the utterance, by which we are required to give its full value to every word of it. Its phrasing is in any event, however, remarkable. It does not say, "In the names [plural] of the Father and of the Son and of the Holy Ghost"; nor yet (what might be taken to be equivalent to that), "In the name of the Father, and in the name of the Son, and in the the father, and in the name of the Son, and in the name of the Holy Ghost," as if we had to deal with three separate Beings. Nor, on the other hand, does it say, "In the name of the Father, Son and Holy Ghost," as if "the Father, Son and Holy Ghost, "as if "the Father, Son and Holy Ghost," as if "the Father, Son and Holy Ghost, "as if "the Father, Son and Holy Ghost," as if "the Father, Son and Holy Ghost, "the Father, Son and Holy Ghost," as if "the Father, Son and Holy Ghost, "the Father, Son and Holy Ghost," as if "the Father, Son and Holy Ghost, "the Father, Son and Holy Ghost," as if "the Father, Son and Holy Ghost, "the Holy Ghost, Ghost" might be taken as merely three designations of a single person. With stately impressiveness it asserts the unity of the three by combining them all within the bounds of the single Name; and then throws up into emphasis the distinctness of each by introducing them in turn with the repeated article: "In the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost" (AV). These three, the Father, and the Son, and the Holy Ghost, each stand in some clear sense over against the others in distinct personality: these three, the Father, and the Son, and the Holy Ghost, all unite in some profound sense in the common participation of the one Name. Fully to comprehend the implication of this mode of statement, we must bear in mind, further, the significance of the term, "the name," and the associations laden with which it came to the recipients of this commission. For the Hebrew did not think of the name, as we are accustomed to do, as a mere external symbol; but rather as the adequate expression of the innermost being of its bearer. In pression of the innermost being of its bearer. In His Name the Being of God finds expression; and the Name of God—"this glorious and fearful name, Jeh thy God" (Dt 28 58)—was accordingly a most sacred thing, being indeed virtually equivalent to God Himself. It is no solecism, therefore, when we read (Isa 30 27), "Behold, the name of Jeh cometh"; and the parallelisms are most instructive when we read (Isa 50 10). (So shell the state of the same of cometh"; and the parallelisms are most instructive when we read (Isa 59 19): "So shall they fear the Name of Jeh from the west, and His glory from the rising of the sun; for He shall come as a stream pent in which the Spirit of Jeh driveth.' So pregnant was the implication of the Name, that it was possible for the term to stand absolutely, without adjunction of the name itself, as the sufficient representative of the majesty of Jeh: it was a terrible thing to 'blaspheme the Name' (Lev 24 11). All those over whom Jeh's Name was called were His, His possession to whom He owed protection. for His Name's sake, therefore, that afflicted Judah cries to the Hope of Israel, the Saviour thereof in time of trouble: 'O Jeh, Thou art in the midst of us, and Thy Name is called upon us; leave us not the distribution of the saviour through th (Jer 14 9); and His people find the appropriate expression of their deepest shame in the lament, 'We have become as they over whom Thou never barest rule; as they upon whom Thy Name was not called' (Isa 63 19); while the height of joy is attained in the cry, 'Thy Name, Jeh, God of Hosts, is called upon me' (Jer 15 16; cf 2 Ch 7 14; Dnl 9 18.19). When, therefore, Our Lord 14; Dnl 9 18.19). When, therefore, Our Lord commanded His disciples to baptize those whom they brought to His obedience "into the name of ...," He was using language charged to them with high meaning. He could not have been understood otherwise than as substituting for the Name of Jeh this other Name "of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost"; and this could not possibly have meant to His disciples anything else than that Jeh was now to be known to them by the new Name, of the Father, and the Son, and the Holy

The only alternative would have been that, for the community which He was founding, Jesus was supplanting Jeh by a new God; and this alternative is no less than monstrous. There is no alternative, therefore, to understanding Jesus here to be giving for His community a new Name to Jeh, and that new Name to be the threefold Name of "the Father, and the Son, and the Holy Ghost." Nor is there room for doubt that by "the Son" in this threefold Name, He meant just Himself with all the implications of distinct personality which this carries with it; and, of course, that further of "the Father" and "the Holy Ghost," with whom "the Son" is here associated, and from whom alike "the Son" is here distinguished. This is a direct ascription to Jeh, the God of Israel, of a threefold personality, and is therewith the direct enunciation of the doctrine of the Trinity. We are not witnessing here the birth of the doctrine of the Trinity; that is presupposed. What we are witnessing is the authoritative announcement of the Trinity as the God of Christianity by its Founder, in one of the most solemn of His recorded declarations. Israel had worshipped the one only true God under the Name of Jeh; Christians are to worship the same one only and true God under the Name This is the distinguishing characteristic of Christians; and that is as much as to say that the doctrine of the Trinity is, according to Our Lord's own apprehension of it, the distinctive mark of the religion which He founded.

apprehension of it, the distinctive mark of the religion which He founded.

A passage of such range of implication has, of course, not escaped criticism and challenge. An attempt which cannot be characterized as other than frivolous has even been made to dismiss it from the text of Matthew's Gospel. Against this, the whole body of external evidence cries out; and the internal evidence is of itself not less decisive to the same effect. When the "universalism," "ecclesiasticism," and "high theology" of gotten that to the Jesus of Mt there are attributed not only such parables as those of the Leaven and the Mustard Seed, but such declarations as those contained in 8 11.12; 21 43; 24 14; that in this Gospel alone is Jesus recorded as speaking familiarly about His church (16 18; 18 17); and that, after the great declaration of 11 27 ff, nothing remained in lofty attribution to be assigned to Him. When these same objections are urged against recognizing the passage as an authentic saying of Jesus' own, it is quite obvious that the Jesus of the evangelists cannot be in mind. The declaration here recorded is quite in character with the Jesus of Matthew's Gospel, as has just been intimated; and no less with the Jesus of the whole NT transmission. It will scarcely do, first to construct a priori a Jesus to our own liking, and then to discard as "unhistorical" all in the NT transmission which would be unnatural to such a Jesus. It is not merely Jesus who speaks out of a Trinitarian consciousness, but all the NT writers as well. The universal possession by His followers of so firm a hold on such a doctrine requires the assumption that some such teaching as is here attributed to Him in so many words by the record, we should have had to assume that some such declaration had been made by Him. In these circumstances, there can be no good reason to doubt that it was made by Him, when it is expressly attributed to Him by the record.

When we turn from the discourses of Jesus to the writings of His followers with a view to observing how the assumption of the doctrine of the Trinity underlies their whole fabric also, we naturally go first of all to the letters of Paul. Their very mass 15. Paul's Trinitarianism is impressive; and the definiteness with which their composition within a generation of the death of Jesus may be fixed adds importance to them as historical witnesses. Certainly they leave

nothing to be desired in the richness of their testimony to the Trinitarian conception of God which underlies them. Throughout the whole series, from 1 Thess, which comes from about 52 AD, to 2 Tim, which was written about 68 AD, the redemption, which it is their one business to proclaim and commend, and all the blessings which enter into it or accompany it are referred consistently to a three-fold Divine causation. Everywhere, throughout their pages, God the Father, the Lord Jesus Christ, and the Holy Spirit appear as the joint objects of all religious adoration, and the conjunct source of all Divine operations. In the freedom of the allusions which are made to them, now and again one alone of the three is thrown up into prominent view; but more often two of them are conjoined in thanksgiving or prayer; and not infrequently all three are brought together as the apostle strives to give some adequate expression to his sense of indebtedness to the Divine source of all good for blessings received, or to his longing on behalf of himself or of his readers for further communion with the God of ms readers for further communion with the God of grace. It is regular for him to begin his Epp. with a prayer for "grace and peace" for his readers, "from God our Father, and the Lord Jesus Christ," as the joint source of these Divine blessings by way of eminence (Rom 17; 1 Cor 13; 2 Cor 12; Gal 13; Eph 12; Phil 12; 2 Thess 12; 1 Tim 12; 2 Tim 12; Philem ver 3; cf 1 Thess 11). It is obviously no departure from this habit 1 1). It is obviously no departure from this habit in the essence of the matter, but only in relative fulness of expression, when in the opening words of the Ep. to the Col, the clause "and the Lord Jesus Christ" is omitted, and we read merely: "Grace to you and peace from God our Father." So also it would have been no departure from it in the essence of the matter, but only in relative fulness of expression, if in any instance the name of the Holy Spirit had chanced to be adjoined to the other two, as in the single instance of 2 Cor 13 14 it is adjoined to them in the closing prayer for grace with which Paul ends his letters, and which ordinarily takes the simple form of, "the grace of our Lord Jesus Christ be with you" (Rom 16 20; 1 Cor 16 23; Gal 6 18; Phil 4 23; 1 Thess 5 28; 2 Thess 3 18; Philem ver 25; more expanded form, Eph 6 23.24; more compressed, Col 4 18; 1 Tim 6 21; 2 Tim 4 22; Tit 3 15). Between these opening and closing passages the allusions to God the Father, the Lord Jesus Christ, and the Holy Spirit are constant and most intricately interlaced. Paul's monotheism is intense: the first premise of all his thought on Divine things is the unity of God (Rom 3 30; 1 Cor 8 4; Gal 3 20; Eph 4 6; 1 Tim 2 5; cf Rom 16 22; 1 Tim 1 17). Yet to him God the Father is no more God than the Lord Jesus Christ is God, or the Holy Spirit is God. The Spirit of God is to him related to God as the spirit of man is to man (1 Cor 2 11), and therefore if the Spirit of God dwells in us, that is God dwelling in spirit of God dwells in us, that is God dwelling in us (Rom 8 10 ff), and we are by that fact constituted temples of God (1 Cor 3 16). And no expression is too strong for him to use in order to assert the Godhead of Christ: He is "our great God" (Tit 2 13); He is "God over all" (Rom 9 5); and indeed it is expressly declared of Him that the "fulness of the Godhead," that is, everything that enters into Godhead and constitutes it Godhead, dwells in Him. In the very eat of esserting his dwells in Him. In the very act of asserting his monotheism Paul takes Our Lord up into this unique Godhead. "There is no God but one," he roundly asserts, and then illustrates and proves he roundly asserts, and then mustrates and proves this assertion by remarking that the heathen may have "gods many, and lords many," but "to us there is one God, the Father, of whom are all things, and we unto him; and one Lord, Jesus Christ, through whom are all things, and we through him" (1 Cor

Obviously, this "one God, the Father," and "one Lord, Jesus Christ," are embraced together in the one God who alone is. Paul's conception of the one God, whom alone he worships, includes, in other words, a recognition that within the unity of His Being, there exists such a distinction of Persons as is given us in the "one God, the Father" and the "one Lord, Jesus Christ."

In numerous passages scattered through Paul's Epp., from the earliest of them (1 Thess 1 2-5; 2 Thess 2 13.14) to the latest (Tit 16. Con- 3 4-6; 2 Tim 1 3.13.14), all three Persons, God the Father, the Lord Jesus Christ and the Holy Spirit, are brought together, in the most incijunction of the Three in Paul

dental manner, as co-sources of all the saving blessings which come to believers in Christ. A typical series of such passages may be found in Eph 2 18; 3 2-5.14.17; 4 4-6; 5 18-20. But the most interesting instances are offered to us perhaps by the Epp. to the Cor. In 1 Cor 12 4-6 Paul presents the abounding spiritual gifts with which the church was blessed in a threefold aspect, and connects these aspects with the three Divine Persons. "Now there are diversities of gifts, but the same Spirit. And there are diversities of ministrations, and the same Lord. And there are diversities of workings, but the same God, who worketh all things in all." It may be thought that there is a measure of what might almost be called artificiality in assigning the endowments of the church, as they are graces to the Spirit, as they are services to Christ, and as they are energizings to God. But thus there is only the more strikingly revealed the underlying Trinitarian conception as dominating the structure of the clauses: Paul clearly so writes, not because "gifts," "workings," "operations" stand out in his thought as greatly diverse things, but because God, the Lord, and the Spirit lie in the back of his mind constantly suggesting a threefold causality behind every manifestation of grace. The Trinity is al-luded to rather than asserted; but it is so alluded to as to show that it constitutes the determining basis of all Paul's thought of the God of redemption. Even more instructive is 2 Cor 13 14, which has passed into general liturgical use in the churches as a benediction: "The grace of the Lord Jesus Christ. and the love of God, and the communion of the Holy Spirit, be with you all." Here the three highest redemptive blessings are brought together, and attached distributively to the three Persons of the Triune God. There is again no formal teaching of the doctrine of the Trinity; there is only another instance of natural speaking out of a Trinitarian consciousness. Paul is simply thinking of the Divine source of these great blessings; but he habitually thinks of this Divine source of redemptive blessings after a trinal fashion. He therefore does not say, as he might just as well have said, "The grace and love and communion of God be with you all," but "The grace of the Lord Jesus Christ, and the love of God, and the communion of the Holy Spirit, be with you all." Thus he bears, almost unconsciously but most richly, witness to the trinal composition of the Godhead as conceived by Him.

The phenomena of Paul's Epp. are repeated in the other writings of the NT. In these other writings also it is everywhere assumed that

17. Trinithe redemptive activities of God rest tarianism of on a threefold source in God the Father, the Lord Jesus Christ, and the Other NT Holy Spirit; and these three Persons repeatedly come forward together in Writers

the expressions of Christian hope or the aspirations of Christian devotion (e.g. He 2 3.4; 6 4-6; 10 29-31; 1 Pet 1 2; 2 3-12; 4 13-19; 1 Jn 5 4-8; Jude vs 20.21; Rev 1 4-6). Perhaps as typical

instances as any are supplied by the two following: "According to the foreknowledge of God the Father, in sanctification of the Spirit, unto obedience and sprinkling of the blood of Jesus Christ" (1 Pet 1 2); Praying in the Holy Spirit, keep yourselves in the love of God, looking for the mercy of our Lord Jesus Christ unto eternal life" (Jude vs 20.21). To these may be added the highly symbolical instance from the Apocalypse: 'Grace to you and peace from Him which is and was and which is to come; and from the Seven Spirits which are before His throne; and from Jesus Christ, who is the faithful witness. the firstborn of the dead, and the ruler of the kings of the earth' (Rev 1 4.5). Clearly these writers, too, write out of a fixed Trinitarian consciousness and bear their testimony to the universal understanding current in apostolical circles. Everywhere and by all it was fully understood that the one God whom Christians worshipped and from whom alone they expected redemption and all that redemption brought with it, included within His undiminished unity the three: God the Father, the Lord Jesus Christ, and the Holy Spirit, whose activities relatively to one another are conceived as distinctly personal. This is the uniform and pervasive testimony of the NT, and it is the more impressive that it is given with such unstudied naturalness and simplicity, with no effort to distinguish between what have come to be called the ontological and the economical aspects of the Trinitarian distinctions, and indeed without apparent consciousness of the existence of such a distinction of aspects. Whether God is thought of in Himself or in His operations, the underlying conception runs unaffectedly into trinal forms.

It will not have escaped observation that the Trinitarian terminology of Paul and the other writers of the NT is not precisely 18. Variations in recorded for us in His discourses.

Nomenclature

Paul, for example—and the same is true of the other NT writers (except John)—does not speak, as Our Lord

is recorded as speaking, of the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit, so much as of God, the Lord Jesus Christ, and the Holy Spirit. This difference of terminology finds its account in large measure in the different relations in which the speakers stand to the Trinity. Our Lord could not naturally speak of Himself, as one of the Trinitarian Persons, by the designation of "the Lord," while the desig-nation of "the Son," expressing as it does His consciousness of close relation, and indeed of exact similarity, to God, came naturally to His lips. But He was Paul's Lord; and Paul naturally thought and spoke of Him as such. In point of fact, "Lord" is one of Paul's favorite designations of Christ, and indeed has become with him practically a proper name for Christ, and in point of fact, his Divine Name for Christ. It is naturally, therefore, his Trinitarian name for Christ. Because when he thinks of Christ as Divine he calls Him "Lord," he naturally, when he thinks of the three Persons together as the Triune God, sets Him as "Lord" by the side of God—Paul's constant name for "the Father"—and the Holy Spirit. Question may no doubt be raised whether it would have been possible for Paul to have done this, esp. with the constancy with which he has done it, if, in his conception of it, the very essence of the Trinity were enshrined in the terms "Father" and "Son." Paul is thinking of the Trinity, to be sure, from the point of view of a worshipper, rather than from that of a systematizer. He designates the Persons of the Trinity therefore rather from his relations to them than from their relations to one another. He sees in the Trinity his God, his Lord, and the Holy Spirit who dwells

in him; and naturally he so speaks currently of the three Persons. It remains remarkable, nevertheless, if the very essence of the Trinity were thought of by him as resident in the terms "Father," "Son," that in his numerous allusions to the Trinity in the Godhead, he never betrays any sense of this. It is noticeable also that in their allusions to the Trinity. there is preserved, neither in Paul nor in the other writers of the NT, the order of the names as they stand in Our Lord's great declaration (Mt 28 19). The reverse order occurs, indeed, occasionally, as, for example, in 1 Cor 12 4-6 (cf Eph 4 4-6); and this may be understood as a climactic arrangement and so far a testimony to the order of Mt 28 19. But the order is very variable; and in the most formal enumeration of the three Persons, that of 2 Cor 13 14, it stands thus: Lord, God, Spirit. The question naturally suggests itself whether the order Father, Son, Spirit was esp. significant to Paul and his fellow-writers of the NT. If in their conviction the very essence of the doctrine of the Trinity was embodied in this order, should we not anticipate that there should appear in their numerous allusions to the Trinity some suggestion of this conviction?

Such facts as these have a bearing upon the testimony of the NT to the interrelations of the Per-

sons of the Trinity. To the fact of the Trinity—to the fact, that is, that 19. Implications of "Son" and in the unity of the Godhead there subsist three Persons, each of whom has his particular part in the working out of salvation—the NT testimony is "Spirit"

clear, consistent, pervasive and conclusive. is included in this testimony constant and decisive witness to the complete and undiminished Deity of each of these Persons; no language is too exalted to apply to each of them in turn in the effort to give expression to the writer's sense of His Deity: the name that is given to each is fully understood to be "the name that is above every name." we attempt to press the inquiry behind the broad fact, however, with a view to ascertaining exactly how the NT writers conceive the three Persons to be related, the one to the other, we meet with great difficulties. Nothing could seem more natural, for example, than to assume that the mutual relations of the Persons of the Trinity are revealed in the designations, "the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit," which are given them by Our Lord in the solemn formula of Mt 28 19. Our confidence in this assumption is somewhat shaken, however, when we observe, as we have just observed, that these designations are not carefully preserved in their allusions to the Trinity by the writers of the NT at large, but are characteristic only of Our Lord's allusions and those of John, whose modes of speech in general very closely resemble those of Our Lord. Our confidence is still further shaken when we observe that the implications with respect to the mutual relations of the Trinitarian Persons, which are ordinarily derived from these designations, do not so certainly lie in them as is commonly supposed.

It may be very natural to see in the designation "Son" an intimation of subordination and derivation of Being, and it may not be difficult to ascribe a similar connotation to the term "Spirit." But it is quite certain that this was not the denotation of either term in the Sem consciousness, which under-lies the phraseology of Scripture; and it may even be thought doubtful whether it was included even in their remoter suggestions. What underlies the conception of sonship in Scriptural speech is just "likeness"; whatever the father is that the son is also. The emphatic application of the term "Son" to one of the Trinitarian Persons, accordingly,

asserts rather His equality with the Father than His subordination to the Father; and if there is any implication of derivation in it, it would appear to be very distant. The adjunction of the adjective "only begotten" (Jn 1 14; 3 16-18; 1 Jn 4 9) need add only the idea of uniqueness, not of derivation (Ps 22 21; 25 16; 35 17; Wisd 7 22 m); and even such a phrase as "God only begotten" (Jn 1 18 m) may contain no implication of derivation, but only of absolutely unique consubstantiality; as also such a phrase as 'the first-begotten of all creation' (Col 1 15) may convey no intimation of coming into being, but merely assert priority of of God' or "Spirit of Jeh," which meets us frequently in the OT, certainly does not convey the idea there either of derivation or of subordination, but is just the executive name of God-the designation of God from the point of view of His activity —and imports accordingly identity with God; and there is no reason to suppose that, in passing from the OT to the NT, the term has taken on an essentially different meaning. It happens, oddly enough, moreover, that we have in the NT itself what amounts almost to formal definitions of the two terms "Son" and "Spirit," and in both cases the stress is laid on the notion of equality or sameness. In Jn 5 18 we read: 'On this account, therefore, the Jews sought the more to kill him, because, not only did he break the Sabbath, but also called God The point lies, of course, in the adj. "own." Jesus was, rightly, understood to call God "his own Father," that is, to use the terms "Father" and "Son" not in a merely figurative sense, as when Israel was called God's son, but in the real sense. And this was understood to be claiming to be all that God is. To be the Son of God in any sense was to be like God in that sense; to be God's own Son was to be exactly like God, to be "equal with God." Similarly, we read in 1 Cor 2 10.11: 'For the Spirit searcheth all things, yea, the deep things of God. For who of men knoweth the things of a man, save the spirit of man which is in him? Even so the things of God none knoweth, save the Spirit of Here the Spirit appears as the substrate God. of the Divine self-consciousness, the principle of God's knowledge of Himself: He is, in a word, just God Himself in the innermost essence of His Being. As the spirit of man is the seat of human life, the very life of man itself, so the Spirit of God is His very life-element. How can He be supposed, then, to be subordinate to God, or to derive His Being from God? If, however, the subordination of the Son and Spirit to the Father in modes of subsistence and their derivation from the Father are not implicates of their designation as Son and Spirit, it will be hard to find in the NT compelling evidence of their subordination and derivation,

There is, of course, no question that in "modes of operation," as it is technically called—that is to say, in the functions ascribed to the several Persons of the Trinity in the redemptive process, and, more broadly, in the entire dealing of subordination is clearly expressed. The Father is first, the Son is second, and the Spirit is third, in the operations of God as revealed to us in general, and very esp. in those operations by which redemption is accomplished. Whatever the Father does, He does through the Son (Rom 2 16; 3 22; 5 1.11.17.21; Eph 1 5; 1 Thes 5 9; Tit 3 5) by the Spirit. The Son is sent by the Father and does this Father's will (Jn 6 38); the Spirit is sent by the Son and does not speak from Himself, but only takes of Christ's and shows it unto His people (Jn 17 7 ft); and we have Our Lord's own word for it that 'one that is sent is not greater than he that sent him' (Jn 13 16). In crisp decisiveness, Our Lord even declares, indeed: 'My Father is greater than I' (Jn 14 28); and Paul tells us that Christ is God's, even as we are Christ's (1 Cor 3 23), and that as Christ is "the head of every man," so God is "the head

of Christ" (1 Cor 11 3). But it is not so clear that the principle of subordination rules also in "modes of subsistence," as it is technically phrased; that is to say. In the necessary relation of the Persons of the Trinity to one another. The very richness and variety of the expression of their subordination, the one to the other, in modes of operation, create a difficulty in attaining certainty whether they are represented as also subordinate the one to the other in modes of subsistence. Question is raised in each case of apparent intimation of subordination in modes of operation. It may be natural to assume that a subordination in modes of operation. It may be natural to assume that a subordination in modes of operation rests on a subordination in modes of operation. It has been and the Son that sends the Spirit is that the Son is subordinate to the Father, and the Spirit to the Son. But we are bound to bear in mind that these relations of subordination in modes of operation may just as well be due to a convention, an agreement, between the Persons of the Trinity—a "Covenant" as it is technically called—by virtue of which a distinct function in the work of redemption is voluntarily assumed by each. It is eminently desirable, therefore, at the least, that some definite evidence of subordination in modes of subsistence should be discoverable before it is assumed. In the case of the relation of the Son to the Father, there is the added difficulty of the incarnation, in which the Son. by the assumption of a creaturely nature into union with Himself, enters into new relations with the Father of a definitely subordinate character. Question has even been raised whether the very designations of Father and Son may not be expressive of these new relations, and therefore without significance with respect to the eternarelations of the Persons so designated. This question must certainly be answered in the negative. Although, no doubt, in many of the instances in which the terms some which are intractable to this treatmen

The Trinity of the Persons of the Godhead, shown in the incarnation and the redemptive work of God the Son, and the descent and saving

21. Witness work of God the Spirit, is thus everyof the where assumed in the NT, and comes to repeated fragmentary but none the Christian less emphatic and illuminating ex-Consciouspression in its pages. ness As the roots of its revelation are set in the threefold

Divine causality of the saving process, it naturally finds an echo also in the consciousness of everyone who has experienced this salvation. Every redeemed soul, knowing himself reconciled with God through His Son, and quickened into newness of life by His Spirit, turns alike to Father, Son and Spirit with the exclamation of reverent gratitude upon his lips, "My Lord and my God!" If he could not construct the doctrine of the Trinity out of his consciousness of salvation, yet the elements of his consciousness of salvation are interpreted to him and reduced to order only by the doctrine of the Trinity which he finds underlying and giving their significance and consistency to the teaching of the Scriptures as to the processes of salvation. By means

of this doctrine he is able to think clearly and consequently of his threefold relation to the saving God, experienced by him as Fatherly love sending a Redeemer, as redeeming love executing redemption, as saving love applying redemption: all manifesas saving love applying reactions in distinct methods and by distinct agencies of the one seeking and saving love of God. the doctrine of the Trinity, his conscious Christian life would be thrown into confusion and left in disorganization if not, indeed, given an air of unreality; with the doctrine of the Trinity, order, significance with the doctrine of the Trinity, order, significance and reality are brought to every element of it. Accordingly, the doctrine of the Trinity and the doctrine of redemption, historically, stand or fall together. A Unitarian theology is commonly associated with a Pelagian anthropology and a Socinian soteriology. It is a striking testimony which is borne by E. Koenig (Offenbarungsbegriff des AT, 1882, I, 125): "I have learned that many cast off the whole history of redemption for monther cast off the whole history of redemption for no other reason than because they have not attained to a conception of the Triune God." It is in this intimacy of relation between the doctrines of the Trinity and redemption that the ultimate reason lies why the Christian church could not rest until it had attained a definite and well-compacted doctrine of the Trinity. Nothing else could be accepted as an adequate foundation for the experience of the Christian salvation. Neither the Sabellian nor the Arian construction could meet and satisfy the data of the consciousness of salvation, any more than either could meet and satisfy the data of the Scriptural revelation. The data of the Scriptural revelation might, to be sure, have been left unsat-isfied: men might have found a modus vivendi with neglected, or even with perverted Scriptural teach-But perverted or neglected elements of Christian experience are more clamant in their demands for attention and correction. The dissatisfied Christian consciousness necessarily searched the Scriptures, on the emergence of every new attempt to state the doctrine of the nature and relations of God, to see whether these things were true, and never reached contentment until the Scriptural data were given their consistent formulation in a valid doctrine of the Trinity. Here too the heart of man was restless until it found its rest in the Triune God, the author, procurer and applier of salvation.

The determining impulse to the formulation of the doctrine of the Trinity in the church was the church's profound conviction of the 22. Formu- absolute Deity of Christ, on which lation of the as on a pivot the whole Christian conception of God from the first origins of Christianity turned. The guiding Doctrine principle in the formulation of the doctrine was principle in the formulation of the doctrine was supplied by the Baptismal Formula announced by Jesus (Mt 28 19), from which was derived the ground-plan of the baptismal confessions and "rules of faith" which very soon began to be framed all over the church. It was by these two fundamental principla—the true Deity of Christ and the Baptismal Formula that all the standards and the Baptismal Formula that all the standards are supplied for the standards. mal Formula—that all attempts to formulate the Christian doctrine of God were tested, and by their molding power that the church at length found itself in possession of a form of statement which did full justice to the data of the redemptive revelation as reflected in the NT and the demands of the Chrisian heart under the experience of salvation.

In the nature of the case the formulated doctrine was of slow attainment. The influence of inherited conceptions and of current philosophies inevitably showed itself in the efforts to construe to the intellect the immanent faith of Christians. In the 2d cent. the dominant neo-Stoic and neo-Platonic ideas deflected Christian thought into subordinationist channels, and produced what is known as the Logos-Christology, which looks upon the Son as a prolation of Deity reduced to such dimensions as comported with relations with a world of

time and space; meanwhile, to a great extent, the Spirit was neglected altogether. A reaction which, under the name of Monarchianism, identified the Father, Son, and Spirit so completely that they were thought of only as division of the control o

Apologetically Considered, London and New York, 1907; A. F. W. Ingram, The Love of the Trinity, New York, 1908.

[Note.—In this art, the author has usually given his own renderings of original passages, and not those of any particular VS.—Editors.]

BENJAMIN B. WARFIELD TRIPOLIS, trip'ö-lis (Τρίπολις, Tripolis, "triple city"): Demetrius the son of Seleucus, having fled from Rome, collected "a mighty host and fleet," sailed into the haven of Tripolis, took the city, obsailed into the haven of Tripolis, took the city, obtained possession of the country, and put to death his cousin, Antiochus V, along with his guardian Lysias (2 Macc 14 1 ff; Jos, Ant, XII, x, 1). After a period of unsuccessful guerrilla warfare against Hyrcanus in Samaria, Antiochus Cyzicenus retired to Tripolis (Ant, XII, x, 2). The city was founded by the Phoenicians and was a member of the Phoen league. It was divided into 3 quarters by walls—hence the name "triple city" and these were occupied by settlers from Tyre, don, and Aradus, respectively. The federal Sidon, and Aradus, respectively. The federal council of these states sat here. Its position on the Phoen seacoast, with easy access to the interior, gave it many advantages from the commercial point of The Seleucid monarchs, the Romans, and Herod the Great did much to beautify the city; the last-named building a gymnasium (Jos, BJ, I, xxi, 11). When attacked by the Arabs the inhabitants took ship and escaped. Later their places were taken by Jews and Persians. Captured by the Crusaders in 1109, it was taken by the Egyptians in 1289. The ancient city was surrounded on three sides by the sea. The site is now occupied by el-Mīna, the harbor of the modern city, Tarābulūs, which stands on the bank of Nahr Kadīsha, about 2 miles away. The inhabitants number about 23,000. The town gives its name to a district under the vilayet of Beirût, which has always been famous for its fruitfulness. W. Ewing

TRIUMPH, trī'umf (θριαμβεύω, thriambeúō, "to lead in triumph"): The word is used by Paul to express an idea very familiar to antiquity, and to the churches at Corinth and Colossae: "But thanks be unto God, who always leadeth us in triumph in Christ" (2 Cor 2 14); "Having despoiled the principalities and the powers, he made a show of them openly, triumphing over them in it" (Col 2 15).

A triumph in Rome was a magnificent procession in honor of a victorious general, and the highest military distinction which he could obtain. It was granted by the senate only to one who had held the office of dictator, consul, or practor, and after a decisive victory in the complete subjugation of a province. In a Rom triumph the victorious general entered the city in a chariot drawn by four horses. He was crowned with laurel, having a scepter in one hand and a branch of laurel in the other. He was preceded by the senate and magistrates, musicians, the spoils of his victory, and the captives in fetters; and followed by his army on foot, in marching order. The procession thus advanced along the Via Sacra to the Capitol, where a bull was sac-rificed to Jupiter, and the laurel wreath deposited in the lap of the god. During the triumphal entry the priests burned incense, and hence the reference of the apostle: "For we are a sweet savor of Christ unto God, in them that are saved, and in them that perish; to the one a savor from death unto death; to the other a savor from life unto life" (2 Cor 2 15.16). The incense that was to the victor the "savor" of his triumph would be to the wretched captives the "savor," or intimation, of a rapidly approaching "savor," or intimation, of a rapidly approaching death in the Rom arena or in the damp vaults of the Tullianum. Thus the "incense," or influence, of the apostolic gospel would be to the believer the assurance of redemption through Christ, and to the unbeliever the assurance of spiritual death.

After the suicide of Antony in Alexandria (30 BC) Augustus Caesar succeeded in getting Cleopatra into his power. She had hoped to subdue him by her charms, but without avail. Aware that she was doomed, she revolted against the thought of being led in triumph to Rome, and, as tradition states, took her own life by allowing an asp to bite her, saying, "I will not be led in triumph"; see Shakespeare's Antony and Cleopatra, V, ii.

"He'll lead me, then, in triumph? Thou, an Egyptian puppet, shalt be shown In Rome as well as I: mechanic slaves, With greasy aprons, rules, and hammers shall Uplift us to the view.

ARTHUR WALWYN EVANS TROAS, trō'as (Τρφάs, Trōάs): The chief city in the N.W. of Asia Minor, on the coast of Mysia in the Rom province of Asia. From here, according to Acts 16 8, Paul sailed. Here, also, according to Acts 20 5–12, Paul raised Eutychus from the dead. The name Troas was not confined to the town itself, but it was also applied to the surrounding district, or to that part of the coast which is now generally known as the Troad. In its early history it bore the name of Antigona Troas, which was given it by its founder Antigonus, but after 300 BC it was generally known to the classical writers as Alexander Troas, a name given to it by Lysimachus. For a time the Seleucid kings made their homes at Troas. Later, when the city became free, it struck its own coins, of which vast numbers are found; a common type is one upon which is stamped a grazing horse. In 133 BC Troas came into the possession of the Romans, and later, during the reign of Augustus, it was made a Rom colonia, independent of the Rom governor of the province of Asia. Its citizens were then exempt from poll and land tax. During Byzantine times Troas was the seat of a bishopric.

The ruins of Troas, now bearing the name of Eski Stambul, are extensive, giving evidence of the great size and importance of the ancient city. They have, however, long been used as a quarry, and the columns of the public buildings were taken to Constantinople for use in the construction of the mosque known as the Yeni Valideh Jami. The site is now mostly overgrown with oaks, but from the higher portions of the ruins there is an extensive view over the sea and the neighboring islands. is only with difficulty that one may now trace the city walls and locate the square towers which flanked them at intervals. Within the walls are the remains of the theater, the temple and the gymnasium, which was provided with baths. The port from which Paul sailed was constructed by means of a mole, with an outer and an inner basin. The most imposing of the ruins, however, is a large aqueduct which was built in the time of Trajan. E. J. Banks

TROGYLLIUM, trō-jil'i-um, trō-gil'i-um (Τρω-γύλλιον, Trōgúllion): According to Acts 20 15 AV, ARVm, the ship in which Paul sailed to Caesarea on his return from his 3d missionary journey tarried at Trogyllium. Several of the early MSS omit the words, "tarried at Trogyllium" (WH omits as "Western" interpolation); yet, whether the words belonged to the text or not, Paul evidently passed the promontory, and probably stopped there. From the coast near Miletus the promontory projects into the sea toward the island of Samos; the strait separating the mainland from the island is scarcely a mile wide. It was in this strait which is now called Kutchuk Boghaz by the Turks that the battle of Mycale was fought in 479 BC. The promontory now bears the name of Santa Maria, and the place of anchorage is called Saint Paul's port.

E. J. Banks

TROOP, troop. See ARMY.

TROPHIMUS, trof'i-mus (Τρόφιμος, Tróphimos, lit. "a foster child" [Acts 20 4; 21 29; 2 Tim 4 20]): An Asiatic Christian, a friend and companion-in-travel of the apostle Paul.

In the first of the three passages in which Trophimus is mentioned, he and Tychicus are called Asianot, that is, natives of the Rom

1. An province of Asia; and making it still Ephesian more definite, in Acts 21 29, he is termed an "Ephesian." T. was one of eight friends, who accompanied Paul at the close of his 3d missionary journey, and traveled with him from Greece through Macedonia into Asia, and onward by sea until Jerus was reached (see Tychicus). T. went with Paul all the way, for, in the second of the passages referred to, he is mentioned as being with Paul in Jerus immediately on the close of this journey.

He was the innocent cause of Paul being assaulted in the courts of the temple by the Jewish mob, and

then of his being arrested and im
2. Cause of prisoned by the Romans. The occaPaul's sion of this outrage was that the Jews
supposed that Paul had "brought
Greeks also into the temple, and

defiled this holy place" (Acts 21 28). The modicum of fact lying at the root of this false accusation
was that they had seen Paul and T. in each other's
company in the city. On this slender basis "they
supposed" that Paul had brought T. past the barrier
or middle wall of partition (Eph 2 14; see Partitron), beyond which no Gentile was allowed to
penetrate on pain of death. They supposed that
T., who was neither a Jew nor a proselyte, but a
gentile Christian, had been introduced into the
temple itself by Paul—which would have been
profanation. Hence their fury against the apostle.

How strongly they insisted on the crime which Trophimus was falsely alleged to have committed on that occasion, is seen again in the way in which the orator Tertullus repeated the charge against Paul before the Rom governor Felix, "who moreover assayed to profane the temple" (Acts 24 6).

The third reference to T. is in 2 Tim 4 20, "Trophimus I left at Miletus sick." This final notice shows that he was again—several

years after the date indicated in the

Miletus previous passages—traveling with Paul on one of the missionary journeys which the apostle undertook after being liberated from his first imprisonment in Rome. It is exceedingly difficult, perhaps impossible, to trace the course of the different journeys which Paul now made, as there is no such narrative as is given in Acts for the former journeys, but merely incidental notices of his later travels, in the Pastoral Epp. In this, the last of all his letters—2 Tim—Paul indicates various places which he had visited, and also the names of friends who traveled with him on this the last of his apostolic journeys.

Among other places, he had visited Miletus, a city on the coast of the province of Asia; and there his old friend T. had been laid down with illness, so severe that he could travel no farther, but Paul left him "at Miletus cick." It is to be noted that Miletus was not far from Ephesus, which was T.'s native city. There would be much intercourse between the two cities (see Acts 20 17, where Paul sends for the elders of the church at Ephesus to come to him at Miletus, which they did). T., therefore, in his sickness, could easily reach Ephesus, or his friends from that city could quickly come to him at Miletus, and give him whatever attention and nursing he might require.

It has been conjectured that T. is to be identified with the person mentioned in 2 Cor 8 16-24. Paul there speaks in the highest terms of one of his companions—but without giving his name—whom

he sent with Titus. Titus and this disciple were evidently those to whose care Paul intrusted the

carrying of the Second Ep. to the Cor to its destination. The apostle 4. The **Description** says of this unnamed brother, not only of 2 Cor that his praise is in the gospel through-8:18 out all the churches, but also that he was chosen by the churches to travel

with him, i.e. with Paul, with this grace, i.e. with the contribution of money collected in the gentile churches for the poor saints in Jerus.

churches for the poor saints in Jerus.

Now it is certain that at the close of his 3d missionary journey Paul carried these gifts to Jerus ("I came to bring alms to my nation, and offerings," Acts 24 17); and some of the eight friends who accompanied him on the journey (20 4) were those who had been intrusted by the churches with the safe conveyance of the money. Speaking of these collections, Paul writes (I Cor 16 3-4), "Whomsoever ye shall approve, them will I send with letters to carry your bounty unto Jerus: and if it be meet for me to go also, they shall go with me." These conditions were fulfilled, when Paul and his eight friends traveled from Greece to Jerus, carrying the money with them. There is therefore certainty that one of the eight is the brother referred to in 2 Cor 8 18, whose praise in the gospel was in all the churches, and whom the churches had appointed to travel with Paul for the purpose of carrying the money contribution, and whom Paul had "many times proved earnest in many things" (2 Cor 8 18.19.22). The eight were Sopater of Beroea, Aristarchus and Secundus, both from Thessalonica, Gaius of Derbe, Timothy, Tychicus and T., both "Asians," and lastly Luke.

and Secundus, both from Thessalonica, Gaius of Derbe, Timothy, Tychicus and T., both "Asians," and lastly Luke.

There is certainly the possibility that the unnamed brother was T.: if not T., then he was one of the other seven. Of these seven, by the process of elimination, the unnamed brother could only be one of those who traveled with Paul the whole distance as far as Jerus, for this was the work which "the brother" had been appointed by the churches to do. Now it is certain that Luke and T. were with him on his arrival in Jerus (Acts 21 17.29). Therefore the brother whose praise in the gospel was in all the churches may very well have been T.: if not T., then possibly Luke or Aristarchus. Gaius and Aristarchus are termed "Paul's companions in travel" (Acts 19 29); and Aristarchus was afterward with Paul in Pal, and sailed with him to Rome. It is quite remarkable that the same word, συνέκδημος, sunékdémos, "companion in travel," is applied to the unnamed brother (2 Cor 8 19), and to Gaius and Aristarchus in Acts 19 29.

As the conditions do not seem to be satisfied in Sopater, Secundus or Timothy, the brother so highly commended must have been either Luke or Gaius or Aristarchus or Tychicus or Trophimus.

JOHN RUTHERFURD TROUGH, trôf. See SHEEP TENDING; BREAD.

TROW, trō: An obsolete vb. meaning "to believe"; cf "trust" and the Ger. trauen. It occurs only in Lk 17 9, AV "Doth he thank that servant? I trow not," as a tr of οὐ δοκῶ, ου dokō, "I believe not." The words ου dokō, however, are not part of the original text, but are a later gloss to supply an answer to the question, and hence "I trow not" is omitted by RV.

TRUCEBREAKER, troos'brāk-er: The AV rendering in 2 Tim 3 3 of &σπονδος, &spondos, lit. "without a libation." As a libation always accompanied the making of a treaty in Gr lands, the lack implied that no treaty had been made, or, by a natural extension of meaning, could be made. Hence the word came to mean "implacable" (RV).

TRUMP, trump, TRUMPET, trum'pet, trum'pit. See Music.

TRUMPETS, FEAST OF: In Lev 23 23-25 the first day (new moon) of the seventh month is set apart as a solemn rest, "a memorial of blowing of trumpets" (the Heb leaves 1. De-"of trumpets" to be understood), sigscription nalized further by "a holy convocation, abstinence from work, and the presentation of "an offering made by fire." In Nu 29 1-6 these directions are repeated, with a detailed specification of

the nature of the offering. In addition to the usual daily burnt sacrifices and the special offerings for new moons, there are to be offered one bullock, one ram, and seven he-lambs, with proper meal offerings, together with a he-goat for a sin offering.

The significance of the feast lay in the fact that it marked the beginning of the new year according to the older calendar. Originally the

"revolution" of the year was reckoned in the fall (Ex 23 16; 34 22), and the 2. Significance change to the spring never thoroughly displaced the older system. In fact the spring New Year never succeeded in becoming a specially recognized feast, and to Jewish ears "New Year's Day" ראשׁ הַשְּׁנַה), rō'sh ha-shānāh) invariably signifies an autumnal festival. So the Mish (Rō'sh ha-shānāh, i.1): "There are four periods of commencement of years: On the 1st of Nişan is a new year for kings and for festivals; the 1st of Elul is a new year for the tithe of cattle. . . The 1st of Tishri is new year's [day] for the ordinary or civil year, for the computation of 7th years, and of the jubilees; also for the planting of trees, and for herbs. On the 1st of Shebat is the new year for trees."

The ritual for the day consequently needs little All new moons were heralded by trumpeting (Nu 10 10), and so the explanation.

custom was of course observed on this feast also. There is nothing in the 3. Ritual feast also. There is nothing in the language of either Lev 23 or Nu 29 to require a prolongation of the music on this special new moon, but its special distinction was no doubt marked by special trumpeting at all times, and at a later period (see below) elaborate rules were laid down for this feature. The additional sacrifices simply involved an increase of those prescribed for new moons (Nu 28 11-15), without changing their type. Perhaps Ps 81 was esp. written for this feast (cf ver 3).

Mentions of a special observance of the 1st of Tishri are found also in Ezk 45 20 (reading, as is necessary, "first day of seventh

month" here for "seventh day") and 4. Origin Neh 8 1-12. In the former passage, the day is kept by offering a bullock as a sin offering and sprinkling its blood in a way that recalls the ritual of the Day of Atonement. In Neh an assembly of the people was held to hear Ezra read the Law. The day was kept as a festival on which mourning was forbidden (ver 9). Apart from these references there is no mention of the feast elsewhere in the OT, and, indeed, there is some reason to think that at one time the 10th, and not the 1st, of Tishri was regarded as the beginning of the year. For Ezk (40 1) specifically calls this day $r\bar{o}$'s h hashanah, and Lev 25 9 specifies it as the opening of the Jubilee year (contrast the Mish passage, above). Consequently scholars generally are inclined to assign Lev 23 23-25 and Nu 29 1-6 to the latest part of the Pent (P^s). This need not mean that the observance of the 1st (or 10th) of Tishri was late, but only that the final adoption of the day into Israel's official calendar, with a fixed ritual for all Israelites, was delayed. If the original New Year's Israelites, was delayed. If the original New Year's Day fell on the 10th of Tishri, its displacement ten days earlier was certainly due to the adoption of the 10th for the Day of Atonement. An explanation of the date of the latter feast would be gained by this supposition.

The instrument to be used in the trumpeting is not specified in the Bible, but Jewish tradition decided in favor of the horn and not the

Later metal trumpet, permitting for synagogue use any kind of horn except a History cow's, but for temple use only a straight (antelope's) horn and never a crooked (ram's) horn ($R\bar{o}$ 'sh ha-sh \bar{a} n \bar{a} h, iii. 2-4). According to iv. 1, when the new year began on a Sabbath the horns were blown only in the temple, but after its destruction they were blown in every synagogue. Every Israelite was obliged to come within hearing distance of the sound (iii.7). In the synagogue



Ancient Horns and Curved Trumpets.

liturgy of iv.5-9 (which forms the basis of the modern Jewish practice), four sets of "benedictions" were read, and after each of the last three sets the horn blown nine times. Modern Judaism sees in the signals a call to self-examination and repentance, in view of the approaching Day of Atonement. See TRUMPET, III, 2, (8). BURTON SCOTT EASTON

TRUST, BREACH OF: The clearest reference to the crime designated by this modern expression is found in Lev 6 2-7, where the transgression is defined and the penalty set forth. Breach of covenant or contract and the removal of landmarks (Dt 19 14; 27 17; Prov 22 28; 23 10) may be

TRUTH, trooth (Γροκ, 'ĕmeth, Γροκ, 'ĕmānāh, primary idea of "firmness," "stability" [cf Ex 17 12], hence "constancy," "faithfulness," etc; LXX Apoc and NT, ἀλήθεια, alētheia [Rom 3 7], πίστις, pistis [Rom 3 3]; in adjectival and adverbial sense, "in truth," "of a truth," "faithful," etc; ἀληθώς, alētheis [Lk 21 3; Jn 6 14; 7 40; 1 Thess 2 13], αληθινός, alēthinós [Jn 17 3], ὅντως, ὁπίσε [I Cor 14 25], πιστός, pistós [1 Tim 3 1], in AV; RV, ARV, as generally, "faithful"; AS tréow, tryw with Teutonic stem trau, "to believe," "to keep faith"):

3. Truth in Religion

I. Terms.—The Eng. word has developed and maintained the broadest, most general and varied usage, going beyond both Heb and Gr, which were already extended in connotation. It is possible to analyze and classify the special applications of the term almost indefinitely, using other terms to indicate specific meanings in special connections, e.g. loyalty (Jss 9 15), honesty (Ex 18 21), fidelity (Dt 32 4), justice (Rom 2 2), uprightness (Isa 38 3), faith (26 2), righteousness (Ps 85 10), reality (Jn 17 19), veracity (Gen 42 16). It is unfortunate that translators have generally adhered to single terms to represent the original words. On the other hand, they have sometimes introduced words not represented in the original, and thus unduly limited the meaning. An example is Eph 4 15, where the original meaning "being true," i.e. in all respects, is narrowed to "speaking the truth."

II. General View.—No term is more familiar and none more difficult of definition.

With applications in every phase of life and thought the word has varying general senses which may be classi-fled as:

(1) Ontological truth, i.e. accurate and adequate idea of existence as ultimate reality. In this sense it is a term of metaphysics, and will be differently defined according to the type of philosophical theory accepted. This aspect of truth is never primary in Scripture unless in the question of Pilate (Jn 18 38). He had so far missed the profound ethical sense in which Jesus used the word that Jesus did not at all answer him, nor, indeed, does Pilate seem to have expected any reply to what was probably only the contemptuous thrust of a skeptical attitude. In Prov where, if at all, we might look for the abstract idea, we find rather the practical apprehension of the true meaning and method of life (23 23). Ontological reality and possible ideas of reality apprehending it are obviously presupposed in all scripture. There is objective reality on which subjective ideas depend for their validity; and all knowing is knowledge of reality. There is also in the whole of Scripture a subjective idea, the product of revelation or inspiration in some form of working, that constitutes an ideal to be realized objectively. The Kingdom of God, for example, is the formative idea of Scripture teaching. In a definite sense the kingdom exists and still it is to be created. It must be kept in mind, however, that only vaguely and indirectly does truth have abstract, metaphysical meaning to the Bib. writers. For John it approaches this, but the primary interest is always concrete.

(2) Logical truth is expressive of the relation between the knower and that which is known, and deepends upon

approaches this, but the primary interest is always concrete.

(2) Logical truth is expressive of the relation between the knower and that which is known, and depends upon the arrangement of ideas with reference to a central or composite idea. Truth in this sense involves the correspondence of concepts with facts. While this meaning of truth is involved in Scripture, it is not the primary meaning anywhere, save in a practical religious application, as in Eph 4 21; 1 n 2 4 21.

(3) Moral truth is correspondence of expression with inner conception. Taken in its full meaning of correspondence of idea with fact, of expression with thought and with intention, of concrete reality with ideal type, this is the characteristic sense of the word in the Scriptures. Here the aim of religion is to relate man to God in accordance with truth. In apprehension man is to know God and His order as they are in fact and in idea. In achievement man is to make true in his own experience the idea of God that is given to him. Truth is thus partly to be apprehended and partly to be produced. The emphatically characteristic teaching of Christianity is that the will to produce truth, to do the will of God, is the requisite attitude for apprehending the truth. This teaching of Jesus in Jn 7 17 is in accord with the entire teaching of the Bible. Eph 1 18 suggests the importance of right attitude for learning, while 4 18 shows the effect of a wrong attitude in ignorance of vital truth.

(4) Religious truth is a term frequently met in modern

shows the effect of a wrong attitude in ignorance of vital truth.

(4) Religious truth is a term frequently met in modern literature, but it has no sound basis in reason and it has none at all in the Bible. All truth is ultimately religious and only in a superficial way can religious truth be spoken of as an independent conception. Least of all can religious truth and scientific truth be at variance.

Philosophy has continuously tried to find tests for truth, and so has wrought out theories of knowledge-epistemologies. Not to go back

2. Standinto the Gr philosophy, we have in ards of modern times such theories as (1) the Kantian, (2) the scholastic, (3) the Hegelian, (4) the pragmatic, (5) that of the "new realism"; and these include only such as may be defined with some clearness, for the tendencies of current thought have been toward confusion concerning all standards of truth and reality, and so toward widespread agnosticism and skepticism. This temper has, naturally, reacted on thinking in practical ethics and upon the sanctions of religion. There is thus in religion and morals a tendency to obscure the distinction between what is and what ought to be. See Authority; Ethics;

PHILOSOPHY; RIGHT; SIN. In the Bible the known will of God is final for man as a standard of truth, not as arbitrary, but as expressive of God's nature. God's nature is allcomprehensive of fact and goodness, and so is, all and in all, the source, support and objective of all concrete being. The will of God thus reveals, persuades to and achieves the ideals and ends of complete existence. The term "truth" is sometimes, therefore, nearly equivalent to the revealed will of

(1) The OT uses the term primarily of God and

applies the principle to man. The practical ob-

jective is ever prominent.

(2) The Synoptic Gospels and Acts 3. Special use the term chiefly in popular idio-matic phrases "of a truth," "in truth," "surely" (cf Lk 22 59; Acts 4 27).

Writings In Mt 22 16 there is a more serious and comprehensive application, but it is in the flattering words of Pharisaic hypocrisy (cf Mk 12 14; Lk 20 21). To be sure, we are to understand that even in the phrases of common

speech Jesus employed the term in all seriousness

(Lk 4 25; 9 27).
(3) In Paul the sense of Divine faithfulness, as in the OT, is occasionally met (Rom 3 3.7; 15 8). Again the term emphasizes sincerity (1 Cor 5 8; 2 Cor 7 14). Generally it has direct or clearly implied reference to God's revelation in Jesus Christ with a view to redeeming men. In a general way the term is thus equivalent to the gospel, but there is never identification of the two terms (see Rom 2 8; Eph 1 13; 1 Tim 3 15). In Gal 2 5; 5 7, "the truth of the gospel" is its content in the purpose of God, in contrast with misconceptions of it: the true gospel as against false representations of

the gospel.

(4) In the Johannine writings we find occasionally the emphatic phrase of genuineness (I Jn 3 18; 2 Jn ver 1; 3 Jn ver 1) and emphatic reality (Jn 8 46; 16 7). In Rev we have "true" in the sense of trustworthy, because ultimately real or in accord with ultimate reality (3 7.14; 6 10; 15 3; 19 9.11, etc). Generally, as in the Gospel, we approach more nearly than elsewhere in Scripture a metaphysical use, yet always with the practical religious end dominant. Truth is reality in relation to the vital interests of the soul. It is primarily something to be realized and done, rather than something to be learned or known. In the largest aspect it is God's nature finding expression in His creation, in revelation, in Jesus Christ in whom "grace and truth came" (Jn 1 17), and whom grace and truth came (31 1 17), and finally in man apprehending, accepting and practically realizing the essential values of life, which are the will of God (Jn 1 14; 8 32; 17 19; 18 37 f; 1 Jn 2 21; 3 19). Truth is personalized in Jesus Christ. He truly expresses God, presents the true ideal of man, in Himself summarizes the harmony of existence and becomes the agent for unifying the disordered world. Hence He is the Truth (Jn 14 6), the true expression ("Logos," Jn 1 1) of God. See the same idea without the terminology in Paul (Col 1 14 ff; 2 9). Similarly, the Holy Spirit is the Spirit of truth because His function is to guide into all truth (Jn 16 13; 1 Jn 2 27; 5 7).

(5) It is understood by many that in Jas, Pet, He, and possibly the Pastoral Epp., the term connotes "the body of Christian teaching" (cf Jas 1 18; 3 14; 1 Pet 1 22; 2 Pet 2 2; He 10 26; 1 Tim 3 15). The use of the article here cannot be conclusive, and instead of "the body of Christian teaching," it seems more correct to understand the reality of life values as represented in the gospel plan of salvation and of living. In a general way this would include "the body of Christian teaching," but the reference would be less concrete. too early a writing to employ the term in this so

specific a sense.

III. Analytical Summary.—(1) Truth is presented in Scripture as a chief element in the nature of God (Ps **31** 5; Isa **65** 16). (2) 1. Truth But this quality is never given as an

abstract teaching, but only as qualifying God in His relations and activities. in God So it is a guaranty of constancy (Dt 32 4; Ps 100 5; 146 6; Jas 1 17); esp. a ground of confidence in His promises (Ex 34 6; Ps 91 4; 146 6); of

right dealing with men without reference to any explicit pledges (Ps 85 11; 89 14); a basis of security in the correctness of His teachings (Neh 9 13; Ps 119 142; Isa 25 1); of assurance within His covenant relations (Ps 89 5; Isa 55 3). (3) God's truth is esp. noteworthy as a guaranty of merciful consideration of men. This is an imof merciful consideration of men. portant element in the theology of the OT, as it is a point guarded also in the NT (Ps 25 10; 31 5; 61 7; 85 10; 98 3; Jn 3 16; Rom 3 23-26). (4) Equally is the truth of God an assurance to men of righteous judgment in condemnation of sin and sinners (1 S 15 29; Ps 96 13; Rom 2 2.8). In general the truth of God stands for the consistency of His nature and guarantees His full response in all the relations of a universe of which He is the maker, preserver and end.

As related to God in origin and obligation, man is bound morally to see and respond to all the demands of his relations to God and to

the order in which he lives under God. 2. Truth in Man (1) Truthfulness in speech, and also in the complete response of his nature to the demand upon it, is urged as a quality to be found in man and is commended where found, as its lack is condemned. It is essential to true manhood. Here, as in the case of truth in God, truth is regarded as revealed in social relations and responsibilities. Truth is not merely in utterance, nor is it only response to a specific command or word, but lies in the response of the will and life to the essential obligations of one's being (Ps 15 2; 119 30; Prov 12 19; 23 23; Isa 59 4.14.15; Jer 7 28; 9 3; Hos 4 1; Rom 1 18.25; Eph 4 15; 2 Thess 2 10.12).

(2) Truth in man is in response to truth in God, and is to be acquired on the basis of a gift from God. This gift comes by way of teaching and also by way of the working of the Divine Spirit in the life of man. Highest truth in correspondence to ideal is possible only by the working of "the God of truth" in the spirit of the man. Man's freedom to realize his being is dependent upon his receptive attitude toward the Son of God. Hence salvation in its fullest idea is stated in terms of truth (Jn 11 3 ff; Phil 3 10 ff). See in general, Ps 51 6; Isa 25 1; Jn 3 21; 8 32; 16 13; 17 19; 18 37; Eph 4 21. 24; 5 9; He 10 26; 1 Jn 2 27.

The modern study of religion on an evolutionary

hypothesis and the comparative study of religions

have contributed to an extensive 3. Truth in questioning whether there is any ab-Religion solute truth in religion, or at least any standards by which truth in religion may be known. Isa 43 and 44 and Paul in Acts 17 and Gal 3 accord with modern findings that there is an element of truth in religions generally, and that God's faithfulness pledges Him to bring the light of fuller truth to all men. This He does through the religion and the testimony of them to whom He has already come with this fuller light. This light is contained in the revealed word of the OT prophets and of the NT witnesses to Jesus. In a definite way the Scriptures preserve these standards of religious truth. But always the attitude of the individual, as also of the group, determines the measure of apprehension of the truth and the certainty with which it is held. It is always important to keep in mind that truth in religion is not primarily an intellectualistic affair, to be cognized, but is essentially a voluntaristic experience and a duty to be done for the glory of God in the realization of the complete truth of God. Jesus Christ as the truth of God becomes the standard and test for truth in the religion of men. And this not in any objective and formal way of a series of propositions, to be accepted and contended for, but in the subjective way of experience, in a series of ideals to be realized and propagated. If any man wishes to do God's will, he shall be able to decide the truth of religious teaching, and the Son who is true will give the freedom of truth (Jn 7 17; 8 32).

WILLIAM OWEN CARVER

TRYPHAENA, trī-fē'na (Τρύφαινα, Trūphaina; AV Tryphena): Tryphaena is coupled with "Tryphosa"—among those members of the Christian community at Rome to whom Paul sends greetings (Rom 16 12). He describes them as those "who labor in the Lord." "The names, which might be rendered 'Dainty' and 'Disdain' (see Jas 5 5; Isa 66 11), are characteristically pagan, and unlike the description" (Denney). They were probably sisters or near relatives, for "it was usual to designate members of the same family by derivatives of the same root" (Lightfoot, Phil, 175). Both names are found in inscriptions connected with the imperial household, "Tryphosa" occurring more frequently than "Tryphaena." S. F. Hunter

TRYPHON, trī'fon (Τρύφων, $Tr \hat{u}ph\bar{o}n$): The surname of Diodotus, a usurper of the Syrian throne. He was a native of Apamea, and had been in the service of Alexander Balas. On the death of Balas (145 BC), Tryphon, taking advantage of the murmurs of discontent among the troops of Demetrius II (Nicator), set up the younger son of Balas, Antiochus VI, as claimant to the throne against Demetrius (1 Macc 11 39). The Jews under Jonathan came to the assistance of Demetrius in his difficulties against his revolting subjects. But Demetrius, when confirmed on his throne, soon made it apparent that he did not intend to fulfil his promises to his Jewish allies (11 53). Consequently Jonathan and Simon joined Tryphon and Antiochus VI, securing many advantages for their country (11 54 ff). Jonathan inflicted a severe defeat on the forces of Demetrius. The successes of the Jewish leaders awakened the jealousy and suspicion of Tryphon, who determined to thwart the further plans of Jonathan and to remove him as an obstacle in the way of his securing the crown for himself. By an act of shrewd treachery, Tryphon captured Jonathan at Ptolemais and butchered all his followers (12 48). Simon, brother of Jonathan, now undertook the conduct of affairs and thwarted Tryphon in his attempts upon Jerus, whereupon the latter murdered Jonathan at Baswhereupon the latter murdered Johathan at Bascama (13 1 ff) in 143 BC. Tryphon next murdered the young Antiochus VI (13 31) and claimed the throne of Syria for himself (143 BC) (but see the chronology as given in Schürer, *HJP*, 4th ed, I, 172). Simon now went over to the side of Demetrius on condition that Judaea should be free from tribute to Syria—a privilege that was rather in the power of Tryphon than of Demetrius to give, and so "in the 170th year [143 BC] was the yoke of the heathen taken away from Israel" (13 41). In the heathen taken away from Israel" (13 41). In 138 BC Demetrius was captured by Mithridates I (Arsaces), king of Parthia (14 2). His brother, Antiochus VII (Sidetes), continued the struggle against Tryphon, first with the aid of Simon, but later repudiating it. Tryphon was obliged to flee before Sidetes to Dor (15 11), where Antiochus refused the assistance of Simon (15 26). He next seemed to Ptolomis then to Orthogia and fingley escaped to Ptolemais, then to Orthosia, and finally to his native Apamea, where he was driven to suicide (Jos, Ant, XIII, vii, 2; Strabo, 668; Appian, Syr, 68). (The best account is given in Schürer, 4th ed, I, 172 ff; cf also Speaker's Comm. in loc.) See Antiochus; Demetrius. S. Angus

TRYPHOSA, trī-fō'sa (Τρυφῶσα, Truphōsa): Greetings are sent by Paul to "Tryphaena and Tryphosa, who labor in the Lord' (Rom 16 12). See TRYPHAENA.

TSADHE, tsä-thā'. See CADHE.

TUBAL, tū'bal (ΔΠΑ, tūbhal, Τιbhal, LXX Θόβελ, Thóbel, A in Ezk 39 1, Θόβερ, Thóber): As the text stands, Tubal and Meshech are always coupled, except in Isa 66 19 (MT) and Ps 120 5. In the former passage Tubal is yoked with Javan; in the latter Meshech occurs in ver 5 and Kedar in ver 6. In Gen 10 2||, they are sons of Japheth. In Ezk (27 13) the two are mentioned as exporters of slaves and copper, as a warlike people of antiquity (32 26), in the army of Gog (38 2 ff; 39 1). Jos identifies them with the Iberians and Cappadocians respectively; but they are most probably the T.βαρηνοί, Tibarënoi, and Μόσχοι, Móschoi, first mentioned in Herod. iii.94 as belonging to the 19th satrapy of Darius, and again (vii.78) as furnishing a contingent to the host of Xerxes. Equally obvious is their identity with the Tabali and Muški of the Assyr monuments, where the latter is mentioned as early as Tiglath-pileser I, and the former under Shalmaneser II; both are described as powerful military states. They appear together in Sargon's inscriptions; and during this entire period their territory must have extended much farther S. and W. than in Gr-Rom times. They are held (Winckler and Jeremias) to have been remnants of the old Hittite population which were gradually driven (probably by the Cimmerian invasion) to the mountainous district S.E. of the Black Sea. HORACE J. WOLF

TUBAL-CAIN, tū'bal-kān (קרובר לקרוי, tūbhal kayin): One of the sons of Lamech (Gen 4 22). He is a brother of Jabal and Jubal, who appear to have been the founders of several industries and arts. The text למש כורדע וברול), lōṭēsh kol hōrēsh nºhōsheth ū-bharzel) has been the cause of endless dispute. Holzinger and Gunkel hold that wide was a marginal gloss to שרות, and that, as in vs 20 and 21, there stood before כור הוא היה אבר עם and 21, there stood before כור הוא היה אבר עם and 21, there stood before הוא היה אבר עם and בון, hū hāyāh 'ābhī. This would make Tubal-cain the founder of the metal industry, and place him in a class similar to that of his brothers. The LXX, however, has no equivalent of יף. This omission leads Dillmann, Wellhausen, and others to the position that "Tubal" originally stood alone, and יף, being a later addition, was trd "smith." Many commentators identify Tubal with the Assyr Tubal, a people living S.W. of the Black Sea; in later times they were called "Tibareni" (Ezk 27 13). Tubal may be the eponymous ancestor of these people, whose principal industry seems to have been the manufacture of vessels of bronze and iron.

TUBIAS, tū'bī-as, tū'bi-as (ἐν τοῖς Τωβίου, en tois Tōbiou; AV "in the places of Tobie," RV "in the land of Tubias"): A place in Gilead where 1,000 men of the Jews were slaughtered by the Gentiles, their wives and children being carried away captive (1 Macc $\bf 5$ 13). It is identified with the land of Tob (q.v.).

TUBIENI, tū-bi-ē'nī (πρὸς τοὺς λεγομένους Τουβιήνους Ἰουδαίους, prός toús legoménous Toubiếnous Ioudaíous, "unto the Jews that are called Tubieni"): Men of Tob (q.v.) who had occupied the town of Charax (2 Macc 12 17).

TUMOR, tū'mēr, tū'mor (לֶּבֶּלֶׁ , 'ōphel): RV substitutes this word for "emerods" in 1 S 5 12; 6 4; Dt 28 27 m. See Emerods.

TURBAN, tûr'ban (Lev 16 4 m). See Dress, V.

TURPENTINE, tûr'pen-tin, TREE. See TERE-BINTH

TURTLE-DOVE, tûr't'l-duy. See Dove.

TUTOR, tu'ter: In modern Eng. an "instructor," more particularly a private instructor, but the word properly means a "guardian." Hence its use in Gal 4 2 AV for ἐπίτροπος, epítropos, here "guardian" (so RV), and 1 Cor 4 15; Gal 3 24.25 RV for παιδαγωγός, paidagōgós. See Schoolmaster.

TWELVE, twelv (שׁוֵרֶם עָשָׂר, shºnēm 'āsār; δώδεκα, dödeka). See Apostle; Number.

TWELVE APOSTLES, GOSPELS OF THE. See APOCRYPHAL GOSPELS.

TWELVE PATRIARCHS, TESTAMENTS OF THE. See Apocalyptic Literature, IV, 1.

TWELVE STARS. See ASTRONOMY, II, 12.

TWENTY, twen'ti. See Number.

TWILIGHT, twi'lit (AW), nesheph): twilight of Pal is of short duration, owing to the low latitude, there being scarcely more than an hour between sunset and complete darkness. It is a distinct boundary between daytime and the darkness. The people of Pal still give the time of an event as so many hours before or after sunrise or sunset: so many hours before or atter sunrise or sunset: "David smote them from the twilight even unto the evening of the next day" (1 S 30 17), and "They rose up in the twilight, to go" (2 K 7 5). The word is evidently used in the sense of darkness in "the stars of twilight" (Job 3 9) and "The adulterer waiteth for the twilight" (Job 24 15). AV has "twilight" in Ezk 12 6 ff, but RV has "dark."

Alfred H. Joy

ALFRED H. Joy TWIN BROTHERS (Acts 28 11). See Dios-CURI.

TWINE, twin (기학, shāzar, "to be twined"): The word is used in Ex 26 1 ff; 36 8 ff, etc, of the "fine twined linen" used for the curtains and hangings of the tabernacle, and for parts of the priests' dress. It denotes linen the finely spun threads of which consisted of two or more smaller threads twined together. See LINEN; TABERNACLE.

TWO, too. See Number.

TYCHICUS, tik'i-kus (Túxikos, Túchikos, lit. "chance"): Mentioned 5 t in the NT (Acts 20 4; Eph 6 21; Col 4 7; 2 Tim 4 12; Tit 3 12); an Asiatic Christian, a friend and companion of the

apostle Paul.

(1) In the first of these passages his name occurs as one of a company of the friends of Paul. The apostle, at the close of his 3d missionary journey, was returning from Greece through Macedonia into Asia, with a view to go to Jerus. This journey into Asia, with a view to go to Jerus. This journey proved to be the last which he made, before his apprehension and imprisonment. It was felt, both by himself and by his friends, that this journey was a specially important one. He was on his way to Jerus, "bound in the spirit" (Acts 20 22). But another cause which gave it particular importance was that he and his friends were carrying the money which had been collected for several years previous in the churches of the Gentiles, for the help of the poor members of the church in Jerus (Acts 24 17). No fewer than eight of his intimate friends accompanied him into Asia, and one of these was T. Luke uses the word "Asian" (EV "of Asia," Acts 20 4) to describe T. He was with Paul at Troas, and evidently journeyed with him, as one of "Paul's company" (Acts 21 8 AV), all the way to Jerus.

(2) The 2d and 3d passages in which the name of Tychicus occurs (see above) give the information that he was with Paul in Rome during his first imprisonment. In Col Paul writes, "All my affairs shall Tychicus make known unto you, the beloved brother and faithful minister and fellow-servant in the Lord: whom I have sent unto you for this very purpose, that ye may know our state, and that he may comfort your hearts" (4 7.8). In almost identical words he writes in Eph, "But that ye also may know my affairs, how I do, Tychicus, the beloved brother and faithful minister in the Lord, shall make known to you all things: whom I have sent unto you for this very purpose, that ye may know our state, and that he may comfort your hearts" (6 21.22).

Paul had intrusted T. with a very important mission. He was to deliver the Ep. to the Eph, that is, "the circular letter" (see Laddiceans, Efistle to the) to the churches in proconsular Asia, to which it was sent, giving a copy of it to the church in Laddicea. He was then to proceed to Colossae, with the Ep. to the church there. In Colossae T. would plead the cause of Onesimus, who accompanied him from Rome. "Under his shelter Onesimus would be safer than if he encountered Philemon alone" (Lightfoot, Comm. on Col., 314). In Laddicea and Colossae T. would not only deliver the Epp. from Paul, but he would also, as the apostle had written to the churches in those places, communicate to them all information about his "state," that is, how things were going with him in regard to his appeal to the emperor, and his hope of being soon set at liberty. T. would make known to them all things.

(3) The passages in the Epp. to Titus and to Timothy show that T. was again with Paul, after the appeal to the emperor had resulted in the apostle regaining his freedom. The passage in Tit evi-dently refers to the interval between Paul's first dentity refers to the interval between Faul's first and second Rom imprisonments, and while he was again engaged in missionary journeys. The apostle writes to Titus, who was in Crete in charge of the churches there, that he intended to send either Artemas or T. to him, so as to take the oversight of the work of the gospel in that island, that Titus might be free to come to be with the apostle at Nicopolis.

(4) The last passage where T. is mentioned occurs in 2 Tim, which was written in Rome not long before Paul's execution. To the very end Paul was busy as ever in the work of the gospel; and though it would have been a comfort to him to have his friends beside him, yet the interests of to have his friends beside him, yet the interests of the kingdom of Christ are uppermost in his thoughts, and he sends these friends to help the progress of the work. To the last, T. was serviceable as ever: "Tychicus I sent to Ephesus" (4 12). As Timothy was in charge of the church in Ephesus (1 Tim 13), the coming of T. would set him free, so as to enable him to set off at once to rejoin Paul at Rome, as the apostle desired him (2 Tim 4 9.21).

It should also be noted that at Ephesus T. would be able to visit his old friend Trophimus, who was, at that very time, only a few miles away—at Miletus, sick (2 Tim 4 20).

It is possible that T. is the brother referred to in 2 Cor 8 22.23 as one "whom we have many times proved earnest in many things... [one of] the messengers of the churches the glory of Christ."

(5) The character and career of T. are such as show him altogether affectionate, faithful and worthy of the confidence reposed in him by Paul, who, as already seen, sent him again and again on important work, which could be performed only by a man of ability and of high Christian worth and experience. Thus all that is known regarding T. fully bears out the description of his character given by the apostle himself, that he was a beloved brother. a faithful minister and fellow-servant in the Lord. JOHN RUTHERFURD

TYPE, tīp:

Definition of Type
 Distinctive Features
 Classification of Types
 How Much of the OT Is Typical?

The Bible furnishes abundant evidence of the presence of types and of typical instruction in the Sacred Word. The NT attests this fact. It takes up a large number of persons and things and events of former dispensations, and it treats them as adumbrations and prophecies of the future. A generation ago a widespread interest in the study of typology prevailed; latterly the interest has largely subsided, chiefly because of the vagaries and extravagances which attended its treatment on the part of not a few writers. Pressing the typical teaching of Scripture so far as to imperil the historical validity of God's word is both dangerous and certain to be followed by reaction and neglect of the subject.

The word "type" is derived from a Gr term $\tau \dot{\nu} \pi \sigma s$, The word "type" is derived from a Gr term $\tau \ell \pi o s$, $t \ell \iota p o s$, which occurs 16 t in the NT. It is variously trd in AV, e.g. twice "print" (Jn 20 1. Defini- 25); twice "figure" (Acts 7 43; Rom tion of Type 5 14); twice "pattern" (Tit 2 7; He 8 5); once "fashion" (Acts 7 44); once "manner" (Acts 23 25); once "form" (Rom 6 17); and 7 t "example" (1 Cor 10 6.11; Phil 3 17; 1 Thess 1 7; 2 Thess 3 9; 1 Tim 4 12; 1 Pet 5 3). It is clear from these texts that the NT writers use the word "type" with some degree NT writers use the word "type" with some degree of latitude; yet one general idea is common to all, namely, "likeness." A person, event or thing is so fashioned or appointed as to resemble another; the one is made to answer to the other in some essential feature; in some particulars the one matches the other. The two are called type and antitype; and the link which binds them together is the correspondence, the similarity, of the one with the other.

Three other words in the NT express the same general idea. One is "shadow" (σκιά, skiά, He 10 1), "For the law having a shadow of the good things to come"—as if the substance or reality that was still future cast its shadow backward into the old economy. "Shadow" implies dimness and transitoriness; but it also implies a measure of resemblance between the one and the other. The 2d term is "parable" (παραβολή, parabolé, He 9 9); the tabernacle with its services was an acted parable for the time then present, adumbrating thus the blessed reality which was to come.

The 3d term is "copy," or "pattern" (ὑπόδειγμα, hupódeigma), a word that denotes a sketch or draft of something future, invisible (He 9 23); the tabernacle and its furniture and services were copies, outlines of heavenly things.

heavenly things.

Types are pictures, object-lessons, by which God taught His people concerning His grace and saving power. The Mosaic system was a sort of kindergarten in which God's people were trained in Divine things, by which also they were led to look for better things to come. An old writer thus expresses it: "God in the types of the last dispensation was teaching His children their letters. In this dispensation He is teaching them to put the letters together, and they find that the letters, arrange them as they will, spell Christ, and nothing but

In creation the Lord uses one thing for many purposes. One simple instrument meets many ends. For how many ends does water serve! And the atmosphere: it supplies the lungs, conveys sound, diffuses odors, drives ships, supports fire, gives rain, fulfils besides one knows not how many other purposes. And God's word is like His work, is His work, and, like creation, is inexhaustible. Whatever God touches, be it a mighty sun or an insect's wing, a vast prophecy or a little type, He perfects for the place and the purpose He has in mind.

What are the distinctive features of a type? type, to be such in reality, must possess three welldefined qualities. (1) It must be a 2. Distinctrue picture of the person or the thing it represents or prefigures. A type tive Features is a draft or sketch of some welldefined feature of redemption, therefore it must in some distinct way resemble its antitype, e.g. Aaron as high priest is a rough figure of Christ the Great High Priest, and the Day of Atonement in Israel (Lev 16) must be a true picture of the atoning work of Christ. (2) The type must be of Divine appointment. In its institution it is designed to bear a likeness to the antitype. Both type and antitype are preordained as constituent parts of the scheme of redemption. As centuries sometimes lie between the type and its accomplishment in the antitype, of course infinite wisdom alone can ordain the one to be the picture of the other. Only God can make types. (3) A type always prefigures something future. A Scriptural type and predictive prophecy are in substance the same, differing only in form. This fact distinguishes between a symbol and a type. A symbol may represent a thing of the present or of the past as well as of the future, e.g. the symbols in the Lord's Supper. A type always looks to the future; an element of prediction must necessarily be in it.

Another thing in the study of types should be borne in mind, namely, that a thing in itself evil cannot be the type of what is good and

3. Classipure. It is somewhat difficult to give a satisfactory classification of Bib. fication of types, but broadly they may be dis-Types tributed under three heads: (1) Per-

sonal types, by which are meant those personages of Scripture whose lives and experiences illustrate some principle or truth of redemption. Such are Adam, who is expressly described as the "figure of him that was to come" (Rom 5 14), Melchizedek, Abraham, Aaron, Joseph, Jonah, etc. (2) Historical types, in which are included the great historical events that under Providence became striking foreshadowings of good things to come, e.g. the Deliverance from the Bondage of Egypt; the Wilderness Journey; the Conquest of Canaan; the Call of Abraham; Deliverances by the Judges, etc. (3) Ritual types, such as the Altar, the Offerings, the Priesthood, the Tabernacle and its furniture. There are typical persons, places, times, things, actions, in the OT, and a reverent study of them leads into a thorough acquaintance with the fulness and the blessedness of the word of God.

How much of the OT is to be regarded as typical is a question not easily answered. Two extremes,

however, should be avoided. First, the extravagance of some of the early 4. How Fathers, as Origen, Ambrose, Jerome (revived in our time by Andrew Jukes Much of the OT Is and his imitators). They sought for Typical?

types, and of course found them, in every incident and event, however trivial, recorded in Scripture. Even the most simple and commonplace circumstance was thought to conceal within itself the most recondite truth. Mystery and mysticism were seen everywhere, in the cords and pins of the tabernacle, in the yield of herds, in the death of one, in the marriage of another, even in the number of fish caught by the disciples on the night the risen Saviour appeared to them-how much some have tried to make of that number, 153! The very serious objection to this method is, that it wrests Scripture out of the sphere of the natural and the historical and locates it in that of the arbitrary and the fanciful; it tends to destroy the validity and trustworthiness of the record.

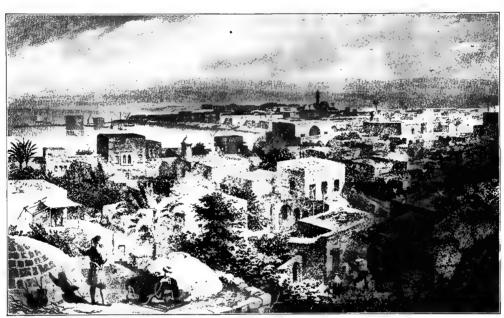
Second, the undue contraction of the typical ement. Professor Moses Stuart expresses this view as follows: "Just so much of the OT is to be accounted typical as the NT affirms to be so, and no more." This opinion assumes that the NT writers have exhausted the types of the OT, while the fact is that those found in the later Scripture are but samples taken from the storehouse where many more are found. If they are not, then nothing is more arbitrary than the NT use of types, for there is nothing to distinguish them from a multitude of others of the same class. Further, the view assumes that Divine authority alone can determine the reality and import of types—a view that applies with equal force against prophecy. This rule may be safely followed: wherever the three characteristics of types are found which have been already mentioned, there is the type.

identify him with a certain Tyrannus, a sophist, mentioned by Suidas. Paul would thus appear to be one of the traveling rhetors of the time, who had hired such a hall to proclaim his own peculiar philosophy (Ramsay, Paul the Traveller, 246, 271)

(2) Meyer thinks that as the apostle had not passed wholly to the Gentiles, and Jews still flocked to hear him, and also that as Tyrannus is not spoken of as a proselyte (sebómenos tón Theón), this scholē is the bēth Midhrāsh of a Jewish rabbi. "Paul with is the beth Midhrash of a Jewish rabbi. his Christians withdrew from the public synagogue to the private synagogue of Tyrannus, where he and his doctrine were more secure from public annoyance" (Meyer in loc.).
(3) Another view (Overbeck) is that the expres-

sion was the standing name of the place after the S. F. HUNTER

original owner.



VIEW OF TYRE.

Weighty are the words of one equally eminent for his piety as for his learning: "That the OT is rich in types, or rather forms in its totality one type, of the NT, follows necessarily from the entirely unique position which belongs to Christ as the center of the history of the world and of revelation. As we constantly see the principle embodied in the vegetable and animal kingdoms, that the higher species are already typified in a lower stage of development, so do we find, in the domain of saving revelation, the highest not only prepared for, but also shadowed forth, by that which precedes in the lower spheres" (Van Oosterzee).

LITERATURE.—P. Fairbairn. Tundon of Scripture.

LITERATURE.—P. Fairbairn, Typology of Scripture, 2 vols; Angus, The Bible Hand-Book; Jukes, Law of Offerings in Lev; Mather, Gospel of OT, Explanation of Types; McEwen, Grace and Truth: Types and Figures of the OT; Soltan, Tabernacle, Priesthood and Offerings.

WILLIAM G. MOOREHEAD

TYRANNUS, ti-ran'us (Túpavvos, Túrannos): When the Jews of Ephesus opposed Paul's teaching in the synagogue, he withdrew, and, separating his followers, reasoned daily in the school of Tyrannus. "This continued for the space of two years" (Acts 19 9.10). D Syr (Western text) adds after Tyrannus (ver 9), "from the 5th hour unto the 10th." Schole is the lecture-hall or teaching-room of a philosopher or orator, and such were to be found in every Gr city. Tyrannus may have been (1) a Gr rhetorician or (2) a Jewish rabbi.

(1) This is the common opinion, and many

TYRE, tīr () ,) , rōr, "rock"; Túpos, Túros, "Tyrus"; modern Sūr): The most noted of the Phoen cities, situated on the coast, 1. Physical lat. 33° 17', about 20 miles S. of Sidon Features and about 35 N. of Carmel. The date of its foundation is uncertain, but it was later than that of Sidon. It is mentioned in the travels of the Egyp Mohar, dating probably from the 14th cent. BC, and in the Am Tab of about the same period. Herodotus describes the temple of Hercules at T. and says it was built 2,300 years before his time, which would carry back the beginning of the city to more than 2700 BC. It was a double city, one part on an island, a short distance from the shore, and the other on the mainland opposite. The island city had two harbors, connected by a canal, one looking N. and the other S. The island was rocky and the city was fortified on the land side by a wall 150 ft. high, the wall being of less elevation on the other sides. It was an exceedingly strong position, and is referred to in the Bible as the "strong" or "fortified" city (Josh 19 29). The space within the walls was crowded with buildings, and is said to have contained 40,000 inhabitants. The town on the mainland was situated in a plain extending from the Ras el-'Abyad, on the S. to Sarepta on the N., a distance of about 20 miles. It was fertile and well watered, the river Leontes (Litany) passing through it to the sea, about 5 miles N. of Tyre, and the copious fountain of Ras el-'Ain, 3 miles to the S., furnishing an abundant supply both for the city and the gardens.

(1) T. was for centuries subordinate to Sidon,

(1) T. was for centuries subordinate to Sidon, but when the Philis subdued the latter city, probably in the 12th cent. (see Sidon), Tyre

2. History received an accession of inhabitants

received an accession of inhabitants from the fugitives which gave it the From this time dates its great compreëminence. mercial and colonial activity. Its mariners pushed boldly out to the W. and founded colonies in Spain and North Africa, some of which, like Gades, Abdera and Carthage, became famous. They extended their commerce more widely than Sidon had ever done and ventured into the Atlantic and reached the coasts of Britain and West Africa. They reached out to the E. also, and had their ships in the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean, and their land routes threaded all Western Asia (see Phoenicia). T., like all the Phoen cities, became subject to Egypt under Thothmes III in the first half of the 15th cent. BC, and remained so for some 300 years, but it enjoyed practical autonomy under native kings, being only subject to tribute and to furnishing contingents of ships when the Egyp kings made their expeditions to the N. In the Am Tab, dating from the first half of the 14th cent., we find a certain Abi-melek (or Abi-milki) writing from T. to the king of Egypt asking for aid against the Amorite leader, Aziru, and the king of Sidon, who had joined the rebels. The name is Phoen, and we know that it was the policy of the Egyp kings to leave the native dynasts on the throne.

(2) After the decline of Egypt, T. regained her independence and exercised the hegemony over most of the Phoen towns, at least as far N. as Gebal (Byblus), as appears in the control that Hiram had over the Lebanon forests in the time of David and Solomon. Hiram was evidently desirous of an alliance with Israel, since he sent messengers to David and furnished cedar and workmen to build him a house, apparently without solicitation. The friendly connection between the two kingdoms was advantageous to both, since David and Solomon needed the timber and the skilled artisans that Hiram could furnish, and Hiram needed the food products of the land of Israel (1 K 5). T. was at this time noted for the skill of its artificers, and its manufactured products were famous throughout the world (see Phoenicia, 4). The purple dye and works in bronze were esp. famous, and Hiram, the Tyrian artisan, was engaged by Solomon to cast the bronzes required for the temple (1 K 7 13 ff). Hiram, the king, enlarged and beautified his capital. He united the two small islands on which the city was built by filling up the space between, where he made an open square and built a splendid temple to Mel-karth and Astarte. He engaged in commercial enter-prises with Solomon (1 K 9 26-28; 10 22), both in pursuance of the friendly alliance and also for the advantage of having the use of the port of Ezion-geber on the Red Sea. His brilliant reign lasted 43 years.

(3) The list of kings who succeeded him contains the names of Baal-azar, Abd-ashtoreth, murdered by his brothers, the eldest of whom succeeded him, followed by Astartus and Aserymus murdered by his brother, Pheles, who was overthrown by the high priest Eth-baal, showing how disturbed the period was. Eth-baal, or Ithobal, was the king who made an alliance with Ahab and gave him Jezebel, his daughter, in marriage, which proved most disastrous both to her and the country because of the introduction of the Baal-worship into Israel. Eth-baal was an energetic monarch, and is said to

have founded Botrys (Batrūn). He reigned 32 years, and was followed by Badezor and Mattan, who gave his daughter, Elissa (Dido), in marriage to ther uncle Sicharbas and transferred the throne to them; but they were set aside by an uprising of the people, and Pygmalion, son of Mattan, was placed on the throne, and Sicharbas put to death. Elissa fled with a party of nobles, by sea, to Africa and founded the city of Carthage. This happened about the middle of the 9th cent. BC, Jos putting it at 860.

(4) In the first half of this century T. became subject to Assyria, and her hegemony in Phoenicia came to an end, but her prosperity was not seriously checked as we may infer from Isa 23 8, which was written a century or so later. Assyria was satisfied with the payment of tribute until the time of Tiglath-pileser III (745-727), who laid a heavier hand upon her, and this led Elulaeus, king of T., to form a confederacy of the Phoen cities against Assyria. Shalmaneser IV subdued all except T., which he distressed by cutting off her water-supply. But the people dug wells and obtained enough to subsist upon for five years, when Shalmaneser was killed and Elulaeus recovered control of his territory. He was not molested by Sargon, but Sennacherib advanced against him with 200,000 men, and Elulaeus fled to Cyprus. The citizens made a successful resistance and Sennacherib did not take T., but it submitted to Esar-haddon, and its king, Baal, obtained the special favor of the Assyr king, who made him ruler of all the coast cities from Dor to Gebal, and the Lebanon was placed under his control (680-673 BC). It is rather surprising that Baal refused to assist him in his attack upon Egypt and that Esar-haddon did not punish him, probably because he was too much occupied with Egypt. Ashur-banipal, however, did compel him to submit and to give him his daughter, and those of his brothers, as secondary wives, but left him as king of T.

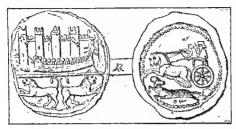
(5) On the decline of Assyria, T. regained its independence, and its greatness is indicated by the fact that it resisted Nebuchadnezzar 13 years (598–585); it is uncertain whether the island city was taken, but it evidently came to terms with the king of Babylon (cf Ezk 27 26; Jos. Ant. X, xi, 1 and see Expos T. 1899, pp. 378, 430, 475, 520). After this siege Sidon took the lead and T. was in a disturbed state: the monarchy was overthrown and suffetes, or judges, took its place for six years, when the old order was restored. The decline of Babylon enabled T. to regain her independence for a short period until its submission to the Persians about 525 BC, and thenceforth it was a vassal state during the continuance of the Pers empire.

thenceforth it was a vassal state during the continuance of the Pers empire.

(6) It was by no means hindered in its commercial prosperity, and its great strength is seen in the brave and energetic resistance it made to Alexander the Great. All Phoenicia submitted to him without resistance, and T. was willing to admit his suzerainty, but declined to receive him into the city. This so angered Alexander that he at once commenced a siege that proved the most difficult undertaking in all his wars. He had no fleet and was obliged to build a mole from the mainland to the island, but before he could finish it the Tyrians destroyed it and beat back their assailants with loss. Alexander had to do the work all over again, and as he was convinced that without a fleet he would not be able to take the city, he procured ships from the Phoen towns that had submitted, and with the aid of these was able to blockade the port and prevent the besieged from issuing forth to destroy the new mole. This was at length pushed up to the very wall of the city, which was finally breached, and the troops of Alexander forced their way in. But even then the defenders would not yield, and the king himself had to lead the assault upon them with his bodyguard and put them all to the sword. Those who died with arms in their hands were 8,000, and the survivors, women, children and slaves, to the number of 30,000, were sold in the open market. He placed over the ruined city, into which he introduced some colonists, a certain Abd-elonim, and left it after having spent about seven months in subduing it.

(7) After the death of Alexander, T. passed into the hands of Ptolemy Lagi, and when Antigonus, in 314 BC, took Phoenicia from him, T. resisted, and he had to blockade it 15 months before it would yield, showing how quickly it had recovered from

its previous disaster. It became a part of the Seleucid kingdom when Antiochus III drove the Ptolemies from Syria (198 BC), and the Seleucid kings regarded it of importance and gave it the right of asylum, and it was allowed the status of a free city by the Romans, Antony recognizing the mag-



Coin of Tyre.

istrates and council of T. as allies. When the Parthians attacked and took Syria, in 40 BC, T. would not submit and was left untouched, being too strong for them. Augustus deprived it of its freedom, but it was given the status of a "metropolis" by Hadrian, and this title appears on its coins.

(8) T. is mentioned in the NT several times: Christ visited its territory (Mt 15 21; Mk 7 24), and people from there came to hear Him (Lk 6 17). Herod Agrippa I had trouble with T., and a deputation came to visit him at Caesarea (Acts 12 20). Paul visited T. on his journey from Asia to Jerus (Acts 21 3-7).

Christianity was accepted by the people of T., so that the 2d cent. AD saw a bishopric established there, and in the 4th a council was held there to consider charges against Athanasius, by the party of Arius; he was condemned, a decision which brought the Tyrian church into disrepute. T. was already obnoxious to Christians because the anti-Christian philosopher Porphyry was from there. Tyre continued a commercial center, and Jerome says that it was the noblest and most beautiful of the Phoen cities and an emporium of commerce for almost the whole world (Comm. on Ezk). It was of considerable importance in the Crusades and continued so until toward the end of the 13th cent., when its trade declined, and it has now dwindled to a town of some 5,000 inhabitants. For "literature" see PHOENICIA.

TYRE, LADDER OF (κλίμακος Τύρου, klimakos Túrou): Given in 1 Macc 11 59 as the northern limit of the territory placed under the authority of Simon Thassi the Maccabee by Antiochus VI (Theos), in the year 143 BC. The statement of

TYRE, LADDER OF (κλίμακος Τύρου, klimakos Τύπου): Given in 1 Macc 11 59 as the northern limit of the territory placed under the authority of Simon Thassi the Maccabee by Antiochus VI (Theos), in the year 143 BC. The statement of Jos (BJ, II, x, 2) that it was 100 furlongs N. of Ptolemais, and a similar indication of position in the Jer Talm (Ab Zar 1 9) lead us to identify it with Rās-en-Nakūrāh and not with Rās-el-'Abyad (Promontorium Album of Pliny), as has been done. Here the rugged hills of Upper Galilee descend in bold precipices to the sea and leave no beach between. A natural barrier is thus formed which prevented the histories of Israel and Tyre from ever touching one another except in peaceful relations.

W. M. Christie

TYROPŒON, tī-rō-pē'on, THE. See JERUSALEM.

TYRUS, tī'rus. See Tyre.

TZADDI, tzä-dē'. See ÇADHE.

U

UCAL, ū'kal (כְּלֵאְ, 'ukhāl [see below]): This name occurs along with that of Ithiel (Prov 30 1), both being taken by older interpreters as those of ancient sages. Some have suggested (see Toy, Prov, 519 f) that Ucal might be the "Calcol" of 1 K 4 31 (Heb 5 11). Ucal was also explained as "I can," i.e. "I can maintain my obedience to God," just as Ithiel was taken to be "signs of God." LXX, Aq, Theodotion do not take the words as proper names, and so BDB with others point this word as a vb., "[and] I am consumed" (בְּאָלָר, wā'ēkhel, for בִּילְרָל, wē'ukhāl). The last three words of the verse are then trd "I have wearied myself, O God, I have wearied myself, O God, and am consumed." See ITHIEL.

UEL, ū'el (ਠਠਨਨ, 'ū'ēl, "will of God"): One of the sons of Bani who had taken foreign wives (Ezr 10 34). The name in 1 Esd 9 35 is "Juel" (B, 'Ονήλ, Ουέl, Α, 'Ιονήλ, Ιουέl).

UKNAZ, uk'naz (TP, ūk'naz, "and Kenaz," probably): Found in AVm of 1 Ch 4 15 for AV "even Kenaz," RV "and Kenaz," whereas LXX omits "and." It is probable that some name has dropped out after Elah. Curtis suggests reading "and these are the sons of Kenaz," i.e. those mentioned in vs 13 f. See Kenaz.

ULAI, ū'lī, ū'lā-ī (ਫ਼ੈਰੇਸ਼), 'ūbhal 'ūlāy,
"river Ulai"; Theod. Dnl 8 2, Οὐβάλ, Oubál; LXX
and Theod. in ver 16, Οὐλαί, Oulai;
1. The Lat Eulaeus): A river which, running through the province of Elam,
flowed through Shushan or Susa. It
was from "between" this river that
Daniel (8 16) heard a voice, coming apparently

from the waters which flowed between its two banks.

Notwithstanding that the rivers of Elam have often changed their courses, there is but little doubt that the Ulai is the Kerkhah, which,

2. Present rising in the Pers plain near Nehâvend-Names and (there called the Gamas-āb), is even there a great river. Turned by the mountains, it runs N.W. as far as Bisútún, receiving all the waters of Southern Kurdistan, where, as the Sein Merre, it passes through the inaccessible defiles of Luristan, its course before reaching the Kebir-Kuh being a succession of rapids. Turned aside by this mountain, it follows for about 95 miles the depression which here exists as far as the foothills of Luristan, reaching the Susian plain as a torrent; but it becomes less rapid before losing itself in the marshes of Hawizeh. The course of the stream is said to be still doubtful in places.

In ancient times it flowed at the foot of the citadel of Susa, but its bed is now about 1½ miles to the W.

The date of this change of course 3. Changed (during which a portion of the ruins of Bed at Susa Susa was carried away) is uncertain, but it must have been later than the time of Alexander the Great. The stream's greatest volume follows the melting of the snows in the mountains, and floods ensue if this coincides with the advent of heavy rain. Most to be dreaded are the rare occasions when it unites with the Ab-e-Diz.

The Ulai (Assyr *Ulâa* or *Ulâia*) near Susa is regarded as being shown on the sculptures of the Assyr king Ashur-bani-pal (Brit. Mus.,

Assyr king Ashur-bani-pal (Brit. Mus., 4. Assyrian Nineveh Gal.) illustrating his campaign against Te-umman. Its rapid stream bears away the bodies of men and horses, with chariots, bows and quivers. The

bodies which were thrown into the stream hindered its course, and dyed its waters with their blood.

LITERATURE.—See Délégation en Perse: Mémoires, I, Recherches Archéologiques, 25 ff.

T. G. PINCHES ULAM, ū'lam (אוֹלָם , 'ūlām, "preceding"): (1) A "son" of Peresh; a Manassite clan (1 Ch

7 16.17). Luc. reads 'Ηλάμ, Ēlám.

7 10.17). Luc. reads 11044, 20016.

(2) A descendant of Benjamin who had sons, "mighty men of valor" (1 Ch 8 39.40). LXX B has Alhau, Ailam, in ver 39, Alhau, Ailam in ver 30.1 Alhau, Ailam in ver 39. Alhau, Ailam in ver 40; A, Οὐλάμ, Oulám, in both, and so Luc.

ULLA, ul'a (እነንጀ, 'ullā', meaning unknown): An Asherite (1 Ch 7 39).

UMMAH, um'a (자꾸가, 'ummāh; 'Αρχόβ, Archób, 'Αμμά, Ammá): One of the cities allotted to the tribe of Asher (Josh 19 30). By a slight emenda-tion of the text it would read Acco, the name of the place subsequently known as Ptolemais, the modern $Akk\bar{a}$. This emendation is generally adopted by scholars, although it is at best a conjecture. No other identification is yet possible.

UMPIRE, um'pīr. See Daysman.

UNBELIEF, un-be-lef': The word (AV) represents two Gr words, ἀπείθεια, apetiteia, "disobedience" (only in Rom 11 30.32; He 4 6.11), and ἀπιστία, apistía, "distrust," the antithesis to "faith" (q.v.). The two words are not only akin etymologically but run into one another by mental connection, certainly where spiritual relations are con-cerned, as between man and God. For when God has spoken, in precept and yet more in promise, distrust involves, at least potentially, an element of disobedience. His supreme claim is to be trusted to command only what is right, and to promise only what is true. He is infinitely sympathetic in His insight, and infallibly knows where distrust comes only of the dim perceptions and weak misgivings of our mortal nature, and where, on the other hand, a moral resistance lies at the back of the non-confidence. But the presence of that darker element is always to be suspected, at least, and searched for in serious self-examination.

We may remark that it is a loss in our language that "unbelief" is the only word we can use as the antithesis to "faith"; for "faith" and "belief" (q.v.) are not exactly synonyms. "Unfaith" would (q.v.) are not exactly synonyms. "Unfaith" would be a welcome word for such use, if it were generally HANDLEY DUNELM so understood.

UNBELIEVER, un-be-lev'er: This word follows closely the lines of "unbelief" (q.v.) in its relation to originals. Once only (Acts 14 2) it represents the participle ἀπειθοῦντες, apeithoûntes, "disobeying [ones]." Elsewhere (nine cases) it represents ἀπιστος, àpistos, "faithless," "without faith." In six of these passages (all in 1 and 2 Cor) it denotes the unconverted pagan as distinguished from the convert. In the other passages (Lk 12 46; Tit 1 15; Rev 21 8) the reference is to the unbelief which comes of moral resistance to God.

UNCERTAIN, un-sûr'tin, UNCERTAINTY, un-Cor 14 8; advb. adēlos, 1 Cor 9 26; noun adēlotēs, 1 Tim 6 17; adēlos means "not clear," and so "uncertain." Also AV Wisd 9 14 for ἐπισφαλής, episphalēs, "unsteady," RV "prone to fall."

UNCHANGEABLE, un-chānj'a-b'l, UNCHANGE-ABLENESS, un-chānj'a-b'l-nes:

I. UNCHANGEABLENESS OF GOD A TRUTH OF NATURAL THEOLOGY

- SCRIPTURAL DOCTRINE OF THE UNCHANGEABLENESS

 - of God

 1. Not Lifeless Immobility
 2. As Contrasted with the Finite
 3. God's Knowledge, Will and Purpose
 4. In His Relation to the World
 5. His Relations to Men
- LITERATURE

The unchangeableness or immutability of God is that Divine attribute which expresses the truth that in His nature and perfections, in His knowledge, will and purpose, He always remains the same in the fulness of His infinite and perfect Being; infinitely exalted above change, becoming and development, which are the specific characteristics of all finite existence. This is one of what theologians have called the incommunicable attributes of God, that is, one of those specific characteristics of the Divine nature which make God to be God in distinction from all that is finite. These attributes have also been called negative attributes. By calling them negative, however, it is not meant that they express the nature of God in so far as He is unknowable and incomprehensible by the finite mind, while the positive attributes, such as love and righteousness, express God's nature as revealed and known. Both kinds of attributes can be known only in so far as God reveals Himself, and furthermore the so-called negative attributes involve a positive idea, while the positive ones in turn imply the negation of all finite limitations. Moreover, since the finite mind cannot comprehend the infinite God, back of all that God has revealed of Himself, back even of His absoluteness, eternity and un-changeability, lies the fulness of His infinite Being, unsearchable, unknowable, and incomprehensible alike in His nature and attributes (Ps 145 3; 147 5; Job 11 7-9; Isa 40 28).

It is these incommunicable attributes, including unchangeableness, which make God to be God, and mark the specific difference between Him and all finite existence. Unchangeableness is, therefore, the characteristic of God's entire nature and of all His attributes. It cannot be limited to His ethical nature or to His love, and, while it is true that these incommunicable attributes are revealed with especial richness in God's saving activity, they cannot be limited to marks of God's saving action or purpose. It is true that God is unchangeable in His love and grace and power to save, but that is only because it is the love and grace and power of the absolute, infinite and immutable God.

I. Unchangeableness of God a Truth of Natural Theology.—As the One infinitely perfect and absolute or self-existent Being, God is exalted far above the possibility of change, because He is independent of the content pendent, self-existent and unlimited by all the causes of change. As uncaused and self-existent, God cannot be changed from without; as infinitely perfect, He cannot suffer change from within; and as eternal and independent of time, which is the "form" of change and mutability, He cannot be subject to any change at all. God's unchangeableness, therefore, follows from His self-existence and eternity.

II. Scripture Doctrine of the Unchangeableness of God.—The Scripture doctrine of God reaffirms this truth. It conceives of God as a living Person in relation to the world and man, and at the same time as absolutely unlimited by the world and man, and as absolutely unchangeable. The God who has revealed Himself in the OT and the NT is never identified with, or merged in, the processes of Nature. He is complete and perfect in Himself, and is not the result of any process of self-realization. He is so great that His relations to the created universe cannot begin to exhaust His Being, and yet He stands in the closest relations to man and the world as Creator, Preserver, Governor, and Saviour.

times than at others.

On the one hand, then, the Bible never represents the unchangeableness of God as a dead immobility out of all relation to man and the world. This tendency of thought, 1. Not Lifeless Im- fearing anthropomorphism, proceeds mobility on the principle that to make any definite predications about God is to limit Him. The logical result of this is to conceive of God as abstract Being or Substance, so that the word "God" becomes only a name for the Unknowable. Over against this error, the Scripture represents God concretely as a Person in relation to the world and man. In the beginning He created the heavens and the earth, and from that time on He is the life of the world, esp. of Israel, His chosen people. bring out this truth anthropomorphisms are em-God comes and goes, reveals Himself and hides Himself. He repents (Gen 6 6; 1 S 15 11; Am 7 3; Joel 2 13); He becomes angry (Nu 11 1; Ps 106 40); and lays aside His anger (Dt 13 17; Hos 14 4). He sustains a different relation to the godly and the wicked (Prov 11 20; 12 22). In the fulness of time He became incarnate through the Son, and He dwells in His people by His Spirit, their experience of His grace being greater at some

But on the other hand, the Scripture always asserts in unmistakable terms the unchangeableness of God. He is unchangeable in His nature. Although the name 'El Shadday, by which He made Himself known in the patriarchal period of revelation, denotes esp. God's power, this name by no means exhausts the revelation of God in that period. His unchangeableness is involved in His eternity as made known to Abraham (Gen 21 33). This made known to Abraham (Gen 21 33). This attribute finds its clearest expression in the name "Uphovah" as revealed to Moses, the significance of which is unfolded in the passage Ex 3 13-15. God here reveals Himself to His people as "I Am That I Am," using the future tense of the vb. "to be," which, as the context shows, is given as the meaning of the name "Jehovah." Some recent writers would derive these words from the Hiphil stem of the vb., and affirm that it signifies that God is the giver of life. The vb., however, is in the Kal stem, the tense denoting the changeless continuity of the life and nature of God. The idea expressed is not merely that of self-existence, but also of unchangeableness, and this unchangeableness, as the context clearly indicates (esp. ver 15), is here set forth not simply as belonging to the nature of God in Himself, but is brought into closest connection with His covenant relation to His people, so that the religious value of God's unchangeableness is most clearly implied in this fundamental assertion of the attri-bute. The same idea of God's immutability is reaffirmed in the prophecy of Isaiah. It is connected with the name Jeh (Isa 41 4; cf also 48 12), where Jeh affirms that He is the first and, with the last, the same God, thereby asserting not merely His eternity, but also that He is the same in His Divine existence throughout all ages. This attri-Divine existence throughout an ago. bute, moreover, is claimed by Jeh, and set forth as bute, moreover, is claimed by Jeh, and set forth as bute, moreover, is claimed by Jeh, and set forth as an especial mark of His Godhead in Isa 44 6. unchangeableness of the Divine nature is also asserted by the prophet Malachi in a difficult passage (3 6). This is a clear affirmation of the unchangeableness of God, the only question being whether it is set forth as the ground of Israel's confidence, or in contrast with their fickleness, a question which depends partly on that of the text.

In the NT the thought of the passage in Ex 3 is reiterated in the Apocalypse where God is described as He who is and was and is to come (Rev 1 4). This is an expansion of the covenant name "Jehovah" in Ex 3 13-15, denoting not merely eternity but also immutability. The phrases "the Alpha and the

Omega" (Rev 1 8; 21 6; 22 13); and "the first and the last" (1 17; 22 13); and "the beginning and the end" (21 6; 22 13) bring out the same idea, and are applied to Christ as well as to God, which is a clear indication of Our Lord's Deity. The apostle Paul likewise asserts the incorruptibility, eternity and immortality of the Divine nature, all of which ideas imply the unchangeableness of God (Rom 1 23; 1 Tim 1 17; 6 16).

(Rom 1 23; 1 Tim 1 17; 6 16).

Not only is the unchangeableness of God's nature asserted in Scripture, and placed in relation to His dealings with men, but also it is declared to be 2. As Contact of the distinctive characteristic of God's nature as contrasted with the entire universe of finite being. While the heavens and the earth change and are passing away, God endures forever and forever the same God (Ps 102 26-28 [Heb 27-29]). The application of the language of this psalm to Christ by the author of the Ep. to the He (1 10-12) involves the unchangeableness of Christ, which is again explicitly asserted in this Ep. (13 8), being another clear indication of the way in which the Deity of Jesus Christ pervades the NT. This idea of God's immutability, as contrasted with the mutability of finite existence which is His creation, is given expression in the NT by the apostle James. As Creator of the heavenly bodies, God is called the Father of lights. While their lights, however, are intermittent, God's light is subject to neither change nor obscuration (1 17).

God's light is subject to hard-(1 17).

In accordance with this idea of the unchangeableness of God's nature, the Scripture, in ascribing life and personality to Him, never regards God as subject to any process of becoming or self-realization, and the views which so conceive of God are unscriptural whether they proceed upon a unitarian or a trinitarian basis.

God is also represented in Scripture as unchangeable in His knowledge, will and purpose. He is not

a man that He should repent (1 S 15 29). His purposes, therefore, are unknowledge, changeable (Nu 23 19; Isa 46 11; Prov Will and Purpose likened to "mountains of brass" (Zec 6 1). His righteousness is as immutable as mountains (Ps 36 6 [Heb 7]); and His power also is unchangeable (Isa 26 4). Hence, while the Scripture represents God as sustaining living relations to His creatures, it does not conceive of Him as conditioned or determined in any way by men's

as conditioned or determined in any way by men's acts, in either His knowledge, will, purpose or power. God knows eternally the changing course of events, and He acts differently upon different occasions, but all events, including human actions, are determined by God's unchangeable purpose, so that God's knowledge and actions are not contingent upon anything outside Himself.

Although, therefore, the idea of God as pure abstract Being, out of all relation to the world, is unscriptural, it is no less true that that conception of God which represents a reaction from this, and which conceives of God anthropomorphically and as conditioned and determined by the world and man, is also quite contradictory to the Scripture conception of God. This latter tendency goes too far in the opposite direction, and falls into the error of conceiving God's knowledge, will, purpose and power too anthropomorphically, and as limited by the free acts of man. While the opposite tendency kept God out of all relation to the world, this one erects God's relation to the world into something which limits Him. This way of conceiving of God, which is the error of Rationalism, Socinianism and Arminianism, is as unscriptural as that which conceives of God as abstract Being, unknowable, and entirely out of relation to the world.

Unchangeable in His nature and attributes, God is likewise unchangeable in His relation to the world, which relation the Scripture represents as creation and providence, Relation to the World everything finite changes, God remains ever the same (Ps 102 26–28). Consequently the pantheistic idea is also unscriptural,

which idea, going farther than the anthropomorphic and dualistic conception which places the world over against God, completely merges God's Being in the world and its processes of change, affirming that God comes to self-realization in the evolution of the world and man. In its reaction from the denial of God's living relation to the world, this view does not stop with limiting God by reason of this relation, but merges Him completely in the world-development. The Scripture, on the con-trary, always conceives of God as immutably free and sovereign in His relation to all the creation.

In accordance with this idea of the unchangeableness of God's nature and attributes, the Bible always maintains God's absoluteness and transcendence of Nature and her processes in all of the relations which He sustains to the finite universe. It came into being by His creative fiat, not by any process of emanation from His Being. He sustains it in existence, and governs it, not by any process of self-realization in the series of second causes, but from without, by His sovereign will and power. And He intrudes into the series of finite causes miraculously, producing events in Nature which are due solely to His power. When for man's salvation the Son of God became incarnate, it was not by any change of His nature in laying aside some or all of the attributes of Deity, but by assuming a human nature into personal union with the Divine nature. The Scripture passages which speak of the incarnation of Our Lord clearly indicate that the Son retained His full Deity in "becoming flesh" (cf esp. the prologue to John's Gospel and Phil 2 6-8). Moreover, the OT doctrine of the Spirit of God as the source of life to the world is always at pains to avoid any mingling of the Spirit with the processes of Nature, and the same thing is true of the NT doctrine of the indwelling of the Spirit in the believer, always keeping the Spirit distinct from the spirit of man (Rom 8 16).

Finally, God is unchangeable not only in relation

to the universe, but in His relations to men and esp.
to His people. This follows from His
to His people ethical nature. The 5. His Scripture often connects the unchange-Relations to Men ableness of God with His goodness (Ps 100 5; Jas 1 17); with His truthfulness and mercy (Ps 100 5; 117 2); and with His covenant promises (Ex 3 13 ff). In connection with His covenant promises, God's unchangeableness gives the idea of His faithfulness which is emphasized in the OT to awaken trust in God (Dt 7 9; Ps 36 5 [Heb 6]; Ps 92 2 [Heb 3]; Isa 11 5; Lam 3 23). This idea of God's unchangeableness in His covenant promises or His cithfulness is repeated and emphasized in the NT. faithfulness is repeated and emphasized in the NT. His gifts or graces and election are without repentance (1 Thess 5 24; Rom 11 29); He is faithful toward men because unchangeably true to His own nature (2 Tim 2 13); His faithfulness abides in spite of men's lack of faith (Rom 3 5), and is in many places represented as the basis of our confidence in God who is true to His election and gracious promises (1 Cor 1 9; 10 13; 2 Thess 3 3; He 10 23; 11 11; 1 Pet 4 19; 1 Jn 1 9). See FAITHFULNESS. It is thus the religious significance and value of God's unchangeableness which is esp. emphasized throughout the Scripture. Because He is unchangeably true to His promises, He is the secure object of religious faith and trust, upon whom alone we can rely in the midst of human change and decay. It is this idea to which expression is given by calling God a rock, the rock of our strength and of our salvation (Dt 32 15; Ps 18 2 [Heb 3]; 42 9 [Heb 10]; 71 3; Isa 17 10). God is even eternally a rock, the never-failing object of confidence and trust (Isa 26 4).

It appears, therefore, that the Scripture idea of the unchangeableness of God lays emphasis upon four points. First, it is not lifeless immobility, but the unchangeableness of a living Person. Second, it is, however, a real unchangeableness of God's nature, attributes and purpose. Third, this unchangeableness is set forth as one of the specific characteristics of Deity in distinction from all that is finite. Fourth, God's unchangeableness is not dealt with in an abstract or merely theoretic manner, but its religious value is invariably emphasized as constituting God the one true object of religious faith.

faith.

LITERATURE.—Besides the comms. on appropriate passages, and the discussion of the Divine attributes in the general works on systematic theology, see Dillmann, Handbuch der alttest. Theol., 1895, 215–20, 243-44; Oehler, Theol. of the OT. ET, 1883, 95, 100; Schultz, Alttest. Theol., 1896, 419; Davidson, The Theol. of the OT, 1904, 45–58, 165. For a fuller discussion see Charnock, "The Immutability of God," Works, vol I, 374–419; Dorner, Ueber die richtige Fassung des dogmatischen Begriffs der Unverdnderlichkeit Gottes, u.s.w.," Article I, "Die neueren Läugnungen der Unveränderlichkeit des persönlichen Gottes, u.s.w.," JDT, I, 201–77; II, "Die Geschichte der Lehre von der Unveränderlichkeit Gottes bis auf Schleiermacher," JDT, II, 440–500; III, "Dogmatische Erörterung der Lehre von der Unveränderlichkeit Gottes his auf Schleiermacher," JDT, III, 579–660; H. Cremer, Die christliche Lehre von der Eigenschaften Gottes, 1897, pub. in the Beiträge zur Förderung christlicher Theol., I, 7–111; see pp. 10 ff, and esp. pp. 102–9.

CASPAR WISTAR HODGE UNCHASTITY, un-chas'ti-ti. See CRIMES; Pun-

UNCHASTITY, un-chas'ti-ti. See CRIMES; PUN-

UNCIRCUMCISED, un-sûr/kum-sizd, UNCIRCUMCISION, un-sûr-kum-sizh'un: The adj. in the OT is לְבֵּל, 'ārēl (Gen 17 14, etc), from a root of uncertain meaning, with the noun עָרֶכָּה, 'orlāh, "uncircumcised [person]" (Lev 19 23; Jer 9 25), and the vb. ΣΣ, 'āral, "count as uncircumcised" (Lev 19 23; RV Hab 2 16). In Apoc and the NT the noun is ἀκροβυστία, αkrobustía (a physionical town 1 Maga 1 15; Arts 11 3 etc.) and N1 the noun is ακρομοτία, ακτουιστία (a physiological term, 1 Macc 1 15; Acts 11 3, etc), and the adj. ἀπερίτμητος, aperitmētos (Ad Est 14 15; 1 Macc 1 48; 2 46; Acts 7 51), with the vb. ἐπισπάομαι, epispáomai, "become uncircumcised" (1 Cor 7 18). The language of 1 Macc 1 15 suggests the performance of some surgical operation, but no such operation appears to be possible, and "behaved like uncircumcised persons" (as in 1 Cor 7 18) is the probable meaning. See Circumcision.

BURTON SCOTT EASTON
UNCLE, un'k'l (117, dōdh, "beloved," "uncle,"
"relation"). See Relationships, Family.

UNCLEAN, un-klēn', SPIRIT. See Spirit, Un-CLEAN; DEMON, DEMONIAC.

UNCLEANNESS, un-klēn'nes:

- TERMS
 1. In the OT
 2. In the NT
 3. In LXX
 Possible Relation of Israel's Laws on Uncleanness with the Laws of Taboo among the
- TEACHING AS TO UNCLEANNESS
 1. In the OT
 2. In the Apoc
 3. In the NT
- LITERATURE
- LITERATURE

 1. Terms.— TAND, tum'āh, "uncleanness," "defilement," occurs 26 t (Lev 7 20.21; 14 19; 15 3.25.26.
 30.31, etc). The occurs in Lev 20 21; Ezr 9 (Hebrew)

 11; Zec 13 1. The occurs in Lev 20 21; Ezr 9 (Hebrew)

 123 14. The occurs in Lev 20 21; Ezr 9 (Hebrew)

 14 23 14. The occurs in Lev 20 21; Ezr 9 (Hebrew)

 15 24 1), is trd "uncleanness" in AV. The adj. NOD, tamē', "defiled," "unclean," occurs 72 t (over half in Lev), but is never trd "uncleanness," but always "unclean." The vb. NOD, tāmē', "to make" or

"declare unclean," occurs often. Other Heb vbs. "to defile" are גַּאָל, gā'al, הָלֶל , ḥālal, הָבָה, ḥānēph, הָנָהָ,

defile" are \(\frac{1}{2}\) \(\frac{1}\) \(\frac{1}\) \(\frac{1}{2}\) \(\frac{1}{2}\)

II. Possible Relation of Israel's Laws on Uncleanness with Laws of Taboo among the Nations. -W. R. Smith (Lectures on the Religion of the Semites, 152-55) thinks there is a kinship between Israel's laws of uncleanness and the heathen taboo. Frazer, in The Golden Bough, shows numerous examples of the taboo among various tribes and nations which present striking similarity to some of Israel's laws on uncleanness. But does this diminish our respect for the OT laws on uncleanness? Might not Jeh use this natural religious perception of men as to an intrinsic distinction between clean and unclean in training Israel to a realization of a higher conception—the real difference between sin and holiness, i.e. between moral defilement and moral purifica-tion? The hand of Jeh is visible even in the development of Israel's rudimentary laws on ceremonial uncleanness. They are not explicable on purely naturalistic grounds, but Jeh is training a people to be holy, and so He starts on the lower plane of ceremonial uncleanness and cleanness (see Lev 11 44 as to the purpose of Jeh in establishing these laws respecting clean and unclean animals).

III. Teaching as to Uncleanness.—Each term above for uncleanness is used in two senses: (a) to signify ceremonial uncleanness, which is the most usual significance of the term in the OT; (b) but, in the 1. In the OT Prophets, to emphasize moral, rather than ceremonial, uncleanness. There are four principal spheres of uncleanness in the OT:

- (1) Uncleanness in the matter of food.—The law as to clean and unclean beasts is laid down in Lev 11 1-23. Notice that the law does not extend to vegetable foods, as does a similar law in the Egyp religion. Four kinds of beasts are named as fit for food: (a) among quadrupeds, those that both chew the cud and part the hoof; (b) among fishes, only those having both fins and scales; (c) most birds or fowls, except, in the main, birds of prey and those noted for uncleanness of habits, are permitted; (d) of insects those that have legs above the feet to leap withal (e.g. the cricket, the grasshopper, etc), but those that go on all four, or have many feet, or go upon the belly (e.g. worms, snakes, lizards, etc), are forbidden. See, further,
- (2) Uncleanness connected with the functions of reproduction (Lev 12 and 15).—In Lev 15 2-18, we find the laws applied to issues of men; in 15 19 ff, to the issues of women. Not only is the man

or woman unclean because of the issue, whether normal or abnormal, but the bed on which they lie, or whatever or whoever is touched by them while they are in this state, is unclean. The uncleanness lasts seven days from the cessation of the issue. To become clean men must wash their clothes and bathe their bodies (though this requirement is not made of women), and both men and women must offer through the priest a pair of turtle-doves, or two young pigeons (Lev 15). According to Lev 13, the woman who conceives and bears a child is This uncleanness lasts seven days if the child born is a male, but 14 days if the child is a female. However, there is a partial uncleanness of the mother that continues 40 days from the birth of a male, 80 days from the birth of a female, at the end of which period she is purified by offering a lamb and a young pigeon (or turtle-dove), or if too poor to offer a lamb she may substitute one of the birds for the lamb.

- (3) Uncleanness connected with leprosy.—According to Lev 14 and 15, the leper was regarded as under the stroke of God, and so was deemed un-The leper (so adjudged by the priest) must separate himself from others, with torn clothes, disheveled hair, and crying with covered lips, "Unclean! Unclean!" That is, he was regarded as a dead man, and therefore unclean and so must live from others. See, further, secludedLEPROSY.
- (4) Uncleanness associated with death.—According to Lev 15 24-40, anyone who touched a dead beast, whether unclean or clean, was rendered unclean. According to Nu 19 11-22, anyone touching the corpse of a human being is unclean. Likewise, everyone in the tent, or who enters the tent, where lies a dead man, is unclean seven days. Even the open vessels in the tent with a dead person are unclean seven days. Whoever, furthermore, touched a dead man's bone or grave was unclean seven days. Purification, in all these cases of uncleanness as related to death, was secured by sprinkling the ashes of a red heifer with living water upon the unclean person, or object, on the 3d and 7th days. See Purification.

See Furification.

In Tob 3 7-9; 6 13.14; 7 11; 8 1-3; 1 Macc 1 41-53, and in other books, we find the same laws on uncleanness recognized by the descendants of Abraham. It was regarded as abominable to sacrifice other animals (swine for instance) than those prescribed by Jeh. There is a growing sense in Israel during this period, that all customs and all conduct of the heathen are unclean. Witness the resistance of the loyal Jews to the demands of Antiochus Epiphanes (1 Macc 1, 2, 6, 7). The sense of ceremonial uncleanness was still a conspicuous element in the religious consciousness of the Jews in the inter-Bib. period. But the training of God in ceremonial purification and in the moral and spiritual teachings of the prophets had prepared the way for an advance in moral cleanness (both in thought and in practice).

By the days of Jesus the scribes and rabbis had wrought out a most cumbrous system of ceremonial uncleanness and purification. Nor did 3. In the they claim that all their teachings on NT this subject were found in the OT.
See Tradition. This is fitly illustrated in the NT in the washing of hands. See
UNWASHEN. When the Mish (the collection of rabbinic teachings) was produced, the largest book was devoted to the laws of purification, 30 chapters being used to describe the purification of vessels alone.

See Jn 2 1-11, and note how the Jews had six stone waterpots for purification at the wedding in Cana. See Jn 3 25 as to the controversy on purification between John's disciples and the Jews. This question of cleanness and uncleanness was a tremendous issue with every Jew. He must keep himself

ceremonially clean if he would be righteous and win the approval of God.

Jesus utterly disregarded for Himself these laws of purification, though He orders the cleansed leper to return to the priest and secure his certificate of cleansing. He did not wash His hands before eating, and His disciples followed His example. Therefore the Pharisees challenged Him to give an account of His course and that of His disciples (Mt 15 3–20 = Mk 7 6–23). Jesus then enunciated the great principle that there is no ceremonial, but only moral and spiritual, uncleanness. Not what goes into a man from hands that touch unclean things defiles the man, but the things that come out of his heart, evil thoughts, hatred, adultery, murder, etc, these defile the man.

Paul likewise regarded nothing as unclean of itself (Rom 14 14.20; Tit 1 15), yet no man should violate the scruples of his own conscience or that of his brother (and thus put a stumbling-block in his way). Love, not ceremonialism is the supreme law of the Christian. Paul, in submitting to the vow of purification in Jerus, set an example of this principle (Acts 21 26). See also CRIMES; Punishments.

LITERATURE.—W. R. Smith, Lectures on the Religion of the Semiles (esp. pp. 152-55, on taboo, and pp. 455, 456, on the uncleanness of sexual intercourse); Frazer, The Golden Bough (examples of taboo and similar laws and customs among various nations); Frazer, art. "Taboo" in Enc Brit, 9th ed; Benzinger, Heb Archaeology; Nowack, Heb Archaeology; Kellogg, commo on "Lev" (Expositor's Bible); Kalisch, Leviticus; Dillmann, Smend, Marti, Davidson, in their OT Theologies, give useful hints on this subject; art. "Casuistry" (Heb) in ERE, III, is valuable.

CHARLES B. WILLIAMS UNCLOTHED, un-klōthd'. See Clothed Upon.

UNCTION, unk'shun: The AV tr of $\chi\rho\hat{\rho}\alpha\mu$, chrisma (1 Jn 2 20), which RV renders "anointing," as AV renders the same word in 1 Jn 2 27.

UNDEFILED, un-dě-fild': In the OT Dṛ, tām, "perfect," presents the positive side. Hence Ps 119 1 is trd in RV: "Blessed are they that are perfect in the way." In the NT åµlavros, amiantos, presents the negative side, "unstained," "unsullied," "without taint." Used to describe the sinlessness of Christ (He 7 26), to declare the marriage act free from all guilt, disgrace or shame (He 13 4), to contrast the heavenly inheritance with earthly possessions (1 Pet 1 4).

UNDERGIRDING, un-der-gûrd'ing. See Ships and Boats, III, 2.

UNDERNEATH, un-dēr-nēth' (התה , tahath, "the bottom [as depressed]"): "Underneath are the everlasting arms" (Dt 33 27). In these words Moses sums up the history of Israel and gives expression to his final thought about life and time and all things visible. Underneath all phenomena and all the chances and changes of life and time there is unchanging law, everlasting principle, an all-enfolding power, an all-embracing love.

UNDERSETTER, un'dër-set-ër (디디크, kāthēph): The word, used in 1 K 7 30.34 of supports of the laver, means lit. "shoulder," and is so rendered in RVm. See LAVER.

UNDERTAKE, un-dēr-tāk': "To take upon one's self," "assume responsibility," and so in Elizabethan Eng. "be surety." In this sense in AV Isa 38 14, "O Lord, . . . undertake for me" (כְּבֶּע, 'ārabh, RV "be thou my surety"). Perhaps in the same sense in Sir 29 19, although the idea is

scarcely contained in the Gr vb. διώκω, diδkō, "pursue." In the modern sense in 1 Esd 1 28; 2 Macc 2 29; 8 10; AV 2 27. See Sure; Surety.

UNEQUAL, un-ē'kwal: Ezk 18 25.29 for μος λό, lō' thākhan, "not weighed," "illogical." "Unequally" in 2 Cor 6 14, in the phrase "unequally yoked," ἐτεροζυγέω, heterozugéō, is used of the yoking together of two animals of different kinds (cf LXX of Lev 19 19).

UNFEIGNED, un-fānd' (ἀνυπόκριτος, anupókritos, "unfeigned," "undisguised"): The Gr word occurs only in the NT (1 Tim 15; 2 Tim 15) and is designative of the moral-quality of faith as "the mark of transparency and simplicity of soul—the most complete and distinct exponent of a man's character—the natural hypothesis of a pure and good heart—a readiness to believe in goodness" (Martineau, Hours of Thought, First Series, 86 ff). Cf 2 Cor 6 6; 1 Pet 122; Jas 3 17.

UNICORN, ū'ni-kôrn (בְּאֵר), rº'ēm [Nu 23 22; 24 8; Dt 33 17; Job 39 9.10; Ps 22 21; 29 6; 92 10; Isa 34 7]): "Unicorn" occurs in AV in the passages cited, where RV has "wild-ox" (q.v.).

UNITY, \bar{u}' ni- $t\bar{i}$: Ps 133 1 for \bar{l} , $y\bar{a}hadh$, "unitedness," and Eph 4 3.13 for $\dot{\epsilon}\nu\delta\tau\eta s$, $hen\delta t\bar{\epsilon}s$, "oneness." Also Sir 25 1 AV for $\dot{\epsilon}\mu\delta\nu\sigma\iota a$, $hom\delta noia$, "concord" (so RV).

UNKNOWN, un-nōn', GOD (ἄγνωστος θεός, ágnōstos theós): In Acts 17 23 (St. Paul's speech in Athens) ARV reads: "I found also an altar with this inscription, To an Unknown God. What therefore ye worship in ignorance, this I set forth unto you." AV and ERVm translate "to the Unknown God," owing to the fact that in Gr certain words, of which theós is one, may drop the art. when it is to be understood. In the present case the use of the art. is probably right (cf ver 24). In addition, AV reads "whom" and "him" in place of "what" and "this." The difference here is due to a variation in the Gr MSS, most of which support AV. But internal probability is against AV's reading, as it would have been very easy for a scribe to change neuters (referring to the Divine power) into masculines after "God," but not vice versa. Hence modern editors (except von Soden's margin) have adopted the reading in RV.

St. Paul in Athens, "as he beheld the city full of idols," felt that God was truly unknown there. Hence the altar with the inscription struck him as particularly significant. Some Athenians, at any rate, felt the religious inadequacy of all known deities and were appealing to the God who they felt must exist, although they knew nothing definite about Him. No better starting-point for an address could be wished. What the inscription actually meant, however, is another question. Nothing is known about it. Altars dedicated "to unknown gods" (in the pl.) seem to have been fairly

common (Jerome on Tit 1 12; Pausanias, i.1.4; Philaster, Vita Apoll., vi.3), and Blass (Comm. ad loc.) has even suggested that the words in Acts were originally in the pl. But this would spoil the whole point of the speech, and the absence of references to a single inscription among thousands that existed can cause no surprise. Those inscriptions in the pl. seem to have been meant in the sense "to the other deities that may exist in addition to those already known," but an inscription in the sing. could not have this meaning. Perhaps a votive inscription is meant, where the worshipper did not know which god to thank for some benefit received. That a slur on all the other Athenian objects of worship was intended is, however, most improbable, but St. Paul could not of course be expected to know the technical meaning of such inscriptions. See Athens.

UNLEARNED, un-lûr'ned: Acts 4 13 for $\alpha\gamma\rho\Delta\mu$ $\mu\alpha\tau$ os, agrámmatos, lit. "illiterate." But nothing more than "lacking technical rabbinical instruction" seems to be meant (cf Jn 7 15). 1 Cor 14 16.23.24 for $l\delta\omega\tau\eta$ s, $idi\delta t\delta$ s, "private person," RVm "he that is without gifts," correctly expresses the sense ("unbeliever" is hardly in point); also AV 2 Tim 2 23; 2 Pet 3 16 (RV "ignorant").

UNLEAVENED, un-lev'nd. See Leaven; Passover; Sacrifice in the OT.

UNNATURAL VICE, un-naţ'ū-ral vīs. See Crimes; Punishments.

UNNI, un'ī (ジッ, 'unnī, meaning unknown):
(1) One of "the twelve brethren" (so Curtis for RV "brethren of the second degree") appointed as

singers (1 Ch 15 18.20). (2) In Neh 12 9 (Kethībh לְצָל 'unnō) = RV Unno

(q.v.).

UNNO, un'ō (לְּבֶּלֶּי, 'unnō; LXX omits the name, but in & a later hand has added 'Yavá, Ianá; the Kerē of the MT has לְּבֶּלְי, 'unnī, as in 1 Ch 15 18, whence AV "Unni"): A Levite who returned with Zerubbabel (Neh 12 9).

UNPARDONABLE, un-pär'd'n-a-b'l, SIN. See Blasphemy.

UNQUENCHABLE, un-kwench'a-b'l, FIRE (πῦρ ἄσβεστος, púr ásbestos): The phrase occurs in Mt 3 12 and its || Lk 3 17 in the words of the Baptist on the Messianic judgment: "The chaff he will burn up with unquenchable fire"; but also on the lips of Christ Himself in Mk 9 43, where the "unquenchable fire" is equated with "Gehenna" (q.v.). The same idea lies in ver 48, "The fire is not quenched" (ou sbénnutai), and is implied in the numerous allusions to fire as the instrument of punishment and destruction in the Gospels and other parts of the NT (e.g. "the Gehenna of fire," Mt 5 22 m, etc; "furnace of fire," Mt 13 40.42.50; "eternal fire," Mt 25 41; cf also 2 Thess 1 8; 2 Pet 3 7; Jude ver 7; Rev 19 20; 20 10.14.15; 21 8). For OT analogies cf Isa 1 31; 34 10; 66 24; Jer 4 4; 7 20; 17 27; 21 12; Ezk 20 47.48. The language is obviously highly metaphorical, conveying the idea of an awful and abiding judgment, but is not to be pressed as teaching a destruction in the sense of annihilation of the wicked. An unquenchable fire is not needed for a momentary act of destruction. Even in the view of Rev. Edward White the wicked survive the period of judgment to which these terms relate. See Punishment, Everlasting.

UNTEMPERED, un-tem'pērd () tāphēl): Used of mortar in Ezk 13 10-15; 22 28. Tāphēl probably refers to mortar made with clay instead of slaked lime. In the interior of Pal and Syria walls are still commonly built of small stones or mud bricks, and then smeared over with clay mortar. The surface is rubbed smooth and is attractive in appearance. This coating prolongs the life of the wall but requires yearly attention if the wall is to stand.

Ezekiel uses the practice to typify the work of false prophets. They build up stories and make them plausible by an outward semblance to truth, while, in fact, they are flimsy, unreliable prophecies, resembling the walls described above, which can be broken down by a push or a heavy rain storm.

JAMES A. PATCH
UNTOWARD, un-tō'ĕrd, un-tôrd' (σκολιός,
skoliós): Appears only in Acts 2 40, AV "Save
yourselves from this untoward generation." It
means "perverse," "wilful," "crooked," and is so
trd in RV: "this crooked generation" (apó tɛ́s
geneds tɛ̄s skoliás taútɛ̄s). AV headings to Isa 28
and Hos 6 have "untowardness." This now obsolete term probably derived its orgin from the idea
of the heart that was not inclined toward the Divine will and teaching. Hence "not-toward," or
"untoward."

UNWALLED, un-wôld'. See VILLAGE; WALL.

UNWASHEN, un-wosh''n (auttos, dniplos): Occurs only twice in the NT, not at all in the Heb or Gr OT (Mt 15 20=Mk 7 2). Jesus is here denouncing the traditionalism of the scribes and Pharisees. Uncleanness, to them, was external and purification was ceremonial. Hence the Pharisaic view that the hands became unclean (religiously, not physically), and so before meals must be cleansed (religiously) by washing, which consisted in two affusions and must extend up to the wrist, else the hand was still unclean. Jewish tradition traced this custom back to Solomon (see Shabbāth 14b, end), but the first unmistakable occurrence of the custom is in the Sib Or (3 591-93), where the hands are said to be washed in connection with prayer and thanksgiving. The schools of Shammai and Hillel, though usually differing on points of tradition, agreed on the washing of hands as necessary for ceremonial purification (having reached this agreement in the early part of Jesus' life). See Purity; Uncleanness.

LITERATURE.—Broadus, Comm. on Mt (15 2-20); Gould, Swete, comms. on Mk (7 2); Edersheim, The Life and Times of Jesus the Messiah, II, 8 ff; Schürer, HJP, div II, vol I, \$25 ("Scribism").

CHARLES B. WILLIAMS
UNWORTHILY, un-wûr'thi-li: 1 Cor 11 27.29
AV for ἀναξίως, anaxiōs. In ver 29, RV, on convincing textual evidence, has omitted the word, which is a needless gloss (cf RV's tr of the whole verse). In ver 27 ARV has changed "unworthily" to "in an unworthy manner," a rather pointless alteration.

 ${\tt U\,N\,W\,R\,IT\,TE\,N}$, un-rit"n, SAYINGS. See AGRAPHA.

UPHARSIN, u-far'sin (נְּלֶּרֶלָּדְ, ūpharṣīn). See Mene, Mene, Tekel, Upharsin.

UPHAZ, ū'faz (ፕሮችእ 'ūphāz): A gold-bearing region, mentioned in Jer 10 9; Dnl 10 5, otherwise unknown. Perhaps in both passages Ophir, which differs in one consonant only, should be read. In the second passage, instead of "gold of Uphaz," perhaps "gold and fine gold" ('ūphāz) should be

The Jerus Talm states that there were seven kinds of gold, good gold, pure, precious, gold of Uphaz, purified, refined, and red gold of Parvaim (2 Ch 3 6). That of Uphaz, which is so called from the place from which it comes, resembles "flashes of fire fed with pitch" (M. Schwab, The Talmud of Jerusalem, V, 207 f).

THOMAS HUNTER WEIR UPPER CHAMPER

UPPER CHAMBER, up'er cham'ber, UPPER ROOM (מְלֵּלְיֵּה), 'ἀἰπνᾱh [2 K 1 2], etc; ἀνώγεον, anōgeon [Mk 14 15; Lk 22 12], ὑπερῷον, huperðon [Acts 1 13; 9 37.39; 20 8]): In Jgs 3 20 ERV renders "summer parlor" and in m "Heb 'Upper chamber of cooling." This was probably a roof-chamber. The "upper chamber" of Ahaziah in 2 K 1 2 was evidently in the 2d story of the building. On the "upper chambers" of the temple (1 Ch 28 11; 2 Ch 3 9), see TEMPLE. The "large upper room" which was the scene of the Last Supper, with that in Acts 1 13, was also plainly an upper-story chamber. That in Acts 20 8 was in the 3d story (at Miletus, a Gr city). See also House.

JAMES ORR UR, ûr (\vec{v} , ' \vec{u} r, "flame"; B, $\Sigma \theta \acute{v} \rho$, $Sth\acute{u}r$, \aleph , ' $\Omega \rho \acute{a}$, $\vec{O} r\acute{a}$): Father of Eliphal, one of David's "mighty men," in 1 Ch 11 35; in the \parallel 2 S 23 34 called "Ahasbai."

UR OF THE CHALDEES, kal'dez (אור כַשְּׂדִים 'ữr kasdīm; ἡ χῶρα [τῶν] Χαλδαίων, hẽ chôra [tôn] Chaldaíōn): For more than 2,000 years efforts have been made to identify the site of this city. writers of the LXX, either being unfamiliar with the site, or not considering it a city, wrote chōra, "land," instead of Ur. Eupolemus, who lived about 150 BC, spoke of it as being a city of Babylonia called Camarina, which he said was called by some Ouria. St. Stephen (Acts 7 2.4) regarded the place as being in Mesopotamia. The Talm, however, as well as some later Arab. writers, regarded Erech (LXX) *Oρεκ, Órek) as the city. The cuneiform writing of this city, Uruki, would seem to support this view, but Erech is mentioned in Gen. Ammianus Mar-cellinus identified the city with the castle of Ur in the desert between Hatra and Nisibis, but this was only founded in the time of the Persians. to its nearness to Haran, and because St. Stephen placed it in Mesopotamia, Urfa or Oorfa, named Edessa by the Greeks, has also in modern times been identified as the city. But Seleucus is credited with having built this city.

The most generally accepted theory at the present time is that Ur is to be identified with the modern Mugheir (or Mughayyar, "the pitchy") in Southern Babylonia, called Urumma, or Urima, and later Uri in the inscriptions. This borders on the distribution of the contract trict which in the 1st millennium BC was called

Chaldaea (Kaldû).

This, some hold, accords with the view of Eupolemus, because Camarina may be from the Arab. name of the moon kamar, which refers perhaps to the fact that the ancient city was dedicated to the worship of the moon-god. Another argument which has been advanced for this identification is that Haran, the city to which Terah migrated, was also a center of moon-god worship. This, however, is precarious, because Urumma or Urima in Abraham's day was a Sumerian_center, and the seat of Nannar-worship, whereas Haran was Semitic, and was dedicated to Sin. Although these two deities in later centuries were identified with each other, still the argument seems to have little weight, as other deities were also prominently worshipped in those cities, particularly Haran, which fact reminds us also that the Talm says Terah worshipped no less than 12 deities.

It should be stated that there are scholars who hold, with the LXX, that Ur means, not a city, but perhaps a land in which the patriarch pastured his flocks, as for instance, the land of Uri or Ura (Akkad). The designation "of the Chaldaeans" was in this case intended to distinguish it from the land where

they were not found.

Still another identification is the town Uru (Mar-tu) near Sippar, a place of prominence in the time of Abraham, but which was lost sight of in sub-sequent periods (cf. Amurru, 167). This fact would account for the failure to identify the place in the late pre-Christian centuries, when Urima or Urû still flourished. Western Semites—for the name Abram is not Bab—lived in this city in large numbers in the age when the patriarch lived. The Bab contract lit. from this, as well as other sites, is full of names from the western Sem lands, Aram and This fact makes it reasonable that the Amurru. site should be found in Babylonia; but, as stated, although the arguments are by no means weighty, more scholars at the present favor Mugheir than any other site.

A. T. CLAY

URBANE, ûr'bān, -bān'. See Urbanus.

URBANUS, ûr-bā'nus (Οὐρβανός, Ourbanós; AV Urbane): A common slave name. Gifford says that it is found "as here, in juxtaposition with Ampliatus, in a list of imperial freedmen, on an inscription, 115 AD." He was a member of the Christian community at Rome to whom Paul sent greetings. Paul calls him "our fellow-worker in Christ" (Rom 16 9). "The 'our' (as opposed to 'my,' ver 3) seems to suggest that all Christian workers had a common helper in Urbanus" (Denney).

URI, ū'rī, סס'ri (ארר in 1 K **4** 19], 'ūrī, "fiery," unless the word be contracted for היינים, 'ūrīyāh, "Uriah"):
(1) Son of Hur, and father of Bezalel (Ex 31 2; 35 30; 38 22; 1 Ch 2 20; 2 Ch 1 5).

(2) Father of Geber, one of Solomon's 12 provision officers (1 K 4 19; LXX B A, 'Aδaί, Adaí).
(3) A porter who had married a foreign wife (Ezr 10 24; LXX B X, 'Ωδούθ, Θdoúth, A, 'Ωδουέ,

Ödoué, Luc., Ovplas, Ourías).

or "my light is Jeh"; LXX and NT Οὐρ[ε](as, Our[e](as, with variants; AV has Urijah in 2 K 16 10–16; Neh 3 4.21; 8 4; Jer 26 20):

(1) A Hittite, who had settled in Jerus at the time of David and who had entered David's service. He had become a worshipper of Jeh (judging from the usual interpretations of his name) and had married a Heb wife, BATH-SHEBA (q.v.). David's sin with this woman occurred while Uriah was engaged in warfare, and David had him recalled to Jerus in order to hide what had transpired. Uriah, however, felt himself bound by the consecration of a soldier (cf 1 S 21 5; Dt 23 10 f) and refused to do violence to his religion, so that David's ruse was in vain. (The point is missed here by speaking of Uriah's "chivalrous determination," as in *HDB*, IV, 837.) David, in desperation, wrote Joab instructions that were virtually a command to have Uriah murdered, and these instructions were duly carried out (2 S 11 2-27). The inclusion of Uriah's name in the list of the "mighty men" in 2 S 23 39 | 1 Ch 11 41 is proof of his reputation as a soldier, and the name is found also in 2 S 12 9.10.15; 1 K 15 5; Mt 1 6. On the occurrence in Mt see esp. Heffern, *JBL*, XXXI, 69 ff (1912).

(2) A priest under Ahaz, who carried into effect

the latter's commands to introduce an Assyr altar into the Temple and to use it for the sacrifices (2 K 16 10-16; see Altar). The same Uriah appears in Isa 8 2 as one of the two "faithful witnesses" taken by Isaiah in the matter of Maher-shalal-hash-baz. This description has seemed to many to conflict with Uriah's compliancy in obeying Ahaz, but it must be remembered that (a) "faithful witness" means simply "one whom the people will believe," and (b) the articles in the sanctuary were not held as immutably sacred in the time of Ahaz as they were in later days. The omission of Uriah's name from the list in 1 Ch 6 10-14 is probably without significance, as Ch records only nine names from Solomon to the exile, showing that there must be many omissions. The corresponding list in Jos, Ant, X, viii, 6, contains 18 names, including Uriah's.

(3) A son of Shemaiah, of Kiriath-jearim, and a contemporary of Jeremiah. He was a prophet, and his prophecy agreed with Jeremiah's in all regards. Jehoiakim, roused to anger, arrested him, even at the trouble of a pursuit into Egypt, put him to death and desecrated his body (Jer 26 20-23). The story is told partly in order to show the greatness of Jeremiah's dangers, partly to bear record of the goodness of AHIKAM (q.v.), Jeremiah's

protector.

(4) A priest, the father of MEREMOTH (q.v.) (Ezr 8 33; Neh 3 4.21; 1 Esd 8 62 ["Urias," AV "Iri"]).

(5) One of those on Ezra's right hand at the reading of the Law (Neh 8 4; 1 Esd 9 43 ["Urias"]). Quite possibly identical with (4) above. BURTON SCOTT EASTON

URIAS, ή-rī'as (Οὐρείας, Oureias; Β', Οὐρία, Ouria, A, Οὐρί, Ouri; AV Iri):

(1) The father of Marmoth (1 Esd 8 62) = "Uriah" of Ezr 8 33, and perhaps identical with

(2) B^b A, Oureias, Ourias=one of those who stood on Ezra's right hand as he read the Law (1 Esd 9 43)="Uriah" of Neh 8 4.

URIAS (Ούρίαs, Ourias): AV; Gr form of "Uriah" (thus RV). The husband of Bath-sheba (Mt 1 6).

URIEL, ū'ri-el (אוֹרְרַאֵּל, 'ūrī'ēl, "flame of El

[God]," or "El is my light"):

(1) A Kohathite, said in 1 Ch 15 5 to be the chief of the sons of Kohath (1 Ch 6 24 [Heb ver 9]; 15 5.11). He corresponds to Zephaniah in the pedigree of Heman in 1 Ch 6 33-38 (Heb 18-23). See Curtis, Chron., 130 f.

(2) A man of Gibeah, and father of Micaiah the mother of King Abijah of Judah (2 Ch 13 2).

(3) The archangel (En 20 2, etc). See next article.

URIEL (Οὐριήλ, Ouriël, "fire or flame of God" or "my light is God"): Called only in 2 Esd an "angel," except 2 Esd 4 36 where RV and AV rightly give "Jeremiel the archangel" for AV "Uriel the archangel," but elsewhere known as one of the four chief archangels. He was the angel who instructed Ezra (2 Esd 4 1; 5 20; 10 28). In En 20 2 Uriel is the angel who is "over the world and Tartarus" (ὁ ἐπὶ τοῦ κόσμου καὶ τοῦ ταρτάρου, ho epi toù kósmou kai toù tartárou), and as such is the conductor to Enoch in the world below, the secrets of which he explains. Cf also (Gr) 19 1; 21 5. In the (Lat) "Life of Adam and Eve," 48 (ed W. Meyer in Abhand. d. Bayer. Akad. der Wiss., XIV, 1878, 250), Uriel (Oriel) accompanied Michael when at God's bidding he wrapped the bodies of Adam and Abel in three linen sheets and buried them in Paradise. In the lost "Prayer of Joseph" Uriel is the angel who wrestles and converses with Jacob

and knows the secrets of heaven (as in En those of Tartarus), but stands only 8th in rank, whereas in (Gr) En 20 2 ff he is the 1st of the six (or seven) archangels. In Sib Or 2 229 he is intrusted with the judgment of the Titans. Cf Milton, Paradise Lost, III, 690, "regent of the sun, and held the sharpest sighted Spirit of all in heaven."

(2) "Uriel" AV=RV and AVm "Jeremiel." S. Angus

URIJAH. See URIAH, URIJAH.

URIM AND THUMMIM, ū'rim and thum'im (בְּהַמְּלִים וְהַהְּמְלִים, hā-'ūrīm weha-tummīm [art. omitted in Ezr 2 63; Neh 7 65], perhaps "light and perfection," as in- Definitensive plurals): Articles not specifition cally described, placed in (next to, or on [Heb 'el; LXX epi; Sam-Heb 'al] the high priest's breastplate, called the "breast-plate of decision" (EV "judgment") (Ex 28 30; Lev 8 8). Their possession was one of the greatest distinctions conferred upon the priestly family (Dt 33 8; Ecclus 45 10), and seems to have been connected with the function of the priests as the mouthpiece of Jeh, as well as with the ceremonial side of the service (Ex

28 30; cf Arab. kahīn, "soothsayer").
Through their use, the nature of which is a matter of conjecture, the Divine will was sought in national

crises, and apparently the future fore-2. Use in told, guilt or innocence established, the OT and, according to one theory, land divided (Bābhā' Bathrā' 122a; Sanh.

16a). Thus, Joshua was to stand before Eleazar

who was to inquire for him after the judgment (decision) of the Urim (Nu 27 21). It seems that this means was employed by Joshua in the matter of Achan (Josh 7 14.18) and overlooked in the matter of the Gibeonites (9 14). Though not specifically mentioned, the same means is in all probability referred to in the accounts of the Israelites consulting Jeh after the death of Joshua in their warfare (Jgs 1 1.2; 20 18.26-28). The Danites in their migration ask counsel of a priest, perhaps in a similar manner (Jgs 18 5.7). It is not impossible that even the prophet Samuel was assisted by the Urim in the selection of a king (1 S 10 20-22). During Saul's war with the Philis, he made inquiry of God with the aid of the priest (1 S 14 36.37), Ahijah, the son of Ahitub, who at that time wore the ephod (1 S 14 3). Although on two important occasions Jeh refused to answer Saul through the Urim (1 S 14 37; 28 6), it appears (from the LXX version of 1 S 14 41; see below) that he used the Urim and Thummim successfully in ascertaining the cause of the Divine displeasure. The accusation of Doeg and the answer of the high priest (1 S 22 10.13.15) suggest that David began to inquire of Jeh through the priesthood, even while he was an officer of Saul. After the massacre of the priests in Nob, Abiathar fled to the camp of David (ver 20), taking with him the ephod (including apparently the Urim and Thummim, 23 6) which David used frequently during his wanderings (23 2-4.9-12; 30 7.8), and also after the death of Saul (2 S 2 1; 5 19.23; 21 1). After the days of David, prophecy was in the ascendancy, and, accordingly, we find no clear record of the use of the Urim and Thummim in the days of the later kings (cf, however, Hos 3 4; Ecclus 33 3). Still, in post-exilic times we find the difficult question of the ancestral right of certain priests to eat of the most holy things reserved till there would stand up a priest with Urim and with Thummim (Ezr 2 63; Neh 7 65; 1 Esd 5

40; Sōtāh 48b).

Though Jos sets the date for the obsolescence of the Urim and Thummim at 200 years before his time, in the days of John Hyrcanus (Ant, III,

viii, 9), the Talm reckons the Urim and Thummim among the things lacking in the second Temple (Sōtāh 9 10; Yōmā' 21b; Yoru Kid 65b). Both Jos and the Talm identify the Urim and Thummim with the 3. Older (Traditional) Views stones of the breastplate. The former simply states that the stones shone whenever the shekhīnāh was present at a sacrifice

or when the army proceeded to battle.

"God declared beforehand by those twelve stones which the high priest bare on his breast, and which were inserted into his breastplate, when they should be victorious in battle; for so great a splendor shone forth from them before the army began to march, that all the people were sensible of God's being present for their assistance" (Ant, III, viii, 9).

assistance" (Ant, III, viii, 9).

The Talmudic explanation suggests that by the illumination of certain letters the Divine will was revealed, and that in order to have a complete alphabet, in addition to the names of the tribes, the breastplate bore the names of the patriarchs, Abraham, Isaac and Jacob, and the words $shibht\bar{e}$ $y^shi\bar{x}run$. A later scholar even suggests that the letters moved from their places to form words $(Y\bar{o}m\bar{a}^{\dagger}, 73a.b)$. Characteristically enough the Talm prescribes rules and suggestions for the consultation of the non-existing Urim and Thummim: that the question must pertain to the public weal; that the priest must face the $sh^akhin\bar{a}h$ (west); that one question be asked at a time, and so forth (ib).

It is difficult to tell just how much, if anything, of a lingering tradition is reflected in the view that the Urim and Thummim and stones of the breastplate were identical. In the absence of other ancient clews, however, it is not safe to reject even the guesses of the Jews of the second temple in favor of our own. We do not even know the meaning of the word hoshen, so confidently trd "pouch" or "receptacle" by opponents of the older view, without any basis whatever. On the other hand the theory of identification was widespread. Even Philo leans toward it in his De Monarchia, although in his Vita Mosis (iii) he seems to have in mind two small symbols representing Light and Truth embroidered on the cloth of the hoshen or hung round the neck of the high priest, similar to the Egyp symbol of justice. Another very old view is that the Urim and Thummim consisted of a writing containing the Ineffable Name (Pseudo-Jonathan on Ex 28 20; cf Rashi and Nachmanides ad loc.).

The view most generally held today is that the Urim and Thummim were two sacred lots, one indicating an affirmative or favorable

4. Recent answer, the other a negative or unfavorable answer (Michaelis, Ewald, Wellhausen, Robertson Smith, Driver, (Critical) Views G. F. Moore, Kennedy, Muss-Arnolt).

The chief support of this view is found, not in the MT, but in the reconstruction by Wellhausen and Driver of 1 S 14 41 ff on the basis of LXX: "If this fault be in me or in Jonathan, my son, give Urim [dós délous], and if it be in thy people Israel, give Thummim [dós hosiótēta]." The following sentence clearly suggests the casting of lots, possibly lots on which the names of Saul and Jonathan were written, and "Jonathan" was taken. Efforts have been made to support the view that the Urim and Thummim themselves were sacred lots on the basis of analogous customs among other peoples (e.g. pre-Islamic Arabs [Moore in EB] and Babylonians [W. Muss-Arnolt in Jew Enc and AJSL, July, 1900]). It must be borne in mind, however, that whatever the lot-theory has to recommend it, it is inconsistent not only with the post-Bib. traditions, but also with the Bib. data. For those who are not inclined to give much weight to the passages connecting the Urim and Thummim with the high priest's apparel (Ex 28 30; Lev 8 8, both "P"), there is of course no difficulty in dissociating the two, in spite of the fact that for the use of this

system of divination the one thing necessary in the historical passages on which they rely seems to be the ephod. Still, if we are to think of two lots, one called and possibly marked "Urim" and the other "Thummin," it is difficult to get any meaning from the statement (1 S 14 37; 28 6) that Jeh did not answer Saul on certain occasions, unless indeed we surmise for the occasion the existence of a third nameless blank lot. A more serious difficulty arises from the fact that the answers ascribed to the Urim and Thummim are not always the equivalent of "yes" or "no" (cf Jgs 1 2; 20 18; 1 S 22 10; 2 S 5 23; 21 1), even if we omit from consideration the instances where an individual is apparently pointed out from all Israel (cf the instances of the detection of Achan and the selection of Saul with that of Jonathan, above).

If we turn to etymology for assistance, we are not only on uncertain ground, but when Bab and other foreign words are brought in to bolster

up a theory about anything so little understood as the Urim and Thummim, 5. Etvmology we are on dangerous ground. Thus Muss-Arnolt is ready with Bab words (urtu, "command," and tamītu, "oracular decision"); others mand," and tamtul, "oracular decision"); others suggest tmē, the Egyp image of justice; still others connect Urim with 'ārar, "to curse," in order to make it an antonym of tummīm, "faultlessness." It is generally admitted, however, that, as pointed in the MT, the words mean "light" and "perfection," on the basis of which the Talm (Yōmā' 73b) as well as most of the Gr VSS trd them (dēlōsis kat alētheia; hat telejátētes) although Symposhus in phōtismot kat teleiótētes), although Symmachus in one place (Dt 33 8), who is followed by the Vulg, connects Urim with the word Tōrāh and understands it to mean "doctrine" (teleiótēs kat didachê). Though loth to add to the already overburdened list of conjectures about these words, it appears to the present writer that if Urim and Thummim are antonyms, and Urim means "light," it is by no means difficult to connect Thummim with darkness. inasmuch as there is a host of Heb stems based on the root -tm, all indicating concealing, closing up, and even darkness (cf במא, ממח, החח, בעתם, עמה, קעתם, gsee Job 40 13], ממח and even ממן, ממה and cognate Arab. words in BDB). This explanation would make Urim and Thummim mean "illuminated" and "dark" (cf Gaster in Hastings, ERE, 1V, 813), and, while fitting well with the ancient theories or traditions, would not be excluded by the recent theory of lots of opposite purport.

NATHAN ISAACS USURY, ū'zhū-ri: The Heb law concerning exaction of interest upon loans was very humane. Hebrews were to lend to their brethren Hebrews were to lend to their brethren
without interest (Ex 22 25; Lev 25
OT 36 f; Dt 23 19 f). This, however,
did not apply to a stranger (Dt 23 20).
Two stems are used in the OT, rendered in AV
"usury," in RV better rendered "interest": (1)
vb. ¬\vec{v}, n\vec{a}sh\vec{a}h (Ex 22 25; Isa 24 2; Jer 15 10), and the noun form, No, mashshā' (Neh 5 7.10); (2) a stronger and more picturesque word, אָלָין: nāshakh, "to bite," "to vex," and so "to lend on interest" (Dt 23 19.20); noun form 📆 , neshekh (Ex 22 25; Lev 25 36 f; Ps 15 5; Prov 28 8; Ezk 18 8.13.17; 22 12). It would be easy to go from a fair rate of interest to an unfair rate, as seen in the history of the word "usury," which has come to mean an exorbitant or unlawful interest. Abuses arose during the exile. Nehemiah forced the people after the return to give back exactions of "one hundredth," or 1 per cent monthly which they took from their brethren (Neh 5 10f; cf Ezk 22 12). A good citizen of Zion is one who put not out his

money to usury (Ps 15 5). One who is guilty of this comes to disaster (Prov 28 8).

The Gr word is τόκος, tókos, lit. "offspring," interest springing out of the principal. Money lenders

were numerous among the Jews in 2. In the Christ's day, and, in the parable of the Talents, He represents the lord of the NT unprofitable servant as rebuking the sloth in the words, "I should have received mine own with interest" (Mt 25 27; Lk 19 23 RV).

EDWARD BAGBY POLLARD

UTA, ū'ta (Oὐτά, Outá): "The sons of Uta" returned with Zerubbabel (1 Esd 5 30); wanting

in the | Ezr 2 45; Neh 7 48.

UTHAI, ū'-thī, ū'thà-ī (עוֹרְהַי', 'ūthay, meaning uncertain):

(1) A descendant of Judah, of the clan of Perez (1 Ch 9 4)="Athaiah" of Neh 11 4.

(2) Son of Bigvai (Ezr 8 14); called "Uthi" in 1 Esd 8 40.

UTHI, ū'thī (A, Oiol, Outhi, B, Oiroi, Outoi): One of the sons of Bago (Bigvai) who returned at the head of his family with Ezra (1 Esd 8 40)= "Uthai" of Ezr 8 14.

UTMOST, ut'most, UTTERMOST, ut'er-most, SEA. See MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

UTTERMOST, ut'ër-möst: A pleonastic compound of a comparative ("utter"; cf "outer") and a superlative ("most"), in AV used interchangeably with the ordinary superlative forms "utmost" (cf Mt 12 42; Lk 11 31) and "outmost" (cf Ex 26 4.10). RV adds still another form, "outermost," in 2 K 7 5.8 (AV "uttermost"). RV has made a few changes to secure a more accurate tr (Jer 9 26; Joel 2 20, etc) or to give uniformity (Ex 26 4; Mt 5 26; 12 42, etc), but for the most part has left AV undisturbed.

UZ, uz (אָרֶץ עוּץ, ' \bar{u} ç, עוּץ', 'ereç ' \bar{u} ç; " Ω s, \bar{O} s, " $\Omega \xi, \bar{O}x, \mathbf{A} \dot{v} \sigma \hat{v} \tau \iota s, Ausitis$):

(1) In Gen 10 23 Uz is the eldest son of Aram and grandson of Shem, while in 1 Ch 1 17 Uz is the son of Shem. LXX inserts a passage which supplies this lacking name. As the tables of the nations Biblical Data in Gen 10 are chiefly geographical and ethnographical, Uz seems to have been the name of a district or nation colonized by or descended from Semites of the Aramaean tribe or family.

(2) The son of Nahor by Milcah, and elder brother of Buz (Gen 2 21). Here the name is doubtless personal and refers to an individual who was head of a clan or tribe kindred to that of Abraham.

(3) A son of Dishan, son of Seir the Horite (Gen 36 28), and personal name of a Horite or perhaps of mixed Horite and Aramaean blood.

(4) The native land and home of Job (Job 1 1), and so situated as to be in more or less proximity to the tribe of the Temanites (2 11), the Shuhites (2 11), the Naamathites (2 11), the Buzites (32 2), and open to the inroads of the Chaldaeans (1 17), and the Sabaeans (1 15 RV), as well as exposed to the great Arabian Desert (1 19). See next article.

(5) A kingdom of some importance somewhere in Southern Syria and not far from Judaea, having a number of kings (Jer 25 20).

(6) A kingdom, doubtless the same as that of Jer 25 20 and inhabited by or in subjection to the Edomites (Lam 4 21), and hence not far from JAMES JOSIAH REEVE Edom.

UZ (עודץ), 'ūç; LXX Aὐσῖτις, Ausitis; Vulg Ausitis): The home of the patriarch Job (Job 1 1; Jer 25 20, "all the kings of the land of Uz"; Lam 4 21, "daughter of Edom, that dwellest in the land of Uz"). The land of Uz was, no doubt, the pasturing-ground inhabited by one of the tribes of that name, if indeed there be more than one tribe intended. The following are the determining data occurring in the Book of Job. The country was subject to raids by Chaldaeans and Sabaeans (1 15.17); Job's three friends were a Temanite, a Naamathite and a Shuhite (2 11); Elihu was a Buzite (32 2); and Job himself is called one of the children of the East (Kedhem). The Chaldaeans (kasdīm, descendants of Chesed, son of Nahor, Gen 22 22) inhabited Mesopotamia; a branch of the Sabaeans also appears to have taken up its abode in Northern Arabia (see SHEBA). Teman (Gen 36 11) is often synonymous with Edom. The meaning of the designation Naamathite is unknown, but Shuah was a son of Keturah the wife of Abraham (Gen 25 2), and so connected with Nahor. Shuah is identified with Suhu, mentioned by Tiglath-pileser I as lying one day's journey from Carchemish; and a "land of Uzza" is named by Shalmaneser II as being in the same neighborhood. Buz is a brother of Uz ("Huz," Gen 22 21) and son of Nahor. Esar-haddon, in an expedition toward the W., passed through Bazu and Hazu, no doubt the same tribes. Abraham sent his children, other than Isaac (so including Shuah), "eastward to the land of Kedhem" (Gen 25 Shuah), "eastward to the land of \$\text{\$Achnem}" (Gen 26). These factors point to the land of Uz as lying somewhere to the N.E. of Pal. Tradition supports such a site. Jos says "Uz founded Trachonitis and Damascus" (Ant, I, vi, 4). Arabian tradition places the scene of Job's sufferings in the Hauran of the Print Final (Job's monestery) pear News at Deir Eiyūb (Job's monastery) near Nawā. There is a spring there, which he made to flow by striking the rock with his foot (Korān 38 41), and his tomb. The passage in the Korān is, however, also made to refer to Job's Well (cf JERUSALEM).

LITERATURE.—Talm of Jerus (Fr. tr by M. Schwab, VII, 289) contains a discussion of the date of Job; Le Strange, Pal under the Moslems, 220-23, 427, 515.

THOMAS HUNTER WEIR

UZAI, ū'zī, ū'zā-ī (TIN, 'ūzay, meaning un-

known): Father of Palal (Neh 3 25).

UZAL, ū'zal (ארוָל), 'ūzāl): Sixth son of Joktan (Gen 10 27; 1 Ch 1 21). Uzal as the name of a place perhaps occurs in Ezk 27 19. RV reads, "Vedan and Javan traded with yarn for thy wares." Here an obscure verbal form, me'ūzzāl, is taken to mean "something spun," "yarn." But with a very slight change we may read $m\bar{e}'\bar{u}z\bar{a}l=$ "from Uzal."

The name is identical with the Arab. 'Auzāl, the old capital of Yemen, later called San'ā'. San'ā' is described as standing high above sea-level in a fertile land, and traversed by a river bed which in the rainy season becomes a torrent. Under the Himyarite dynasty it succeeded Zafār as the residence of the Tubba's. If it is the same place as the Audzara or Ausara of the classics, it is clear why Arab. geographers dwell upon its great antiquity. The most celebrated feature of the town was Ghumdan, an immense palace, the building of which tradition ascribes to Shorahbil, the 6th known king of the Himvarites. According to Ibn Khaldoun this building had four fronts in color red, white, yellow and green respectively. In the midst rose a tower of seven stories, the topmost being entirely of marble (Caussin de Perceval, *Essai*, II, 75). In the 7th cent. AD the town became the capital of the Zaidite Imams, and the palace was destroyed toward the middle of that century by order of the caliph Oth-A. S. FULTON

UZZA, uz'a, UZZAH, uz'a (コリン, 'uzzāh [2 S 6

(1) One of those who accompanied the ark on its journey from Kiriath-jearim toward David's citadel (2 S 6 3-8, "Uzzah"=1 Ch 13 7-11, "Uzza"). From the text of 2 S 6 3-8, as generally corrected with the help of LXX, it is supposed that Uzzah walked by the side of the ark while Ahio (or "his brother") went in front of it. The word which describes what happened to the oxen is variously trd; RV has "stumbled"; others render it, "They let the oxen slip," "The oxen shook [the ark]." Uzzah, whatever it be that took place, caught hold of the ark; something else happened, and Uzzah died on the spot. If the word tr^d "rashness" (RVm) in ver 7 (not "error" as EV) is to be kept in the text, Uzzah would be considered guilty of too little reverence for the ark; but the words "for [his] rashness" are wanting in LXX B, while 1 Ch 13 10 has "because he put forth his hand to the ark," and further no such Heb word as we find here is known to us. The older commentators regarded the death as provoked by non-observance of the provisions about the ark as given in the Pent, but it is generally believed today that these were not known in David's time.

What is clear is that Uzzah's act led to an accident of some kind, and the event was regarded by David as inauspicious, so that the journey with the ark was discontinued. We know how the OT writers represent events as due to Divine intervention where we would perhaps discern natural

(2) The garden of Uzza (2 K 21 18.26). Manasseh the king is said (ver 18) to have been "buried in the garden of his own house, in the garden of Uzza" the garden of his own house, in the garden of Uzza."; and Amon (ver 26) "was buried in his sepulchre in the garden of Uzza." It has been suggested that "Uzza" = "Uzziah" (TIT, uzzīyāh) = "Azariah" (cf 2 K 15 1-6). The garden of Manasseh would then be identical with that of Uzziah, by whom it was originally laid out. 2 Ch 33 20 does not mention the garden.

(3) Son of Shimei, a Merarite (1 Ch 6 29 [Heb 14]), RV "Uzzah," AV "Uzza."

(4) A descendant of Ehud, and head of a Benjamite family (1 Ch 8 7, "Uzza"). Hogg, JQR, 102 ff (1893) (see Curtis, *Chron.*, 156–59), finds a proper name "Iglaam" in ver 6, and so reads "and Iglaam begat Uzza and Aḥishaḥar."

(5) Head of a Nethinim family that returned from Babylon (Ezr 2 49)="Uzza" of Neh 7 51. DAVID FRANCIS ROBERTS

UZZEN-SHEERAH, uz'en-shē'ē-ra (הְּיִשְׁיֵּלְהִי Jaṣ-ʾuzzēn she'ĕrāh; LXX, instead of a place-name, reads καὶ υἰοῦ 'Οζάν' Σεηρά, καὶ hượn Όzάn, Seērā, "and the sons of Ozan, Sheera"; AV Uzzen-sherah, u.-she'ra): As it stands in MT this is the name of a town built by Sheerah, daughter of Ephraim, to whom is attributed also the building of the two Beth-horons (1 Ch 7 24). No satisfactory identification has been proposed. LXX suggests that the text may have been tampered with.

UZZI, uz'ī (יַּדְּיַל, 'uzzī, perhaps "my strength"): (1) A descendant of Aaron and high priest, unknown apart from these sources (1 Ch 6 5.6.51 [Heb 5 31.32; 6 36]; Ezr 7 4).

(2) An eponym of a family of Issachar (1 Ch 7

(2.3)

(3) Head of a Benjamite family (1 Ch 7 7), or more probably of a Zebulunite family (see Curtis, Chron., 145-49).

(4) Father of Elah, a Benjamite (1 Ch 9 8), perhaps the same as (5).

(5) A son of Bani and overseer of the Levites in Jerus (Neh 11 22).

(6) Head of the priestly family of Jedaiah (Neh **12** 19.42). DAVID FRANCIS ROBERTS

UZZIA, u-zī'a (メデック, 'uzzīyā', ''my strength is Jeh"; see Uzziah): An Ashterathite and one of David's mighty men (1 Ch 11 44).

UZZIAH, u-zī'a, oō-zī'a (AZARIAH) (מְלַיִּלְּהָּהְ (2 K 15 13.30; Hos 1 1; Am 1 1; Zec 14 5), יעביזעמּה [2 K 15 32.34; Isa 1 1; 6 1; 7 1; 2 Ch 26 1ff; 27 2]; also called מַנְיִי (מַבְּיִרְיִהְרָּהְיִּ (2 K 14 21; 15 1.7; 1 Ch 3 12), ימביזעמּה [2 K 14 21; 15 6.8]; 'Aṭapias, Azarias, in K, elsewhere 'Oṭus, Oztas; the significations of the names are similar the forms nifications of the names are similar, the former meaning "my strength is Jeh"; the latter, "Jeh has helped." It has been thought that the form "Uzziah" may have originated by corruption from the other. The history of the reign is given in 2 K 15 1-8 and 2 Ch 26):

Uzziah or Azariah, son of Amaziah, and 11th king of Judah, came to the throne at the age of 16.

The length of his reign is given as 52 years. The chronological questions years. The chronological questions raised by this statement are consid-1. Accession ered below. His accession may here be provisionally dated in 783 BC. His father Amaziah had met his death by popular violence (2 K 14 19), but Uzziah seems to have been the free and glad choice of the people (2 Ch 26 1).

The unpopularity of his father, owing to a great military disaster, must ever have been present to

the mind of Uzziah, and early in his 2. Foreign reign he undertook and successfully Wars carried through an expedition against his father's enemies of 20 years before, only extending his operations over a wider area.

The Edomites, Philis and Arabians were successively subdued (these being members of a confederacy which, in an earlier reign, had raided Jerus and nearly extirpated the royal family, 2 Ch 21 16; 22 1); the port of Eloth, at the head of the Red Sea, was restored to Judah, and the city rebuilt (2 K 14 22; 2 Ch 26 2); the walls of certain hostile towns, Gath, Jabneh and Ashdod, were razed to the ground, and the inhabitants of Gur-baal and Maan were reduced to subjection (2 Ch 26 6.7). Even the Ammonites, E. of the Jordan, paid tribute to Uzziah, and "his name spread abroad even to the entrance to Egypt; for he waxed exceeding strong" (ver 8).

Uzziah next turned his attention to securing the defences of his capital and country. The walls of Jerus were strengthened by towers

built at the corner gate, at the valley 3. Home **Defences** gate, and at an angle in the wall (see plan of Jerus in the writer's Second Temple in Jerus); military stations were also formed in Philistia, and in the wilderness of the Negeb, and these were supplied with the necessary cisterns for rain storage (vs 6.10). The little realm had now

an extension and prosperity to which it had been a stranger since the days of Solomon.

These successes came so rapidly that Uzziah had hardly passed his 40th year when a great personal calamity overtook him. In the earlier

calamity overtook him. In the earlier part of his career Uzziah had enjoyed 4. Uzziah's and profited by the counsels of Zech-Leprosy ariah, a man "who had understanding in the vision of God" (2 Ch 26 5), and Retirement

and during the lifetime of this godly monitor "he set himself to seek God." Now it happened to him as with his grandfather Jehoash, who, so long as his preserver Jehoiada lived, acted

admirably, but, when he died, behaved like an ingrate, and slew his son (2 K 12 2; 2 Ch 24 2. 22). So now that Zechariah was gone, Uzziah's heart was lifted up in pride, and he trespassed against In the great kingdoms of the East, the kings had been in the habit of exercising priestly as well as royal functions. Elated with his prosperity, Uzziah determined to exercise what he may have thought was his royal prerogative in burning incense on the golden altar of the temple. Azariah the high priest, with 80 others, offered stout remonstrance; but the king was only wroth, and pressed forward with a censer in his hand, to offer the incense. Ere, however, he could scatter the incense on the coals, and while yet in anger, the white spots of leprosy showed themselves upon his forehead. Smitten in conscience, and thrust forth by the priests, he hastened away, and was a leper ever after (2 Ch 26 16-21).

Uzziah's public life was now ended. In his enforced privacy, he may still have occupied himself with his cattle and agricultural operations, "for he loved husbandry" (2 Ch 26 10); but his work in the government was over. Both K and Ch state in nearly identical words: "Jotham the king's son was over the head words: "Jotham the king's son was over the head words." was over the household, judging the people of the land" (2 K 15 5; 2 Ch 26 21). Works of the same kind as those undertaken by Uzziah, viz. building military stations in the hills and forests of Judah, repairing the walls of city and temple, etc, are attributed to Jotham (2 Ch 27 3 ff); the truth being that Jotham continued and completed the enterprises his father had undertaken.

The chronology of the reign of Uzziah presents peculiar difficulties, some of which, probably, cannot be satisfactorily solved. Reckoning upward from the fall of Samaria in 721 BC, the Bib. data would suggest 759 as the first year of Jotham. If, as is now generally conceded, Jotham's regnal years are reckoned from the commencement of his regency, when his father had been stricken with leprosy, and if, as synchronisms seem to indicate, Uzziah was about 40 years of age at this time, we are brought for the year of Uzziah's accession to 783. His death, 52 years later, would occur in 731. (On the other hand, it is known that Isaiah, whose call was in the year of Uzziah's death, Isa 6 1, was already exercising his ministry in the reign of Jotham, Isa 1 1.) Another note of time is furnished by the statement that the earliest utterance of Amos the prophet was "two years before

the earthquake" (Am 1 1). This earthquake, we are told by Zechariah, was "in the days of Uzziah, king of Judah" (Zec 14 5). Jos likewise embodies a tradition that the earthquake occurred at the moment of the king's entry into the temple (Ant, IX, x, 4). Indubitably the name of Uzziah was associated in the popular mind with this earthquake. If the prophecy of Amos was uttered a year or two before Jeroboam's death, and this is placed in 759 BC, we are brought near to the date already given for Uzziah's leprosy (Jeroboam's date is put lower by others).

In 2 K 15 Uzziah is referred to as giving data for the accessions of the northern kings (ver 8, Zechariah; ver 13, Shallum; ver 17, Menahem; ver 23, Pekahiah; ver 27, Pekah), but it is difficult to fit these synchronisms into any scheme of chronology, if taken as regnal years. Uzziah is mentioned as the father of Jotham in 2 K 15 32.34; 2 Ch 27 2, and as the grandfather of Ahaz in Isa 7 1. He was living when Isaiah began his ministry (Isa 11; 61); when Hosea prophesied (Hos 11); and is the king in whose reign the afore-mentioned earthquake took place (Zec 145). His name occurs in the royal genealogies in 1 Ch 3 11 and Mt 189. The place of his entombment, owing to his having been a leper, was not in the sepulchers of the kings, but "in the garden of Uzza" (2 K 21 26; cf 2 Ch 26 23). Isaiah is stated to have written a life of Uzziah (2 Ch 26 22). W. SHAW CALDECOTT

UZZIEL, u-zī'el, uz'i-el, oo'zi-el (אָדָראֶל, 'uzzī'ēl,

"El [God] is my strength'):
(1) A "son" of Kohath (Ex 6 18.22; Lev 10 4; Nu 3 19.30; 1 Ch 6 2.18 [Heb 5 28; 6 3]; 15 10; 23 12.20; 24 24), called in Lev 10 4 "uncle of Aaron." The family is called Uzzielites (הָעָוֹרָאֵלִר, hā'uzzī'ēlī [coll.]) in Nu 3 27; 1 Ch 26 23.
 (2) A Simeonite captain (1 Ch 4 42).

(3) Head of a Benjamite (or according to Curtis

a Zebulunite) family (1 Ch 7 7). (4) A Hemanite musician (1 Ch 25 4); LXX B has 'Αζαραήλ, Azaraɛl="Azarel," the name given in ver 18. See AZAREL.
(5) A Levite "son" of Jeduthun (2 Ch 29 14).

(6) A goldsmith who joined in repairing the wall of Jerus (Neh 3 8).

(7) The reading of LXX ('Οζιήλ, Oziêl) for Jahaziel in 1 Ch 23 19. See Jahaziel, (3).

David Francis Roberts

VAGABOND, vag'a-bond (TI), nūdh, "to wander"): The word is used in the curse pronounced on Cain (Gen 4 12.14). RV substitutes in each case "wanderer," but in Ps 109 10 it retains "vagabonds." "Vagabond Jews" (περιέρχομαι, periérchomai; RV "strolling Jews") were persons who traveled about as professional exorcists (Acts 19 13).

VAHEB, vā'heb (בְּהֵל), $w\bar{a}h\bar{e}bh$; Ζωόβ, $Z\bar{o}ób$): The name occurs in a quotation from the book of the Wars of Jeh in Nû 21 14. See SUPHAH. It was apparently in Amorite territory. It is not identified.

VAIL, val. See Veil.

VAIN, vān: The adj. of "vanity," and representing the same Heb and Gr words as does the latter, with a few additions (chiefly kerbs, kenbs, "empty, and its compounds in the NT). And "vain" ca always be replaced by its synonym "empty," often with advantage in modern Eng. (Job 15 2; 1 Cor 15 14, etc). The exception is the phrase "in vain," and even there the interchange can be made if some (understood) noun such as "ways" be added. So "to take God's name in vain" (Ex 20 7: Dt 5 11) means simply to take it for an "empty" ("not good")

VAINGLORY, vān-glō'ri (κενοδοξία, kenodoxía): VAINGLORY, vān-glo'ri (κενοουςω, ποιουσων). "Vainglory" is the tr of kenodoxia, "empty glory" or "pride," nearly akin to vanity in the modern sense (Phil 2 3). Kenodoxos is "vainglorious" (Gal 5 and the desirous of vainglory," RV "Let us not be desirous of vainglory," RV "Let us not become vainglorious"). In 1 Jn 2 16 RV has "the vainglory of life" (alazoneia toù biou) for "the pride of life"; cf Jas 4 16, "Ye glory in your vauntings" (alazoneia). Kenodoxia is trd "vainglory" (Wisd 14 14, "For by the vain glory of men they [idols] entered into the world," RV "vaingloriusness"): alazoneia cocurr in Wind 5 8 trd gloriousness"); alazoneia occurs in Wisd 5 8, trd "vaunting." "Pride is applicable to every object, good or bad, high or low, small or great; vanity is applicable only to small objects; pride is therefore good or bad; vanity is always bad; it is always emptiness or nothingness" (Crabb, English Symonymes).

W. L. WALKER

VAIZATHA, vī'za-tha, va-iz'a-tha, VAJEZATHA, va-jez'a-tha, vaj-e-zā'tha (אָרָיָדָ, wayzāthā'): One of the sons of Haman (Est 9 9). The form has been held to be corrupt, the 7 (w) being exceptionally long, and the 7 (2) exceptionally short (Benfey, Die persischen Keilinschriften [1847], XVIII, 93), and points to Vahyazdâta, "Given of the Best-One" (OHL, 255).

VALE, vāl, VALLEY, val'i:

(1) \$73, gay'; either absolute: "from Bamoth to (1) N.2, gay'; either absolute: "from Bamoth to the valley that is in the field of Moab" (Nu 21 20); or with a proper name: "valley of Hinnom," also "valley of the son of Hinnom" (Josh 15 8); "valley of Slaughter" (Jer 7 32); "valley of Zeboim" (I S 13 18); "valley of Zephathah" (2 Ch 14 10); "valley of Hamon-gog" (Ezk 39 11); "valley of Iphtah-el" (Josh 19 14); "valley of the mountains" (Zec 14 5); "Valley of Salt" (2 S 8 13); "valley of vision" (Isa 22 1); once (in RV) as a place-name: "until thou comest to Gai" (AV "the valley") (I S 17 52); also (RV) "Ge-harashim" (I Ch 4 14); cf "valley of craftsmen" (m "Ge-haharashim") (Neh 11 35).

(2) אֶבֶּלֶם, 'ēmek, √ סְבֹּיִל, 'āmōk, "to be deep"; cf Arab. عُبْق , 'amuk, "to be deep"; عُبْق , 'umk, "depth"; عينق , 'Ammîk, a village in the valley of

Coele-Syria; absolute: "He could not drive out the inhabitants of the valley" (Jgs 1 19); often with place-names: "valley of Achor" (Josh 7 24); "valley of Aijalon" (Josh 10 12); "valley of Gibeon" (Isa 28 21); "vale of Hebron" (Gen 37 14); "valley of Jehoshaphat" (Joel 3 2); "vale of Rephaim," AV "valley of the giants" (Josh 15 8); "vale of Shaveh" (Gen 14 17); "vale of Siddim" (Gen 14 3); "valley of Succoth (Ps 60 6); cf "valley of Weeping" (AV "Baca") (Ps 84 6); "valley of Beracah" (m "Blessing") (2 Ch 20 26); "valley of decision" (Joel 3 14); "vale of Elah" (m "terebinth") (1 S 17 2); "the King's Vale" (Gen 14 17); but "the king's dale" (2 S 18 18); "Emekkeziz," AV "valley of Keziz" (Josh 18 21).

(3) TPP, bik'āh, VPP, bāka', "to cleave," hence "valley," esp. "broad valley" or "plain"; cf Arab. Coele-Syria; absolute: "He could not drive out the

, Bikâ'. پَفْعَة, baķ'at, "wet meadow," Coele-Syria; absolute: "a land of hills and valleys" (Dt 11 11); with place-names: "valley of Jericho" (Dt 34 3); "valley of Lebanon" (Josh 11 17); "valley of Megiddo" (2 Ch 35 22); "valley of Mizpah" (Josh 11 8).

(4) בַּקְל, naḥal, also "river" or "stream"; absolute: "Isaac's servants digged in the valley" (Gen 26 19); with place-names: "valley [AV "river"] of the Arnon" (Dt 2 24); "valley of Eshcol" (Nu 32 9); "valley of Gerar" (Gen 26 17); "valley of Shittim" (Joel 3 18); "valley of Sorek" (Jgs 16 4); "valley of Zered" (Nu 21 12). (5) 可以,shephēlāh, 文文學,shāphēl, "to be

low"; cf Arab. شغنل, safal, "to be low"; AV "valley" or "vale," RV "lowland," the coast and foothills of Western Pal.

(6) αὐλών, aulôn, "valley" (Jth **4** 4; **7** 3; **10** 10). (7) φάραγξ, pháragx: "Every valley shall be filled" (Lk **3** 5).

The valley gate (Neh 2 13, etc) may have had about the location of the present Jaffa gate, if by "valley" is meant the valley of Hinnom. If the Tyropæon is meant, it would have been near the southwestern corner of the haram area. See JERUSALEM.

The valleys of the mountainous part of Pal are mostly dry, rocky wadies with occasional torrents in the winter season. Those which descend to the W. widen out as they approach the plain and contain broad fields and meadows which in the winter and

spring at least are fresh and green. The valley of the Jordan, the valley of Megiddo and the valley of Lebanon (i.e. Coele-Syria) contain much cultivable land: "the herds that were in the valleys" (1 Ch 27 29): "They of Beth-shemesh were reaping their wheat harvest in the valley" (1 S 6 13); "The valleys also are covered over with grain" (Ps 65 13). See Brook; Champaign; Lowland; River; SHEPHELAH. ALFRED ELY DAY

VALIANT, val'yant, VALIANTLY, val'yant-li (בְּיֵל, ḥayil; loxupós, ischurós): "Valiant" in the OT is for the most part the tr of hayil, "power," or "might," and is applied to the courageous and to men of war ("mighty men of valor"), as in 1 S 14 52; 31 12; 2 S 11 16, etc; in some passages ben hayil, "a son of might" (Jgs 21 10; 1 S 18 17; 2 S 2 7, etc). A few other Heb words (gib-bōr, etc) are thus rendered. In the NT the word occurs once in AV (He 11 34, "valiant in fight"; RV "mighty in war"). "Valiantly" is the tr of the same Heb word (Nu 24 18; Ps 60 12, etc); in one case in AV of hāzak (1 Ch 19 13, ARV "play the man," ERV "men"). In some instances RV has variations, as "man of valor" for "valiant man" (1 S 16 18), "valiant" for "strong" (1 Ch 26 7.9; Jer 48 14, etc). W. L. WALKER OT is for the most part the tr of hayil, "power," or

VALLEY, val'i. See VALE, VALLEY.

VALLEY GATE (שֶׁעֵר הַבָּּרָא, sha'ar ha-gay', "Gate of the Gai"): Is placed (Neh 3 13) between the or the Gal'): Is placed (Neh 3 13) between the "tower of the furnaces" and the "dung gate"; from here Nehemiah (2 13) set out on his ride down the "Gai" (Hinnom) to Siloam, and, too (12 31.38), from here the Levites commenced their compass of the city in two directions. It must have been an anxious rate for Ugrich added tower to 12 20. ancient gate, for Uzziah added towers to it (2 Ch 26 9). It was probably near the S.W. corner of the city and near to, if not identical with, the gate found by Bliss near (now in) the Protestant Cemetery. Šee Jerusalem, VI, 13. E. W. G. Masterman

VALLEY, JORDAN. See JORDAN VALLEY.

VALLEY OF DECISION (אֶבֶּיק הֶחָרוּץ, 'ēmeķ he-hārūç). See Jehoshaphat, Valley of.

VALLEY OF GIANTS. See REPHAIM, VALE OF.

VALLEY OF KEZIZ. See EMEK-KEZIZ.

VALLEY OF SLAUGHTER. See HINNOM; SLAUGHTER, VALLEY OF; TOPHETH.

VALLEY OF VISION (אָרָא הְדַרִּילּג, gē' hizzāyōn): A symbolic name generally understood to signify Jerus as being the home of prophetic vision (Isa 22 1.5).

VAMPIRE, vam'pīr (בְּלֹּבְּקָה 'מֹנֹעֹנְּעָּהְ): RVm for "horseleach" (Prov 30 15) has "vampire." See HORSELEACH.

VANIAH, va-nī'a (אַנְהָה, wanyāh, meaning unknown): A son of Bani, who had married a foreign wife (Ezr 10 36). The text is, however, doubtful. LXX B has Οὐιεχωά, Ouiechōά, 🐧, Οὐιερεχώ, Ouierecho, A, Ovovviá, Ououniá, Luc., Ovaviá, Ouaniá.

VANITY, van'i-ti, VANITIES, van'i-tiz (לֶּבֶּל, hebhel, זְאֶל, 'āwen, אֹזְעָׁ', shāw'; кеvós, kenós, µатаь-отпя, mataiótēs): The words "vain," "vanity," "vanities" are frequent in the Bible. Their idea is almost exclusively that of "evanescence," "emptiness," including "idolatry" and "wickedness" as being not only evil but vain and empty things. They also signify falseness. The chief word trd "vanity," "vanities" is hebhel, a "breath of air, or of the mouth," often applied to idolatry (Dt 32 21; 1 K 16 13; Ps 31 6; Jer 8 19, etc); to man's days and to man himself (Job 7 16; Ps 39 5.11, etc); to man's thoughts (Ps 94 11); to wealth and treasures (Prov 13 11; 21 6); to everything, in Eccl, where the word occurs frequently in various applications: "Vanity of vanities, all is vanity" (Eccl 1 2; 12 8). Hebhel is also the name of Adam's second son (Gen 4 2). 'Awen, meaning also "breath," is likewise trd "vanity" in similar connections, but it inclines more to "iniquity" (so often rendered); it is joined with mischief and iniquity (Isa 41 29; 58 9; Zec 10 2); another frequent word is shāw', having also the idea of "falsity," "wickedness" (Ex 20 7; Dt 5 11; Ps 31 6, etc).

"Vanity" does not often occur in the NT; but see Vain, Vainglory. In Acts 14 15 we have mátaios, "empty," trd "vanities" (of idols); mataiotēs, "emptiness," "transitoriness" (Rom 8 20, "The creation was subjected to vanity," frailty, transitoriness); "emptiness," "folly" (Eph 4 17; 2 Pet 2 18).

Among other changes for "vanity" RV has "iniquity" (Job 15 35; Ps 10 7); "falsehood" (Ps 12 2; 41 6); "deceit" (144 8.11); "vapor" (Prov 21 6); "calamity" (22 8, m "vanity"); "a breath" (Isa 57 13); "wickedly" (58 9). Conversely, for "Wherefore hast thou made all men in vain?" (Ps 89 47), "For what vanity hast thou created all the children of men!"; for "Behold, they are all vanity; their works are nothing" (Isa 41 29), "Behold, all of them, their works are vanity and nought," mas AV, with "nought" for "nothing."

VAPOR, vā'pēr: (1) T\$, 'ēdh: "For he draweth up the drops of water which distil in rain from his

up the drops of water, which distil in rain from his vapor" (Job 36 27); "There went up a mist ['ēdh] from the earth, and watered the whole face of the ground" (Gen 2 6). (2) לָּשְׂרָא , nāsī', "vapor," i.e. that which rises, from √ ℵΨ, nāsā', "to lift": "Who causeth the vapors to ascend from the ends of the earth" (Ps 135 7; cf Jer 10 13; 51 16); also trd "clouds": "as clouds and wind without rain" (Prov 25 14). (3) In Job 36 33, AV has "vapour" ("concerning the vapour") for לָּכָה, 'alāh, cerning the storm that cometh up." (4) קיטור, the storm that cometring. (4) "12 %, ktor: "fire and hail, snow and vapor" (Ps 148 8); elsewhere, "smoke": "The smoke of the land went up as the smoke of a furnace" (Gen 19 28); "I am become like a wineskin in the smoke" (Ps 119 83). (5) $d\tau \mu ls$, atmis: "blood, and fire, and vapor of smoke" (Acts 2 19); "For ye are a vapor that appeareth for a little time, and then vanisheth away" (Jas 4 14). The first two of the preceding quotations are interesting as indicating the knowledge that vapor of water from the earth or sea is the source of the rain. Visible vapor, i.e. mist or fog, is much less common in Pal than in many other countries. In the mountains, however, esp. in Lebanon, mists are of frequent occurrence, appearing to those below as clouds clinging to the mountains.

ALFRED ELY DAY

VASHNI, vash'nī (ΥΨ), washnī, see below; LXX B, Σανεί, Sanεί, A, Σανι, Sanεί: Read in 1 Ch 6 28 AV (Heb 13) as the name of the firstborn son of Samuel. According to ver 33 (Heb 18) and 1 S 8 2, Samuel's eldest son was Joel, and the second Abijah. The explanation of this is that in 1 Ch 6 28 the word taken then as a proper name is really "and second"; so following LXX, Luc. and Syr we read (as RV), "And the sons of Samuel: the first-born, Joel, and the second Abijah."

VASHTI, vash'tī (שְׁתְּלֵין, washtī; 'Aστίν, Astín; Old Pers "beautiful woman"): The former queen of Xerxes, whom he divorced. On the 7th day of a great feast which the king was giving to the assembled nobles of the empire and others, he commanded the seven chamberlains who served in his presence to bring the queen into the assembly. are told (Est 1 11) that his purpose was "to show the peoples and the princes her beauty; for she was fair to look on." The king's command was met by Vashti with a mortifying refusal to obey. The reason which is sometimes assigned for her disobedience—that no man but the king was permitted to look upon the queen—is without foundation. Esther invites Haman on two occasions to accompany the king to a banquet at which she was present. Nor can it be said that there was any lack of recognition of Vashti's high dignity; the seven highest officials of the palace were sent to escort her. refusal had to be visited with a punishment severe enough to reëstablish the supremacy which it threatened to overthrow. She was, accordingly, divorced and dethroned.

There is no known reference to Vashti outside of Est. The suggestion has been made that Vashti was an inferior wife, or one of the royal concubines. There is nothing, however, to support it; and it is, besides, directly opposed to several statements in the narrative. She is always named "queen" (Est 1 9.11.12.15–18). It is only (ver 19) when the decree is proposed to repudiate and degrade her that she is called merely "Vashti." She also (ver 9) presides at the banquet for the women. It is evident, there on higher personage than Vashti. John Urquhart

VAT. See WINEVAT.

VAULT, vôlt (), nāçar, "to guard," "protest"): Isaiah's charge against Israel as "a people that . . . lodge in the secret places" (Isa 65 4, m "vaults," AV "monuments") probably refers to the custom of sleeping in sacred tombs or vaults of idol temples to learn the future through dreams by the method known as incubation. See DIVINATION, 6, (ii); 7, 1; FAMILIAR SPIRIT; WITCHCRAFT; and Expos T, IX, 157 ff.

VAULT OF EARTH. See ASTRONOMY, III, 1.

VAV, väv. See WAW.

VEDAN, vē'dan (\begin{array}{c}\), we'dhān): A place-name occurring only in Ezk 27 19, "Vedan and Javan traded with yarn for thy wares." AV, taking the syllable w^e as the Heb conjunction, renders "and Dan also." The text is in bad condition. Some read "Dedan," but Dedan is spoken of separately in the following verse. Assuming that Vedan is the correct reading, an identification may be conjectured with Waddan, also called al-' $4bw\bar{a}$ ', between Mecca and Medina. It was the object of Mohammed's first expedition ($Ibn\ Hish\bar{a}m$, 415). The name contains that of the god Wadd who was worshipped chiefly by the Arab tribe Kalb. A. S. Fulton

VEHEMENT, vē'hē-ment, VEHEMENTLY, vē'-hē-ment-li בְּרֵרִישׁׁרִי, ḥǎrīshī; ἐπιπόθησιs, epipóthēsis):
"Vehement" (from Lat vehere, "to carry," or ve,
"out of," and mens, "mind"), carried away by the
mind or force of passion, occurs twice in the OT
(Cant 8 6, AV "a most vehement flame" [jealousy])
as the tr of shalhebheth-yāh, "the flame of Jeh," which
perhaps means lightning (RV "a very flame of Jeh,"
m "a most vehement flame, Heb Jah"); and as the
tr of AV ḥārīshī, "silent," "still," hence "sultry"

(Jon 4 8, AV "a vehement east wind," RV "sultry"). In the NT, "vehement desire" is (AV) the tr of epipothēsis, "earnest desire" (2 Cor 7 11, RV

"longing").

"Vehemently" is the tr of deinos, "greatly" (Lk 11 53); of ek perissoù or ekperissos, "beyond measure" (Mk 14 31, "He spake exceeding vehemently"); of eutónos, "intensely" (Lk 23 10); and in AV of prosrhégnumi, "to break" or "dash upon" (Lk 6 48.49, RV "break").

W. L. WALKER VEIL, val: The following words are so trd in EV (sometimes AV vail): (1) מבּנים, mitpahath, Ruth 3 15 AV, RV "mantle." As the material was strong enough to serve as a bag for a large quantity of grain RV is certainly right; cf Isa 3 22. (2) מְּסְרֵה , maṣweh, Ex **34** 33–35. St. Paul in his quotation of the passage in 2 Cor 3 13-16 uses κάλυμμα, kálumma, following LXX. The covering worn by Moses to conceal the miraculous brightness of his face, although, according to MT, he seems to have worn it only in private. (3) massēkhāh, Isa 25 7; in 28 20 trd "covering." The use in 25 7 is figurative and the form of the "veil" a matter of indifference. (4) 可变,
cammāh, RV Cant 4 1.3 (m "locks" [of hair]);
6 7; Isa 47 2, AV "locks." The meaning of the word is uncertain and AV may very well be right. If, however, RV's tr is correct, a light ornamental veil is meant. (5) אַלְלָיָרָ , çā'īph, Gen 24 65; 38 14.19. A large wrap is meant, which at times was used to cover the face also. In 24 65 Rebekah conformed to the etiquette which required the veiling of brides (see MARRIAGE). In ch 38 one motive for Tamar's use of the veil was certainly to avoid recognition, but it seems clear from the passage that veils were used by courtesans. Why is unknown, perhaps partly to conceal their identity, perhaps partly in parody of the marriage custom. (6) 17.7, redhīdh, Cant 5 7 (RV "mantle," m "veil"); Isa 3 23. A light mantle is certainly meant. In Cant 5 7 it is torn from the maiden in the watchmen's endeavor to detain her. (7) παρακάλυμμα, parakálumma, Wisd 17 3 AV, RV "curtain." parakálumma, Wisd 17 3 AV, (8) Vb. κατακαλύπτω, katakalúptō, 1 Cor 11 6 f, with ἀκατακαλύπτω, ακατακαλύτο, "unveil" in ver 5; AV has "cover" and "uncover"; καλύπτω, kalúptō, 2 Cor 4 3 (bis), ἀνακαλύπτω, anakalúptō, 2 Cor 3 18; AV "hid" and "open."

It will be seen that there is a certain reference to what in modern times would be termed a "veil" only in (2) above. For a possible additional refer-

ence see Muffler.

The use of the face veil as a regular article of dress was unknown to the Heb women, and if "veil" is to be understood in Cant 4 1, etc, it was worn as an ornament only. The modern oriental custom of veiling is due to Mohammedan influence and has not been universally adopted by Jewesses in the Orient. In NT times, however, among both Greeks and Romans, reputable women wore a veil in public (Plutarch Quaest. Rom. xiv) and to appear without it was an act of bravado (or worse); Tarsus, St. Paul's home city, was especially noted for strictness in this regard (Dio of Prusa, Tarsica prior, § 48). Hence St. Paul's indignant directions in 1 Cor 11 2-16, which have their basis in the social proprieties of the time. The bearing of these directions, however, on the compulsory use of the hat by modern women in public worship would appear to be very remote. For the Veil of the Tabernacle and the Temple

BURTON SCOTT EASTON see next article.

VEIL: (1) (ΠϽ϶϶, pārōkheth; καταπέτασμα, katapétasma; AV vail): In Ex, Lev, Nu, the veil that hung between the two holy chambers of the

tabernacle is mentioned 23 t (Ex 26 31, etc). In several places it is termed "the veil of the screen," and it is distinguished from "the screen for the door of the tabernacle" (Ex 35 12.15; 39 34.38). By the latter is meant the curtain that hung outside the holy place, i.e. at the tabernacle entrance. Ex 26 31 informs us that the veil was made of fine-twined linen, and that its colors were blue and purple and scarlet. It was embroidered with cherubim. At each removal of the tabernacle the veil was used to enwrap the ark of the testimony (Nu 4 5). From its proximity to this central object of the Heb ceremonial system, the veil is termed "the veil of the testimony" (Lev 24 3), "the veil which is before the testimony" (Ex 27 21), etc. In Solomon's Temple the veil is mentioned but once (2 Ch 3 14). It was protected by doors of olive wood (1 K 6 31). In the later temple it is alluded to in 1 Macc 1 22. Its presence in Herod's temple is attested by the statement in each of the Synoptists that at the time of Christ's death the veil of the temple was rent from top to bottom, or in the midst (Mt 27 51; Mk 15 38; Lk 23 45; cf in Mish, Mid. ii.1; iv.7). This fact is the basis of the profound truth expressed by the writer to the Hebrews that Jesus, by His sacrificial death, opened for all believers a way into the holiest "through the veil, that is to say, his flesh" (He 10 20). See Tabernacle; Temple. (2) See preceding art. and Dress, V. W. Shaw Caldecott

VEIN, vān: Only in Job 28 1, AV "a vein for the silver," or NYD, mōçā', "going forth," "source." Both AV "vein" and RV "mine" are more specialized than mōçā', but RV doubtless conveys the original meaning.

VENGEANCE, ven'jans. See Avenge; Goel; RETRIBUTION: REVENGE.

VENISON, ven'i-z'n, ven'z'n: Is derived (through the Fr. venaison) from the Lat venari, "to hunt," and means properly "the spoils of the chase." As, however, the object of the chase, par excellence, was the deer, venison came to mean usually (as it invariably does in modern Eng.) "deer's flesh." But in EV this technical force seems not to be implied, for "venison" is used only for the two Heb words المراجبة. cayidh (Gen **25** 28; **27** 5 ff), and ΤΤΥ, cēdhāh (Gen **27** 3), and both these words (from ΤΥ, cūdh, "to hunt") mean simply "game" of any kind.

VERDIGRIS, vûr'di-grēs. See Scum.

VERILY, ver'i-li, VERITY, ver'i-ti (៦૩೬, 'åbhāl, etc; ἀμήν, amēn): "Verily," as confirmatory advb., represents various Heb and Gr words and particles ('åbhāl, "truly," in Gen 42 21, etc; 'akh, "only," "surely," in Ps 66 19; Isa 45 15, etc). For AV "verily thou shalt be fed" (Ps 37 3, where 'ĕmūnāh), ARV has "feed on his faithfulness" and ERV "follow after faithfulness," m in both "feed securely." The Gr amēn (Heb 'āmēn) is used very requently in the Gospels as an emphatic confirmafrequently in the Gospels as an emphatic confirmation of Christ's sayings (Mt 5 18.26; 6 2; Mk 3 28, etc), and in John's Gospel is repeated to give additional emphasis (Jn 1 51; 3 3.5.11, etc). RV makes various changes, as "wholly" for "verily" (Job 19 13), "surely" (Ps 39 5; 73 13), "indeed" (Mk 9 12; Rom 2 25; He 3 5; 7 5), etc, and sometimes puts "verily" where AV has other words, as "also" (Mt 13 23), "doubtless" (Phil 3 8), etc.

Verity is the tr of 'emeth, "truth," "stedfastness" (Ps 111 7, "The works of his hands are verity and judgment," ARV "truth and justice," ERV "truth and judgment"); and of aletheia, "truth," "reality," frequently in the Gospels as an emphatic confirma-

and judgment"); and of aletheia, "truth," "reality,

"certainty" (1 Tim 2 7), "faith and verity," RV "faith and truth." W. L. WALKER

VERMILION, ver-mil'yun. See Colors, (3).

VERSIONS, vûr'shunz. See American Revised Version; Arabic Versions; Armenian Versions; Coptic Versions; English Versions; Ethiopic Versions; Latin Version, The Old; Septuagint; Syriac Versions; Targum; Text of the NT; Text of the OT; Vulgate.

VERSIONS, GEORGIAN, jôr'ji-an, GOTHIC, goth'ik, SLAVONIC, sla-von'ik: Georgia is the

name given to the territory extending 1. The to the E. of the Black Sea, a country that has had an independent national Georgian Version existence of 2,000 years but is now (under the name Grusinia) a part of the trans-Caucasian domain of Russia. The lan-

guage has no affinities with any of the recognized groups, but is becoming obsolete under Russian pressure. Christianity was introduced into Georgia in the 4th cent., and a national conversion followed. A well-supported tradition makes the first tr of the Bible almost contemporaneous with this conversion and refers it to St. Mesrop (d. 441; see Arme-NIAN VERSIONS), but the fact is not quite certain and the beginnings of a native VS may really be as much as two centuries later. The oldest MS extant is a Psalter of the 7th-8th cent., and the earliest copy of the Gospels is perhaps a century later; in all, Gregory (Textkritik, 573-75) enumerates 17 Georgian MSS of the NT, but his list is not exhaustive. The first printed Bible was produced in the ancient alphabet in Moscow in 1743 and has never been reprinted, but other edd, perhaps only of the NT, were issued at least in 1816 and 1818, using the non-ecclesiastical alphabet. According to Conybeare (ZNTW, XI, 161–66, 232–39 [1910]) the Georgian VS was first made from the Old Syr and then later (11th cent.) revised from the Gr. In 1910 a new edition, based on two MSS dated respectively 913 and 995, was begun (Quattuor Ev. versio Georgia vetus, St. Petersburg). The Georgian VS was used by S. C. Malan, The Gospel according to St. John Tra from the 11 Oldest VSS, London, 1862.

Ulfilas, the Arian bishop of the West Goths and

the chief agent in their conversion to Christianity,

was also the first translator of the Bible into Gothic, a work for which he had 2. The even to invent an alphabet. Accord-Gothic ing to tradition, his tr included the Version entire Bible with the exception of K

(which he thought unadapted to the already too warlike character of his converts), but there is doubt whether his work actually included more than the NT. Too little of the OT has survived to enable a settling of this question, nor is it possible to tell how much revision the NT tr has undergone since Ulfilas' work.

A list of the six Gothic MSS is given in HDB, IV, 862, to which is to be added a bilingual Lat-Gothic MS containing portions of Lk 24, known as the Arsinoë Fragment (published in ZNTW, XI, 1–38 [1910] and separately [Giessen, 1910]). In all there have been preserved in the OT Gen 5 (in part); Ps 52 2 f; Neh 5-7 (in part), and in the NT the Gospels and Pauline Epp. (all incomplete), with quotations from He. The best complete ed is that of Stamm-Heyne's (Paderborn, 1896), but as the VS is of basic importance for the history of the Germanic languages there are many edd of various portions prepared for philological purposes.

The OT fragments are a tr of a text very closely allied to the Lucianic Gr (see Septuagint) and are certainly not from the Heb. The NT undoubtedly

was made from a text of the type used in Antioch (Constantinople) in the 4th cent., with very slight variations, none of which are "neutral" (von Soden classes them as of the *I*-type). Either in making the tr or (more probably) in a subsequent revision an Old-Lat text was used, of the type of Codex Brixianus (f), and certain Old-Lat readings are well marked. For brief lists of these peculiarities see Burkitt in Jour. Theol. Studies, I, 129-34 (1900), or von Soden, Schriften des NT, I, 1469 f (1906).

It is definitely known that the first Slavonic tr of the Bible was commenced in 864 or earlier by the two brothers Cyril (d. 869) and

3. The Slavonic Version

Methodius (d. 885), and that the latter worked on it after the former's death. Their work was undertaken for the benefit of the Balkan Slavs, and at

first only the liturgical portions (Gospels, Acts, Epp. and Ps) were trd, but, after the completion of this, Methodius carried the tr farther to include larger portions of the OT. How much of this he accomplished is obscure but he accomplished in the accomplished in accomplished is obscure, but he seems not to have finished the OT entirely, while almost certainly he did not translate Rev. Uncertain also is the exact dialect used for this work; although this dialect was the basis of the present liturgical language of the Russian church, it has undergone much transformation before arriving at its final stage. At different times the tr of the Bible was revised to conform to the changes of the language, in addition to other revisional changes, and, as a result, the MSS (some of which go back to the 10th cent.) exhibit very varying types of text that have not been satisfactorily classified.

An attempt to bring the discrepant material into order was made about 1495 by Archbishop Gennadius, but he was unable to find Slavonic MSS that included the entire Bible and was forced to supply the deficiencies (Ch, Ezr, Neh, Est and most of Jer and the Apoc) by a new tr made from the Vulg. This Bible of Gennadius was the basis of the first printed edition, made at Ostrog in 1581, although the liturgical portions had been printed earlier (Acts and Epp. first of all in 1564). The Ostrog ed (Acts and Epp. first of all in 1564). The Ostrog ed followed Gennadius fairly closely, but Est, Cant and Wisd were new tre made from the LXX. The next revision was undertaken by order of Peter the Great and was performed by using the Gr (OT and NT), although the resulting text was not printed until 1751. A slightly emended ed of 1756 is still the official Bible of the Russian church.

This Slavonic VS is to be distinguished from the VS in the true Russian language, begun first in 1517, revised or remade at various times, with an excellent modern tr first published complete in 1876. See, on the whole subject, esp. Bebb in *Church Quart*. Rev., XLI, 203-25, 1895.

LITERATURE.—On all three VSS see HDB, IV, 861–64, 1902, and the art. "Bibelübersetzung" in PRE^3 , III (1897), with the important supplement in XXIII (1913).

VERY, ver'i: As adj. (from verus, "true"), "true," "real," "actual," etc (Gen 27 21.24, "my very son Esau"; Josh 10 27, "this very day"; Jn 7 26, "the very Christ," etc); chiefly as advb., "in a high degree," "extremely." As advb. it is commonly in the OT the tr of לאוֹד, me'odh, and in commonly in the OT the tr of TINT, m*odh, and in the NT represents, as adj. and advb., several Gr words, as alēthôs, "truly" (Jn 7 26, above), autós (Jn 14 11, "the very works' sake"; Rom 13 6), sphódra (Mt 18 31, "very sorry," RV "exceeding sorry"; Mk 16 4, "very great," RV "exceeding"), hupêr- (in composition 1 Thess 5 13), etc. RV frequently omits "very," and also substitutes other words for it, as "exceeding" (2 Ch 16 8; Mt 26 7; cf above), "sore" (Zec 9 5), etc.

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VESSEL, ves'el: Is used freely in EV to translate קֹלִי, kelī, the Aram. אָלָהְ, mā'n, and σκεῦος, skeúos, words all meaning "an implement or utensil" of any kind, when the context shows that a hollow utensil is meant. In 1 S 21 5, however, the tr of the pl. of $k^n l \bar{\imath}$ by "vessels" is dubious. EV evidently the pl. of k*th by "vessels" is dublous. By evidently intended something in the nature of provision wallets, and the "holiness" of such objects finds partial parallels in Nu 19 15; Lev 11 32-34, etc. But in 1 S 21 8, in the immediate context of the verse above, k*lī certainly means "weapons," and this terior with intelligible in yer 5 else. For war this tr is quite intelligible in ver 5 also. For war among the Hebrews was a holy function, calling for extreme ceremonial purity (Dt 23 9-14). See the comms. and esp. RS^2 , 455-56. In addition, "vessel" appears in Isa 30 14 for τος, nebhel, "jar"; in Mt 13 48 for dγγος, dggos, "vessels"; and in Sir 21 14; Mt 25 4 for dγγείον, aggeton, and in Sir 21 14, Mt 25 4 101 "Yets", taggeth, a dimin. form of aggos. A different use is that of Wisd 14 1, where "vessel" represents $\pi \lambda o \bar{c} o \nu$, ploton, "a boat," while Wisd 14 5.6 AV has "weak vessel" for $\sigma \chi \epsilon \delta t a$, schedia, "raft" (so RV). Vessels of all sorts and kinds and for all sorts of uses were so familiar as to make them natural illustrations for different sorts of human beings (Hos 8 8; Isa 22 24; Jer 22 28, etc; see POTTER), and through Acts 9 15 the word "vessel" has passed into Christian theology as signifying simply a human being. But the figure of such "vessels" as (passively) filled with different contents is not Bib. In 1 Thess 4 4 "vessel" may be taken as a figure for either the man's own body or for his wife. Between these possibilities the comms. are almost equally divided. BURTON SCOTT EASTON

VESTMENTS, vest'ments. See Dress.

VESTRY, ves'tri (מֶלְקוּהָה, meltāḥāh): Once, in 2 K 10 22, as a place for vestments.

VEX, veks, VEXATION, vek-sā'shun: "Vex," meaning originally to shake or toss in carrying, has a much more intensive meaning in Scripture than in common modern usage. It represents over a score of Heb and Gr words, most of them trd by this word only once, and many of them changed in RV into other forms. Thus bāhēl in Ps 6 2.3.10 is in ARV "troubled" (in Ps 2 5, RVm "trouble"); çārar in Neh 9 27 is in RV "distressed"; páschō in Mt 17 15 is "gwarach". Mt 17 15 is "suffereth grievously"; kakôō in Acts 12 1 is "afflict," etc. So "vexation only" in Isa 12 1 is "afflict," etc. So "vexation only" in Isa 28 19 is in RV "nought but terror," and there are other changes of this word (cf Dt 28 20, "discomfiture"; Isa 9 1, "in anguish"). On the other hand, RV has "vex" for "distress" (Dt 2 9.19); "they that vex" for "the adversaries of" (Isa 11 13); "vexeth himself" for "meddleth" (Prov 26 17), etc. W. L. WALKER

VIAL, vi'al: In modern Eng. means "a tiny flask." The word appears in EV 1 S 10 1 and RV 2 K 9 1.3 (AV "box") for \$\overline{12}\$, \$pakh\$, a word found nowhere else and from a root meaning "to pour." The shape and size of the pakh are quite uncertain. In 1 Esd 2 13; and AV Rev 5 8, etc, "vial" translates φιάλη, phiálē. The phialē was a flat, shallow bowl (Lat patera), shaped much like a saucer. Hence RV's change to "bowl" in Rev, a change that should have been made in 1 Esd

VICE, UNNATURAL. See UNNATURAL VICE.

VICTUALS, vit''lz. See FOOD.

VILE, vil, VILLANY, vil'an-i: The original words for "vile" and "villany" are used in about 10 different senses, e.g. despised (1 S 15 9), despicable (Dnl 11 21 AV), lightly esteemed (Dt 25 3), empty (Jgs 19 24 AV), foolish (Isa 32 6, AV and ERV), dishonorable (Rom 1 26), filthy or dirty (Jas 2 2),

humiliation (Phil 3 21).

Villany occurs but twice in AV (Isa 32 6; 29 23), and signifies emptiness or folly (so RV). From the foregoing meanings it will be seen that the word "vile" does not always bear the meaning which has come to be invariably given it in our present-day speech. Anything common or ordinary or humble might, in the Scriptural sense, be termed "vile." So Job 40 4, RV "Behold, I am of small account"; also "the low estate of his handmaid" (Lk 1 48). Ordinarily, however, the idea of contemptible, despicable, is read into the word. William Evans

VILLAGE, vil'āj (לְּפָלֶּה), kāphār, חַרּרֹת, ḥawwōth, קַבְרִים, haçērīm, בָּנוֹת, bānōth, חַצְרִים, perāzōth; κώμη, $k\bar{o}m\bar{e}$): (1) The general term for a village, in common with Aram. and Arab., is $k\bar{a}ph\bar{a}r$ (Cant 7 11; 1 Ch 27 25; $k\bar{o}pher$, 1 S 6 18; $k^eph\bar{i}r$, Neh 6 2). This designation is derived from the idea of its offering "cover" or shelter. It is used in combination, and place-names of this formation became prominent in post-Bib. times, probably because the villages so named had then grown into towns. A well-known Bib. instance of such names is Capernaum. (2) *Ḥawwōth* (always "town" in EV; see HAVVOTH-JAIR) means originally a group of tents (Arab. hiwa'). These in settled life soon became more permanent dwellings, or what we understand by a village. The term, however, is applied only to the villages of Jair in the tribe of Manasseh (Nu 32 41; 1 K 4 13). (3) Hắcgērīm likewise came from nomadic life. They were originally enclosures specially for cattle, alongside of which dwellings for the herdsmen and peasantry naturally grew up (see HAZAR-ADDAR; HAZOR). They were unwalled (Lev 25 31) and lay around the cities (Josh 19 8). (4) Bānōth is lit. "daughters." The word is applied to the dependent villages lying around the larger cities, and to which they looked as to a kind of metropolis (Nu 21 25, etc); RV "towns" except in Nu 22 42 (5) Proposition (11) in Nu 32 42. (5) Perāzāth means "the open country," but it soon came to mean the villages scattered in the open (Ezk 38 11; Zec 2 4; Est 9 19). Some have sought to connect the Perizzites with this word and to regard them, not as a distinct people, but as the peasant class. Attempts have people, but as the peasant class. Attempts have also been made to connect $p^*\bar{n}\bar{a}z\bar{n}$ in Jgs 5 7.11 with the same root, and AV rendered it "inhabitants of the villages." RV, on the contrary, gives it the meaning of "rulers." The VSS indicate a word meaning authority, and probably the text should be emended to read $r\bar{o}z^*n\bar{\imath}m$, "rulers." A similar emendation is required in Hab 3 14. "Village" in RV of the NT invariably represents the Greek $k\bar{o}m\bar{e}$, but in 2 Macc 8 6 the RV Apoc has "village" for $ch\bar{o}ra$, lit. "country." See CITY; Town.

VILLANY. See VILE.

VINE, vīn:
(1) בְּלֵּבֶּן, gephen, usually the cultivated grape vine. In Nu 6 4; Jgs 13 14 we have בְּלֵבֵּן בְּלֵבִין בְּלֵבֶּן gephen ha-yayīn, lit. "vine of wine," trd "grape vine" (Nu) and "vine," m "grape vine" (Jgs); 2 K 4 39, 1. Hebrew Words

גָפֶּן שָׁדֶה, gephen sādheh, EV "wild vine"; Dt 32 32, סְלָם, gephen ședhōm, "vine of Sodom.

(2) שׁרֵק, sōrēk, in Isa 5 2, "choicest vine"; שורק , sōrēk, in Jer 2 21, "noble vine"; שרקה, sōrēkāh, in Gen 49 11, "choice vine"; cf VALLEY OF SOREK (q.v.). The Heb is supposed to indicate dark grapes and, according to rabbinical tradition, they were unusually sweet and almost, if not quite, stoneless.

(3) קֿיִרר, nāzīr, in Lev **25** 5.11, "undressed vine," AV "vine undressed," m "separation." This may mean an unpruned vine and be a reference to the unshorn locks of a Nazirite, but it is equally probable that נְזִיר should be בָּצִיר, bāçīr, age."

For the blossom we have בָּרַה, peraḥ (Isa 18 5), "blossom"; مَكِت , niççāh, either the blossom or halfformed clusters of grapes (Gen 40 10; Isa 18 5);

2 13.15; **7** 12).

For grapes we have commonly: "\", '\"\enabh (a word common to all Sem languages) (Gen **40** 10; Dt **32** 14; Isa **5** 2, etc); בּם עָּנָבִים , dam ʿanābhīm, lit. "blood of grapes," i.e. wine (Gen 49 11); 기다고, bōser, "the unripe grape" (Isa 18 5, "ripening grape," AV "sour grape"; Job 15 33, "unripe grapes"; Jer 31 29 f; Ezk 18 2, "sour grapes"); קראינים (Grapes און באשים, be'ushīm, "wild grapes" (Isa **5** 2.4; see Grapes, Wild); איישכל, be'ushkōl, a "cluster" of ripe grapes (Gen **40** 10; Cant **7** 8 f; Hab **3** 17, etc; cf Eshcol [q.v.]); תורַצָּנִים, harçannīm, usually supposed to be the kernels of grapes (Nu

In Gr we have ἄμπελος, ámpelos, "vine" (Mt 26 29, etc), σταφυλή, staphulė (Sir **39** 26, "blood of grapes"; Mt **7** 16, "grapes," etc), **2.** Greek and βότρυς, bόtrus (Rev **14** 18), "cluster and Latin of the vine." In the Lat of 2 Esd vinea is "vine" in 5 23 ("vineyard" in 16 30.43); botrus (9 21) and racemus (16 30) are "cluster"; acinium (9 21) and wa (16 26) are 'a grape.'

Pal appears to have been a vine-growing country

from the earliest historic times. The countless wine presses found in and around 3. Antiquity centers of early civilization witness to and Imthis. It is probable that the grape was largely cultivated as a source of sugar: the juice expressed in the portance "wine press" was reduced by boiling to a liquid of treacle-like consistency known as "grape honey," or in Heb d*bhash (Arab. dibs). This is doubtless the "honey" of many OT references, and before the days of cane sugar was the chief source of sugar. aays of cane sugar was the chief source of sugar. The whole OT witnesses to how greatly Pal depended upon the vine and its products. Men rejoiced in wine also as one of God's best gifts (Jgs 9 13; Ps 104 15). But the Nazirite might eat nothing of the vine "from the kernels even to the husk" (Nu 6 4; Jgs 13 14).

The land promised to the children of Israel was one of "vines and fig trees and pomegranates" (Dt 8 8); they inherited vineyards which they had not planted (Dt 6 11; Josh 24 13; Neh 9 25). Jacob's blessing on Judah had much reference to the suitability of his special part of the land to the vine (Gen 49 11). When the leading people were carried captive the poor were left as vine dressers (2 K 25 12; Jer 52 16), lest the whole land should lapse into uncultivated wilderness. On the promised return this humble duty was, however, to fall to the "sons of the alien" (Isa 61 5 AV).

The mountain regions of Judaea and Samaria, often little suited to cereals, have always proved highly adapted to vine culture. The 4. Its Culstones must first be gathered out and tivation utilized for the construction of a protecting wall or of terraces or as the bases of towers (Isa 5 2; Mt 21 33). Every ancient vineyard had its wine press cut in a sheet of rock appearing at the surface. As a rule the vinestocks lie along the ground, many of the fruit-bearing branches falling over the terraces (of Gen 49 22); in some districts the end of the vine-stock is raised by means of a cleft stick a foot or more above the surface; exceptionally the vine branches climb into



Large Vine at Jericho, Age 333 Years. Length of Trunk, 9 ft. 7 in.; Girth of Trunk at Base, 53 in.; Girth of Trunk Half-Way Up, 38 in.

trees, and before a dwelling-house they are sometimes supported upon poles to form a bower (cf 1 K 4 25, etc).

The cultivation of the vine requires constant care or the fruit will very soon degenerate. After the rains the loosely made walls require to have breaches repaired; the ground must be ploughed or harrowed and cleared of weeds—contrast with this the vine-yard of the sluggard (Prov 24 30-31); in the early spring the plants must be pruned by cutting off dead and fruitless branches (Lev 25 3.4; Isa 5 6) which are gathered and burned (Jn 15 6). As the grapes ripen they must be watched to keep off jackals and foxes (Cant 2 15), and in some districts even wild boars (Ps 80 13). The watchman is stationed in one of the towers and overlooks a considerable area. When the grape season comes, the whole family of the owner frequently take their residence in a booth constructed upon one of the larger towers and remain there until the grapes are practically finished. It is a time of special happiness (cf Isa 16 10). The gleanings are left to the poor of the village or town (Lev 19 10; Dt 24 21; Jgs 8 2; Isa 17 6; 24 13; Jer 49 9; Mic 7 1). In the late summer the vineyards are a beautiful mass of green, as contrasted with the dried-up parched land around, but in the autumn the leaves are sere and yellow (Isa 34 4), and the place desolate.

The expression "vine of Sodom" (Dt 32 32) has been supposed, esp. because of the description in Jos (BJ, IV, viii, 4), to refer to the colocynth of (Citrullus colocynthis), but it is far more probable that it means "a vine whose juices and fruits were not fresh and healthy, but tainted by the corruption of which Sodom was the type" (Driver, Comm. on Dt), See Sodom, Vine of.

Figurative: Every man "under his vine and under his fig-tree" (1 K 4 25; Mic 4 4; Zec 3 10) was a sign of national peace and prosperity. To plant vineyards and eat the fruit thereof implied long and settled habitation (2 K 19 29; Ps 107 37; Isa 37 30; 65 21; Jer 31 5; Ezk 28 26; Am 9 14); to plant and not eat the fruit was a misfortune (Dt 20 6; cf 1 Cor 9 7) and might be a sign of God's displeasure (Dt 28 30; Zeph 1 13; Am 5 11). Not to plant vines might be a sign of deliberate avoidance of permanent habitation (Jer 35 7). A successful and prolonged vintage showed God's blessing (Lev 26 5), and a fruitful wife is compared to a vine (Ps 128 3); a failure of the vine was a sign of God's wrath (Ps 78 47; Jer 8 13; Joel 1 7); it might be a test of faith in Him (Hab 3 17). Joseph "is a fruitful bough, . . . his branches run over the wall" (Gen 49 22). Israel is a vine (Isa 5 1-5) brought out of Egypt (Ps 80 8f; Jer 2 21; 12 10; cf Ezk 15 2.6; 17 6). At a later period vine leaves or grape clusters figure prominently on Jewish coins or in architecture.

Three of Our Lord's parables are connected with vineyards (Mt 20 1 ff; 21 28.33 ff), and He has made the vine ever sacred in Christian symbolism by His teaching regarding the true vine (Jn 15).

by His teaching regarding the true vine (Jn 15).

E. W. G. Masterman

VINEGAR, vin'è-gēr (YZ), hōmeç; éţos, óxos):

Vinegar, whose use as a condiment (Ruth 2 14)

needs no comment, is formed when a saccharine fluid passes through a fermentation that produces acetic acid. In the ancient world vinegar was usually made of wine, although any fruit juice can be utilized in its manufacture, and "vinegar of strong drink" (palm juice?) is mentioned in Nu 6 3. Undiluted vinegar is of course undrinkable, and to offer it to a thirsty man is mockery (Ps 69 21), but a mixture of water and vinegar makes a beverage that was very popular among the poor (Groxos, oxikraton, Lat posca—names applied also to diluted sour wine). It is mentioned in Nu 6 3 (forbidden to the Nazirite) and again in the Gospels in the account of the Crucifixion. The executioners had brought it in a vessel (Jn 19 29) for their own use and at first "offered" it to Christ, while keeping it out of reach (Lk 23 36). But at the end the drink was given Him on a sponge (Mk 15 36; Mt 27 48; Jn 19 29.30). In addition, AV, following TR, has "vinegar . . . mingled with gall" in Mt 27 34, but this rests on a false reading, probably due to Ps 69 21, and RV rightly has "wine." Vinegar, like all acids, is injurious to the teeth (Prov 10 26); and when it is combined with niter an effervescence is produced (Prov 25 20). The appropriateness of the last figure, however, is obscure, and LXX reads "as vinegar on a wound," causing pain.

VINEYARD, vin'yard. See VINE.

VINEYARDS, MEADOW (PLAIN) OF THE (Jgs 11 33). See ABEL-CHERAMIM; MEADOW.

VINTAGE, vin'taj. See Vine.

VIOL, vī'ol (בְּבֶל, nēbhel, בְּבֶל, nebhel): AV and RV in Isa 14 11; Am 5 23; 6 5; AV alone in Isa 5 12, RV "lute." "Viol" is derived from Lat vitella, a doublet of vitula, a "viol"; hence Fr. vielle, doublet of viole. The viol was a bowed instrument, the parent of the violin tribe, and is not a true equivalent for nebhel. See Music.

VIOLENCE, vī'ō-lens, VIOLENT, vī'ō-lent: Chiefly for ΣΞ, gāzal, ΣΣΠ, hāmaş; βla, bia, and their derivatives. Difficulty is offered only by the

very obscure passage Mt 11 $12 \parallel Lk$ 16 16. Both Mt and Lk contain the vb. $\beta \iota d \xi e \tau a \iota$, bidazetai, but this form may be either a middle, "presses violently," "storms," or a passive, "is forced." Mt, in addition, contains the adj. biastai, but whether this is a term of praise, "heroic enthusiasts," or of blame, "hot-headed revolutionaries," is again a problem. Nor can it be determined whether the words "from the days of John the Baptist until now" are meant to include or exclude the work of the Baptist himself. The difference in wording in Mt and Lk further complicates the problem, and, in consequence, scholars are widely at variance as to the proper interpretation. "The Baptist has fanned a new Messianic storm of ill-advised insurrection," "the Pharisees have shamefully used forcible suppression of God's teachers," "the Kingdom of God comes like a storm and is received by those who have used drastic self-discipline," are instances of the differing explanations proposed.

BURTON SCOTT EASTON
VIPER, vi'pēr (ΤΣΣΧ, 'eph'eh [Job 20 16; Isa
30 6; 59 5]; ἔχιδνα, échidna [Mt 3 7=Lk 3 7;
Mt 12 34; 23 33; Acts 28 3]): Several vipers
are found in Pal, but it is not certain that 'eph'eh
referred definitely to any of them. See SERPENT.

VIRGIN, vûr'jin, VIRGINITY, vûr-jin'i-ti: (1) בחוכה, bethūlāh, from a root meaning "separated," is "a woman living apart," i.e. "in her father's house," and hence "a virgin." Bethūlāh seems to have been the technical term for "virgin," as apnave been the technical term for "virgin," as appears from such a combination as $na'a'r\bar{a}h \ bh'th\bar{u}l\bar{a}h$, "a damsel, a virgin," in Dt 22 23.28, etc. An apparent exception is Joel 18, "Lament like a virgin $[b'th\bar{u}l\bar{a}h] \dots$ for the husband of her youth," but the word is probably due to a wish to allude to the title "virgin daughter of Zion" (the tr "a betrothed maiden" is untrue to Heb sentiment). And the use of "virgin" for a city (Isa 37 22 etc. of Isa 23 12: 47 1) probably means "unment). And the use of "virgin" for a city (Isa 31 22, etc; cf Isa 23 12; 47 1) probably means "unsubdued," though, as often, a title may persist after its meaning is gone (Jer 31 4). AV and ERV frequently render bethäläh by "maiden" or "maid" (Jgs 19 24, etc), but ARV has used "virgin" throughout, despite the awkwardness of such a phrase as "young men and virgins" (Ps 148 12). For "tokens of virginity" ("proofs of chastity") see the comm. on Dt 22 15 ff. (2) This is classify see the comm. on Dt 22 15 ff. (2) This is, 'almāh, 'rendered in RV by either "damsel" (Ps 68 25), "maiden" (so usually, Ex 2 8, etc.), or "virgin" with m "maiden" (Cant 1 3; 6 8; Isa 7 14). The word (see OHL) means simply "young woman" and only the context can give it the force "virgin." This force, however, seems required by the contrasts in Cant 6 8, but in 1 3 "virgin" throws the accent in the wrong place. The controversies regarding Isa 7 14 are endless, but LXX took 'almāh as meaning "virgin" (parthénos). But in NT times the Jews never interpreted the verse as a prediction of a virgin-birth—a proof that the Christian faith did not grow out of this passage. See Immanuel; Virgin-birth. (3) παρθένος, parthénos, the usual Gr word for "virgin" (Jth 16 5, etc; Mt 1 23, etc). In Rev 14 4 the word is masculine. In 1 Cor 7 25 ff RV has explained "virgin" by writing "virgin daughter" in vs 36-38. This is almost certainly right, but "virgin companion" (see Lietzmann and J. Weiss in loc.) is not quite impossible. (4) reaus, neanis, "young woman" (Sir 20 4). (5) Lat virgo (2 Esd 16 33).

The OT lays extreme emphasis on chastity before marriage (Dt 22 21), but childlessness was so great a misfortune that death before marriage was to be bewailed (Jgs 11 37.38). St. Paul's preference for the unmarried state (1 Cor 7 29 ff) is based

on the greater freedom for service (cf Mt 19 12), and the Gr estimate of virginity as possessing a religious quality per se is foreign to true Jewish thought (such a passage as Philo Mund. opif., § 53, is due to direct Gr influence). Some have thought to find a trace of the Gr doctrine in Rev 14 4. But 144,000 1st-cent. Christian ascetics are out of the question, and the figure must be interpreted like that of Jas 4 4 (reversed).

BURTON SCOTT EASTON

VIRGIN-BIRTH (OF JESUS CHRIST):

I. DEFINITION
II. THE TEXTUAL QUESTION
III. THE HISTORICAL QUESTION
1. Statement Not Dogmatic but Vital as History
2. Its Importance to Leaders of the Early Church
3. Hypothesis of Invention Discredits the Church
IV. THE CRITICAL QUESTION
1. Basis of Virgin-Birth Statement
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V. THE DOCTRINAL QUESTION
1. In the NT
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5. Its Importance to Modern Thought
LITERATURE

I. Definition.—"Virgin-birth" is the correct and only correct designation of the birth statement contained in the Gospels of Mt and Lk. "Immacucontained in the Gospels of Mt and Lk. "Immaculate conception" is of course manifestly a blunder due to the confusion of one idea with another. "Supernatural or miraculous birth" will not do, because there is no intimation that the process of birth was in any way exceptional. "Supernatural or miraculous conception" is equally unsatisfactory as it involves a question-begging comparison between the birth of Christ and the exceptional births of the Sons of Promise (e.g. Isaac, John the Bapof the Sons of Promise (e.g. Isaac, John the Baptist, etc). The only statement which is sufficiently specific is "virgin-birth," inasmuch as according to the NT statement Mary was at the time of this birth virgo intacta.

II. The Textual Question.—We may deal with this division of our subject very briefly, because if we are to allow any weight at all to textual evidence there is no question as to the infancy narratives, either in whole or in part. Their position is flaw-less and unassailable. There is a voluminous literature devoted to the discussion of the subject, but it is notably jejune even for critical writing, and much more impressive for ingenuity and dialectic skill in arguing a poor case than for anything in the way of results. We do not hesitate to refer the reader who is interested in discussions of this sort to entirely satisfactory reviews of them found elsewhere (see Machen, *Princeton Review*, October, 1905; January, 1906; and Orr, *The Virgin Birth of Christ*). We may summarize the entire discussion in the words of Johannes Weiss (*Theolo*gische Rundschau, 1903, 208, quoted by Machen, ut sup.): "There never were forms of Mt and Lk without the infancy narratives." One point only we shall consider in this connection; namely, the disputed reading of Mt 1 16. The Ferrar group of MSS (nos. 346, 556, 826, 828) interpose a second "begat" between the names Joseph and Jesus. It is affirmed that this reading with the variants represents an original form of the genealogy preserved in the Gospels which affirms the literal son-ship of Jesus to Joseph. The first and most obvious remark to be made upon this question is, grantingwhat is extremely uncertain—that this reading is original, it does not prove nor begin to prove the point alleged. This is now widely conceded. For one thing, the word "begat" is used elsewhere for legal or putative fatherhood (cf ver 12 and see GENEALOGY OF JESUS CHRIST). Allen's statement of the case indicates clearly enough that the radical

use of this variation has broken down (see *ICC*, "Matthew," 8). This writer holds that the reading of S 1 ("Jacob begat Joseph. Joseph, to whom was betrothed Mary the Virgin, begat Jesus, called the Merich." Mr. 1 10 Virgin, begat Jesus, called the Messiah," Mt 1 16) is nearest the original form. By four steps, which he enumerates in order, he conceives that the original text, which was intended to convey the idea of a legal fatherhood on the part of Joseph, was modified so as to guard the statement from misinterpretation. This hypothesis is ingenious if somewhat complicated. The weak spot in the whole case (for the variation) lies in the fact that all MSS concur in the name of Mary and the term "virgin." It is evident, in any view of the the term "virgin." It is evident, in any view of the relative standing of the various readings, (1) that the genealogy as deposited in public or private record would read: "Jacob begat Joseph, Joseph begat Jesus," (2) that the person who used the genealogy in the Gospel and placed it in connection with vs 18-25 (a) had Mary particularly in mind and inserted the names of women to prepare the way for the mention of Mary, all of which was a departure from usual and orderly procedure; (b) that he used the word "begat" in the legal sense throughout (vs 8.12; cf 1 Ch 3 11.12.19); (c) that he believed in the virgin-birth as evinced by the connection and the use of names of women in-cluding Mary's. There is therefore no basis for the idea that the genealogy, even without the strongly attested relative clause of 1 16, ever meant anything but an attestation of the virgin-

III. The Historical Question.—The twofold birth announcement of Mt and Lk is a statement of his-

torical or, more strictly speaking, biographical fact. The accounts, as 1. Statewe shall see, are very rigidly confined to the matter of fact concerned. It is ment Not Dogmatic but Vital not a dogma and receives very little as History doctrinal elaboration even in the infancy narratives themselves. It is

an event, wholly real or wholly imaginary. The statement of it is wholly true or entirely false. But as a historical statement this narrative is of peculiar quality and significance. (1) It touches upon the most delicate matters, at a place where the line between that which is most sacred and that which is most degraded in human life is closely drawn. To discredit it leaves the most intimate mystery of Our Lord's earthly life under the shadow of sus-It is therefore a statement of the greatest personal moment in the evangelic record. (2) It involves the secret history and public honor of a family most dear and sacred to the entire Christian body. It records the inner and outer experiences of the mother of the Lord and of His brethren, themselves honored leaders in the church. (3) It touches upon the central mystery of the Lord's person in such a way as to involve either a very important contribution to the doctrine of the incarnation or a very serious mutilation of the truth. We may dismiss altogether the contention of many, that whether true or not the fact is of no great importance. It must be of importance. No fact in which the relationship of Jesus to His ancestors according to the flesh, to His mother, to the laws of life in the race at large, are so evidently and so deeply involved can possibly be a matter of in-difference. The nature of His experience in the world, the quality and significance of His manhood, the fundamental constitution of His person, the nature and limits of the incarnation are necessarily and vitally concerned in the discussion. It is impossible to begin with the acceptance or rejection of the fact and arrive by logical processes at like convictions on any fundamental matter in the region of Christology.

All this must have been as patent to the earliest believers as to ourselves. The men who incorporated this incident into the gospel nar-rative could not possibly have been 2. Its Imblind to the importance of what they

portance to Leaders of

were doing (cf Lk 1 3). In view of these facts it would be well for the the Early serious student to ask himself this Church question: "On the hypothesis of invention, what manner of men were they who fabricated these narratives and succeeded in foisting them upon the church so early as to dominate its earliest official records and control the very making of all its creeds?" It is clear that deliberate invention is the only alternative to historical credit. We may throw out of court as altogether inadmissible the hypothesis that the church as a whole, by a naïve and semi-unconscious process, came to believe these stories and to accept them without criticism. Rumors always grow in the absence of known facts, esp. where curiosity is keen. Absurd rumors multiply among the credulous. But no statement contrary to natural expectation was ever yet promulgated among people of even average intelligence without meeting the resistance of incredulity on the part of some individuals who wish to inquire, esp. if means of verification are within reach. In this particular instance, the issue may be stated much more sharply. At no period reasonably to be assigned for the origin and incorporation of these documents could they have been honestly accepted by any member of the Christian community, sufficiently taught to occupy a position of authority. If the story was invented, there must have been a time when Jesus was universally accepted as the son by natural generation of Joseph and Mary. The story surely was not invented before His birth nor for some time after. The first person, therefore, who spoke contrary to the prevalent and natural belief must have had it from the family, which alone knew the truth, or else have been a wanton and lying gossip. Such a story is recognizable on the face of it as authoritative or pure invention. There is no middle ground. It could not have been recounted without being challenged for its strangeness and for its contravention of the accepted belief. It could not have been challenged without the exposure of its groundless and fraudulent character, for the simple reason that the lack of positive and authoritative certification would be its immediate and sufficient condemnation. It is not difficult to draw the portrait of the inventor of this story. He must have been lacking not only if the sufficient of the story is the sufficient of the story.

essential matters. Moreover, this hypothesis demands that this fabrication must have met with instantaneous and universal success. It passed the scru-

been lacking, not only in the sense of truthfulness,

but also in the elementary instinct of delicacy, to have invaded the privacy of the most sacred home known to him and deliberately invented a narrative

which included the statement that Mary had come

under suspicion of wrongdoing in such a way as to shadow the life of her Son. He must also have been doctrinally lax in the extreme, as well as temperamentally presumptuous, to have risked a mutila-tion of the truth by an invention dealing with such

3. Hypothe- tiny of the church at large and of its sis of In- authorized teachers, and was never challenged save by a small group of vention heretics who disliked it on purely Discredits the Church dogmatic grounds.

To whatever origin in the way of suggestion from without one may attribute the story—whether one may ascribe it to the influence of OT prophecy, or Jewish Messianic expectations in general, or to ethnic analogies, Bab. Egyp or Gr—the fact remains that the story had

to be invented and published by those who ought to have known better and could easily have known better had they possessed sufficient interest in the cause of truth to have made even casual inquiries into the credentials of such an important statement offered for their acceptance. It is fairly true to say that ethnic analogies for the birth of Christ fail (see art. on "Heathen Wonder-Births and the Birth of Christ," Princeton Review, January, 1908). It is also true that the rooted Sem conviction shared by the Hebrews, that family descent is to be traced through the male line only, so persistent even among the NT writers that both evangelists, on the face of them, trace the lineage of Joseph, would have acted as an effectual barrier against this particular legendary development. It is further true that no passage of the OT, including Isa 7 14, can be adduced as convincing evidence that the story was invented under the motive of finding fulfilment for Messianic predictions (see Immanuell). But far more satisfactory is the elementary conviction that the founders of the Christian church and the writers of its documents were not the kind of men to accept or circulate stories which they knew perfectly well would be used by unbelief in a malignant way to the discredit of their Master and His family. The hypothesis of invention not only leaves an ugly cloud of mystery over the birth of Jesus, but it discredits beyond repair every man who had to do with the writing and circulation of the Gospels, down to and including the man who professes to have "traced the course of all things accurately from the beginning," according to the testimony of those who were "eyewitnesses and ministers of the word" (Lk 1 2 f). It is simply impossible to save the credit, in any matter involving honesty or commonsense, of one who uses words like these and yet incorporates unauthenticated legends into the narrative to which he has thus pledged himself.

One may venture at the close of this section of the discussion to point out that everything which the inventor of this story must have been, the narrators of it are not. Both narratives exhibit a profound reverence, a chaste and gracious reserve in the presence of a holy mystery, a simplicity, dignity and self-contained nobility of expression which are the visible marks of truth, if such there are anywhere in human writing.

IV. The Critical Question.—The infancy narratives evidently stand somewhat apart from the main body of apostolic testimony. The per-

1. Basis of sonal contact of the disciples with Virgin-Birth Jesus, upon which their testimony pri-Statement marily rests, extended from the call of the disciples, near the opening of the ministry, to the resurrection and post-resurrection appearances. It is hyper-skepticism to deny that the substance of the gospel narrative rests upon the basis of actual experience. But all four evangelists show a disposition to supplement the immediate testimony of the disciples by the use of other wellattested materials. Luke's introductory paragraph, if it was written by an honest man, indicates that he at least was satisfied with nothing less than a careful scrutiny of original sources, viz. the testimony, written or oral, of eyewitnesses. It may reasonably be surmised that this was the general attitude of the entire group of apostles, evangelists

and catechists who are responsible for the authorship and circulation of the Gospels.

ship and circulation of the Gospels.

But, to say nothing of the infancy narratives, for one of which Luke himself is responsible, these writers have embodied in the narrative the ministry of John the Baptist, the baptism and temptation of Jesus, all of which events happened before their fellowship with Jesus, strictly speaking, began. In particular, assuredly no disciple was an eyewitness of the temptation. None the less the narrative stands, simply because imaginative invention of such an incident in the absence of accredited facts cannot reasonably be considered. The fact that the birth narratives do not rest upon the testimony of the same eyewitnesses who stand for the ministry of Jesus does not discredit them as embodying reliable tradition, unless it can be proved that they contradict the rest of the apostolic testimony or that no reliable witness to the events in question was within reach at the time when the documents were composed. In the present instance such a contention is absurd. The very nature of the event points out the inevitable first-hand witnesses. There could be no others. In the absence of their decisive word, bald invention would be necessary. To charge the entire church of the time (for this is what the hypothesis amounts to) as particeps

criminis in its own official and documentary deception is an extreme position as unwarranted as it is cruel.

The internal harmony of the facts as recorded points in the same direction. The silence or comparative lack of emphasis with reference to the birth of Christ on the part of the other NT writers is to be explained partly on the basis of doctrinal viewpoint (see V, below) and partly because an ingrained sense of delicacy would naturally tend to reticence on this point, at least during the lifetime of Mary and the Lord's brethren. The following intimately corresponding facts are sufficiently significant in this connection: (1) that the fact of Jesus' unique birth could not be proclaimed as a part of His own teaching or as the basis of His incarnate life; (2) that He was popularly known as the son of Joseph; (3) that the foster-fatherhood of Joseph, as embodied in the genealogy (see GENEALOGY OF JESUS CHRIST), was the recognized basis of His relationship to the house of David. All these facts appear just as they should in the narrative. The very fact that the genealogies, ending with the name of Joseph, and the current representations of Jesus as Joseph's son, are allowed to appear in the same documents in which the virgin-birth statements appear, to-gether with the entirely congruous facts that the main synoptic narrative does not emphasize the event, and that neither Paul nor John nor any other NT writer gives it a prominent place, is indication enough that it rested, in the opinion of the entire witnessing body, on a sufficient basis of evidence and required no artificial buttressing. Internal harmonies and incidental marks of truthfulness are of the utmost importance here because in a narrative so complex and vital it would have been easy to make a misstep. Since none was made, we are constrained to believe that the single eye to truth filled the apostolic mind with light. Every item, in the infancy narratives themselves, as well as in the more strictly doctrinal statements of other NT books, is as we should expect, provided the birth statement be accepted as true. Internal evidence of truthfulness could not be stronger.

This general conclusion is confirmed when we come to consider the relationship of the two narratives to each other. To begin with, we

2. Interrelationship of
Narratives
which have had quite a different history.

dent that we have two documents which have had quite a different history.

In two points, at any rate, what might be considered serious discrepancies are discoverable (see Discrepancies, Biblical). These two points are: (1) the relationship of the Massacre of the Innocents and the journey to Egypt, as related by Matthew, to Luke's account, which carries the holy family directly back to Nazareth from Bethlehem after the presentation in the temple; (2) the discrepancy as to the previous residence at Nazareth (Lk) and the reason given for the return thither (Mt). As to (1) it is quite clear that Matthew's account centers about an episode interpolated, so to say, into the natural order of events (see Innocents, Massacre of trie). It is also clear that the order of Luke's narrative, which is in the highest degree condensed and synoptic, does not forbid the introduction of even a lengthy train of events into the midst of ver 39 (cf condensation in vs 40–42.51.52). It may easily be that the lacunae in each account are due to a lack of knowledge on the part of either writer as to the point supplied by the other. Matthew may not have known that a return to Galilee as a permanent residence was not contemplated in the original plan. The difficulty here is not serious. We consider the discrepancy as it stands as of more value to the account as indicating the independence of the two accounts and the honesty of those who incorporated them into the Gospels without attempting to harmonize them, than any hypothetical harmonization however, that Matthew had an especial reason for introducing the residence at Nazareth during Our Lord's early years

as occurring by Divine authority (see Sweet, Birth and Infancy of Jesus Christ, 218 f, for discussion of this point; and cf Innocents, Massacre of the).

We are now free to consider the remarkable convergence of these two documents. The following particulars may be urged: (1) the synchronism in the Herodian era; (2) the name "Jesus" given by Divine authority before birth; (3) Davidic kinship; (4) the virgin-birth; (5) the birth at Bethlehem; (6) residence at Nazareth. In addition we may urge the essential and peculiar harmony of descriptive expressions (see V, below) and the correspondence of the inner and outer experiences of Mary (see Mary, II).

We have now reached the final and crucial point of this phase of our discussion when we take up the

question as to the sources, origin and
3. Sources, date of these narratives. Our method
Origin and of approach to the general question of their credibility delivers us from the
Documents necessity of arguing in extenso the theories which have been framed to account for the narrative in the absence of historical fact. We resort to the simple and convincing principle that the story could not have been honestly

ciple that the story could not have been honestly composed nor honestly published as derived from any source other than the persons who could have guaranteed its trustworthiness. Every indication, of which the narratives are full, of honesty and intelligence on the part of the narrators is an argument against any and all theories which presuppose a fictitious origin for the central statement. Negatively, we may with confidence assert that wide excursions into ethnic mythology and folklore have failed to produce a single authentic parallel either in fact or in form to the infancy narratives. addition to this, the attempt to deduce the story from Messianic prophecy also fails to justify itself. In addition, there are two considerations which may justly be urged as pointing to trustworthy sources for the narrative: First, the strongly Hebraic nature of both narratives. It has often been pointed out that nowhere in the NT do we find documents so deeply tinged with the Hebraic spirit (see Adency, Essays for the Times, no. XI, 24 f; and Briggs, New Lights on the Life of Christ, 161 f). This statement involves both narratives and is another evidence of profound internal unity. A second important fact is that the doctrinal viewpoint is Jewish-Christian and undeveloped. The term "Holy Spirit" is used in the OT sense; the Christology is undeveloped, omitting reference to Christ's preëxistence and interpreting His sonship as official and ethical rather than metaphysical. The soteriology is Jewish and Messianic, not unfolding the doctrine of the cross. All these facts point in one direction, namely, to the conclusion that these documents are early. It is the conclusion that these documents are early. impossible reasonably to suppose that such documents could have been composed in the absence of sources, or by persons devoid of the historical spirit, after the death and resurrection and ascension of Jesus had shed such light upon His person and mission as to transform both Christology and soteriology through the ideas of incarnation, atonement and the Trinity.

It is still asserted, in the face of the most convincing evidence to the contrary, that the infancy narratives are late addends to the gospel tradition as a whole. This idea is due, primarily, to a confusion of thought between origin and publication. The latter must have been coincident with the original issue of the Gospels in their present form. The textual evidence here is convincing. On the other hand, the main body of testimony incorporated into the Gospels at the time of their publication had been in the hands of the apostles and their helpers for some years, as evidenced by the Pauline letters and the Book of Acts. In all probability the sources upon which the infancy narratives rest, which had their origin and received the impress which characterizes them in the period antecedent to the

public ministry of Jesus, came into the hands of the Gospel writers toward the end of the formative period at the close of which the Gospels were issued. In other words, the story of the Lord's birth was withheld until the time was ripe for its publication. Two occasions may have served to release it: the death of Mary may have made it possible to use her private memoirs, or the rise of anti-Christian calumny may have made the publication of the true history imperative. At any rate, the narratives show every indication of being contemporary documents of the period with which they deal. This fact puts an additional burden of proof, already heavier than they can bear, upon those who would antagonize the documents. We may reasonably affirm that the narratives will bear triumphantly any fair critical test. fair critical test.

V. The Doctrinal Question.—The discussion of the doctrinal significance of the virgin-birth state-

ment falls naturally into three parts: (1) its doctrinal elaboration in the NT: 1. In the NT (2) its historic function in the develop-

ment of Christian doctrine; (3) its permanent value to Christian thought. We begin with the narratives themselves. As has just been said, they were incorporated into the Gospels at a time when the NT Christology had reached maturity in the Pauline and Johannine writings and the Ep. to the He. The doctrine of the incarnation was fully unfolded. It had been unequivocally asserted that in Jesus all the fulness of the Godhead was historically and personally manifested (Jn 1 14; Phil 2 5-8; Col 1 18; 2 9; He 2 14). In contrast with these statements the infancy narratives not only, as adverted to above, exhibit on the surface a rudimentary Christology, but in several items, of profound interest and most surprising tenor, show that the birth notice was not apprehended or stated in view of the doctrine of the incarnation at all.

that the birth notice was not apprehended or stated in view of the doctrine of the incarnation at all.

The detailed justification of this statement follows:
(1) Matthew (see I 18-25) does not use the term "Son of God." The only expression implying a unique relationship to God, other than in the "of Holy Spirit" phrase, twice used, is in the word "Immanuel" quoted from Isa, which does not necessarily involve incarnation. At the beginning of the genealogy Jesus is introduced as the son of David, the son of Abraham. (2) The assertion as to His conception by Holy Spirit is conditioned by three striking facts: (a) His conception is interpreted in terms of conception by the power of Holy Spirit, not of begetting by the Father. The OT expression "This day have I begotten thee." used twice, occurs in quite a different connection (He I 5; \$ 5).

(b) The term "Holy Spirit" is used without the article. (c) The phrase descriptive of the being conceived is expressed in the neuter, the thing conceived in her is of Holy Spirit' (rò yaò eù avrij yevvnêv èx reviparés evir vàviou, to gár en autê gennêthên ek pneumatiós estin hagiou). The implication of these three facts is (i) that the sonship of Jesus through His exceptional birth is interpreted in terms of Divine power working upon humanity, not as the correlative of Divine and essential fatherhood; it is the historical sonship that is in view (contrast with this the two passages in He referred to above); (ii) the writer is speaking in the OT sense of "Holy Spirit" as the forthgoing of creative power from God, not as personal hypostasis; (iii) he is also emphasizing (in the use of the neuter) the reality of the physical birth. These three facts, all the more remarkable because they are attributed to a heavenly messenger who might be expected to speak more fully concerning the mystery, exclude the supposition that we have one historic form of the doctrine of incarnation. On the contrary, had we no other statement itself, might be true were He the son of Joseph and Mary.

The c

Even the "wherefore" of ver 35, in connection with the future vb., carries the power of God manifested in the holy conception forward into the entire career of Jesus rather than bases the career upon the initial miracle. These three facts taken together exclude the reference to any conception of the incarnation. The incarnation is directly and inseparably connected with Christ's eternal sonship to the Father. The title "Son of God" includes that but does not specify it. It includes also the ethical, historical, human sonship. The term "Holy Spirit" used without the article also is a comprehensive expression covering both a work of Divine power in any sphere and a work of Divine grace in the personal sphere only. sphere only.

These accounts are concerned with the historic fact rather than its metaphysical implications. This historic fact is interpreted in terms of a Divine power in and through the human career of Jesus. (which is so stated as to include an impersonal, germinal life) rather than a dogmatic definition of the Messiah's essential nature. The omission of all reference to preëxistence is negatively conclusive on this point. The Divine power manifested in His exceptional origin is thought of as extending on and including His entire career. This leads us directly including His entire career. This leads us directly to a second phase in the interpretation of Christ and compels to a reconsideration at a new angle of the miracle of His origin.

The narrators of the life and ministry of Jesus on the basis of ascertained fact and apostolic testimony were confronted with a very definite and delicate task. They had

of Jesus in to tell with unexaggerating truthful-

2. Portrait

ness the story of the human life of Jesus. Their ultimate aim was to Synoptic Gospels justify the doctrine of incarnation, but they could not have been unaware that the genuine and sincere humanity of Christ was a pillar of the doctrine quite as much as His essential Deity. To portray the human experience of a being considered essentially Divine was the Herculean task attempted and carried to a successful issue in the Synoptic Gospels. These writers do not conceal for a moment their conviction that they are depicting the career of the wonder-working Son of God, but they never forget that it is a career of self-limitation within the human sphere, the period of self-imposed and complete humiliation undertaken on behalf of the Father, "for us men and for our salvation." Hence the nature and limitations of the narrative. Mark omits reference to the virgin-birth. Matthew and Luke narrate it and forthwith drop it. These facts are exactly on a par. It is no more remarkable that Mark omits the story than that Matthew and Luke make so little of it. To allege either fact as a motive to doubt is to misinterpret the whole situation. By the terms of their task they could do nothing else. The Fourth Gospel and the Epp. announce that the human life of Jesus was due to the voluntary extra-temporal act of a preëxistent Divine being, but in the synoptic narrative four passages only hint at preëxistence, and then as incidental flashes from the inner consciousness of Jesus. This omission is no more remarkable and no less so than the omissions noted above. By the terms of their task the synoptic writers could do nothing else. The fact of preëxistence could be announced only when the earthly task had been triumphantly finished (see Mk 9 9.11). During the entire period of the earthly life as such Jesus was under trial (note Mt 3 17, correctly translating the agrist; cf the remarkable words of Jn 10 17), performing a task, accomplishing a commission, achieving a victory as human son. The story of the Temptation ex-hibits the conditions under which Jesus performed His task. The temptations were one and all addressed to His consciousness as God's Son. were resisted on the sole basis of self-humiliation and dependence. The entire synoptic narrative is consistent with this representation. Jesus is con-

sciously one in will and spirit with God, but that oneness with God is consummated and conducted in the Spirit, through faith, by prayer. They describe His entire career of holiness, wisdom and power, each unique, in the terms of the Spirit-filled, trustful, prayerful human life. Here is the vital point. They disclose the eternal Sonship (in which beyond question they believe) on its ethical, not on its metaphysical side, by prediction of His future triumph rather than by definition of His person. In such a narrative, consistently carried out, there can be no resort to the preëxistent, eternal Sonship, nor to the miracle of His human origin in the story of His career under trial. In particular, the miracle, whereby His germinal connection with the race was established could not extend to the personal and spiritual life in which His victory was His own through the personal Holy Spirit. The argument from the virgin-birth to His sinlessness (see IMMA-CULATE CONCEPTION) was made by the church, not by the NT writers. The sinlessness of Christ was His own achievement in the flesh which He sacrificed through His holy will of obedience to the Father.

This leads us to a third phase of development in the NT doctrine of incarnation. In the Fourth Gospel and the Epp. it is asserted that the innermost moral significance of the of the NT earthly career of Jesus lay in the fact

that it was the consistent carrying-out of an extra-temporal volition of Divine mercy and love whereby He became the Revealer of God and the Saviour of men. This doctrine is based upon the story of the human career completed in the glorification which, according to the testimony, ensued upon His death and disclosed His place in the Divine sphere of being. But it is also based upon the virgin-birth narrative and grounded in it. Attention has already been called to the fact that the virgin-birth is not (in the infancy narrative) connected with the metaphysical sonship of Jesus. All that is said then, doctrinally, concerning Jesus might be true were He the son of Joseph and Mary. On the contrary, what is said in Jn and the Epp. depends upon the virgin-birth narrative for its foundational basis. It has often been asserted that Paul and John do not refer to the virgin-birth. This statement the present writer takes to be more than doubtful, but if it is true, all the more striking is the indirect and unconscious testimony to the virgin-birth involved in their doctrinal reliance upon it. According to these writers the incarnation was due to a Divine act of self-limitation whereby the Divine mode of existence was exchanged for the human (Phil 2 5-11 et al.). According to the infancy narrative, the birth of Jesus was due to a Divine creative act whereby a human life began germinally and passed through the successive stages of growth to maturity. The synoptic narrative outside the infancy narrative supplies a third point, that the entire conscious personal career of Jesus upon earth was lived in the power of the Holy Spirit. The infancy narrative is the keystone of an arch, one half resting upon the synoptic account, the other upon the doctrinal construction of Jn and the Epp. The virgin-birth statement by its adoption of OT terminology makes room for a Divine activity both in the impersonal and in the personal spheres. The doctrine of incarnation implies that as in every new human being the creative Divine power manifests itself impersonally in germinal beginnings, so in the life of Christ the Divine power conditions itself within the impersonal forces of germinant life with this important and suggestive difference: In the career of Jesus there issues from the sphere of germinal beginnings not a new human person created from the life-stock of the race, but the personal human life, including all human powers,

of a preëxistent Divine person self-conditioned and self-implanted within the human sphere. The central conscious self, the agent of His activities and the subject of His experiences in the historic sphere was the eternal Son of God. His life in the human sphere was that of a true human being in the full actuality of a human life. Hence it follows, since ordinary generation involves necessarily (that is the intent of it) the origination of a new person not hitherto existing, that the birth of Jesus could not have been by ordinary generation. The birth of Christ through ordinary generation would have involved a quite incomprehensible miracle, namely, the presence and action of the ordinary factors in human origins with a contrary and unique result. The virgin-birth is the only key that fits the vacant space in the arch. In addition it may reasonably be urged that the relationship of human parents to each other, ordinarily a natural, necessary and sacred act, could have no part in this transaction, while the very fact that Mary's relationship was to God alone, in an act of submission involving complete self-renunciation and solitary enclosure within the Divine will, fulfils the spiritual conditions of this unique motherhood as no other imaginable experience could

Historically the virgin-birth statement performed a function commensurate with the importance ascribed to it in this discussion rather

than the current depreciation of it. 4. Oppositions to the The doctrine of Christ was menaced in two opposite directions, which may be Doctrine designated respectively by the terms "Ebionite" and "Gnostic." According to the former teaching (the word "Ebionite" being used in a general sense only), Jesus was reduced to the human category and interpreted as a Spirit-led man or prophet, in the OT meaning of the term. According to the opposite tendency, He was interpreted as Divine, while His human experience was reduced to mere appearance or a temporary external union with the Logos. The virgin-birth statement resisted both these tendencies with equal effectiveness. On the one hand, it asserted with unequivocal definiteness a real humanity conditioned by true birth into an actual connection with the race. On the other hand, it asserted an exceptional birth, setting Jesus apart as one whose entrance into the world was due to a new, creative contact of God with the race. Historically, it is difficult to see how the NT doctrine could have escaped mutilation apart from the statement, seemingly framed with express reference to conditions arising afterward, which so wonderfully guarded it. The holy mystery of the Lord's origin became the symbol of the holier mystery of His Divine nature. It thus appears in every one of the historic creeds, an assertion of fact around which the belief of the church crystallized into the faith which alone accounts for its history, a profound and immovable conviction that Jesus Christ was really incarnate Deity.

The importance for modern thinking of the virginbirth statement is threefold: (1) First, it involves

5. Its Importance to trustworthiness of the gospel tradition.

Modern Thought birth, has been a favorite, because apparently a vulnerable, point of attack. But the presuppositions of the attack and the method according to which it has been conducted involve a general and radical undermining of confidence in the testimony of the gospel wit-

ducted involve a general and radical undermining of confidence in the testimony of the gospel witnesses. This process has finally met its nemesis in the Christus-myth propaganda. The virgin-birth statement can be successfully assailed on no grounds which do not involve the whole witnessing body of

Christians in charges of blind credulity or wilful falsification, very unjust indeed as respects their character and standing in general, but very difficult to repel in view of the results of denial at this

point.

(2) The virgin-birth is important for the simple historical reason that it involves or is involved in a clear and consistent account of the Lord's birth and early years. Apart from the infancy narratives we are utterly without direct information as to His birth, ancestry or early years. Apart from these narratives we have no information as to the marriage of Joseph and Mary; we are shut up to vague inferences as to this entire period. No biographer ever leaves these points obscure if he can avoid it. It is very earnestly suggested that those who cast discredit upon the infancy story do not clearly recognize the seriousness of the situation brought about in the absence of any narrative which can be trusted as to this vital point. Calumny there is and has been from an early day. If there is nowhere an authoritative answer to the calumny, in what sort of a position is the Christian believer placed? He can assert nothing, because apart from what he has too lightly thrown away he knows nothing.

(3) Lastly, the more closely the statement as to the Lord's birth is studied, the more clearly it will be seen that it involves in a most vital and central way the entire doctrine of the incarnation. doctrine is an interpretation of facts. Those facts stand together. In the midst of those facts, harmonizing with them, shedding light upon them and receiving light from them, resting upon the same consentient testimony is the statement, which is thus worded in the oldest symbol of our historical faith: "Conceived by the Holy Ghost, Born of the Virgin Mary" (see Apostles' Creed). There is no adequate reason why the intelligent believer should feel uncertain as to this statement of our

holy religion.

holy religion.

LITERATURE.—There is a vast and growing literature which more or less directly deals with the subject of Our Lord's birth. The literature may be classified as follows: (1) Lives of Christ; (2) critical comms. on Mt and Lk; (3) critical and historical investigations of Christian origins; (4) monographs on the Apostles' Creed; (5) monographs and arts. on the specific subject. For a list and analysis of discussions see Sweet, Birth and Infancy of Jesus Christ, 354-57.

LOUIS MATHEWS SWEET

VIRTUE, vûr'tū: This word has two quite distinct meanings in AV: (1) It was formerly often used in the now obsolete sense of "manly power," "valor," "efficacy" (Lat virtus, "manly strength" or "excellence," from vir, "man"):

"Trust in thy single virtue; for thy soldiers All levied in thy name, have in thy name Took their discharge."
—Shakespeare, King Lear, V, iii, 103 ff.

It was also used in the sense of a mighty work, It was also used in the sense of a mighty work, a miracle. Thus Wycliffe translates Mt 11 20: "Thanne Jhesus bigan to saye repreef to cities in whiche ful many vertues of him weren don." So in AV Mk 5 30; Lk 6 19; 8 46, in the sense of "power," "miraculous energy or influence" (δύναμις, dinamis, "inherent power, residing in the nature of a thing"; contrast έξουσία, exousía, "power arising from external apportunity or liberty of action"). In a tining; contrast ecoucia, exousia, power arising from external opportunity or liberty of action"). In these passages it is trd in RV "power" (as elsewhere in AV; cf Acts 3 12, etc). (2) In its ordinary modern meaning of "moral goodness" it occurs in AV and RV Wisd 4 1; 5 13; 8 7; Phil 4 8; 2 Pet A v and R v wish ± 1; 5 13, 6 1; Fin ± 3, 2 1et 1 3.5. In these passages it stands for ἀρετή, arete, the usual classical term for "moral excellence" (originally "fitness" of any sort), used in LXX to translate words meaning "glory," "praiseworthiness," as in Hab 3 3; Isa 42 12; 63 7 (of God); Zec 6 13 (of the Messiah). The LXX sense may be the present of the words are applied to God. color the meaning of the word as applied to God

in 2 Pet 1 3 RV; as also in its pl. use (of God) in 1 Pet 2 9 (AV "praises," RV "excellencies").

The adj. "virtuous" occurs in AV, ERV Ruth 3 11; Prov 12 4; 31 10 (ARV "worthy"), and the advb. "virtuously" in Prov 31 29 (ARV "worthily"), in each case for אָלָה, hayil, "strength," "force" (whether of body or of mind), then in a moral sense of "worth," "virtue."

D. MIALL EDWARDS

VISION, vizh'un (קוֹלרֹן, ḥāzōn, הַדָּלָרֹלָ, ḥizzāyōn, הַרְאָבוֹ, mar'āh; οραμα, hórama, οπτασία, optasía): Psychologists find that man is prevailingly and persistently "eye-minded." That is, in his waking life he is likely to think, imagine and remember in terms of vision. Naturally then, his dreaming is predominantly visual; so strongly visual, we are told, that it is not rare to find dreams defined as "trains of fantastic images." Whether man was made this way in order that God might communicate with him through dreams and visions is hardly worth debating; if the records of human life, in the Bible and out of it, are to be trusted at all, there is nothing better certified than that God has communicated with man in this way (Ps 89 19; Prov 29 18; cf Am 8 11.12; Hos 12 10). If one is disposed to regard the method as suited only to primitive peoples and superstitious natures, it still remains true that the experience is one associated with lives and characters of the most saintly and

with lives and characters of the most sainty and exalted kind (1 S 3 1; Jer 1 11; Ezk 1 1; Dnl 2 19; Acts 9 10; 10 3; 16 9).

The vision may come in one's waking moments (Dnl 10 7; Acts 9 7); by day (Cornelius, Acts 10 3; Peter, Acts 10 9 ff; cf Nu 24 4.16) or night (Jacob, Gen 46 2); but commonly under conditions of dreaming (Nu 12 6; Job 4 13; Dnl 4 9). The objects of vision, diverse and in some instances strange as they are, have usually their points of contact with experiences of the daily life. Thus Isaiah's vision of the scraphim (6 2) was doubtless suggested by familiar figures used in the decoration of the temple at Jerus; Paul's "man of Macedonia" (Acts 16 9) had its origin in some poor helot whom Paul had seen on the streets of Troas and who embodied for him the pitiful misery of the regions across the sea; and "Jacob's ladder" (Gen 28 12) was but a fanciful development of the terraced land which he saw sun-glorified before him as he went to sleep. Among the recurring objects of vision are natural objects-rivers, mountains, trees, animals-with which man has daily and hourly association.

The character of the revelation through vision has a double aspect in the Bib. narrative. In one aspect it proposes a revelation for immediate direction, as in the case of Abram (Gen 15 2 and frequently); Lot (Gen 19 15); Balaam (Nu 22 22), and Peter (Acts 12 7). In another aspect it deals with the development of the Kingdom of God as conditioned by the moral ideals of the people; such are the prophetic visions of Isaiah, Ezekiel, Hosea, and Micah, and the apocalypses of Daniel The revelation for immediate direction and John. has many correspondences in the life of the devout in all ages; the prophetic vision, dealing in a penetrating way with the sources of national growth and decay, has its nearest approach in the deliverances of publicists and statesmen who are persuaded that the laws of God, as expressed in self-control, truth, justice, and brotherly love, are supreme, and that the nations which disregard them are marked for ultimate and speedy extinction.

From the nature of the vision as an instrument of Divine communication, the seeing of visions is naturally associated with revivals of religion (Ezk 12 21-25; Joel 2 28; cf Acts 2 17), and the absence of visions with spiritual decline (Isa 29 11. 12; Lam 2 9; Ezk 7 26; Mic 3 6).

One may see visions without being visionary in

the bad sense of that word. The outstanding characters to whom visions were vouchsafed in the history of Israel-Abraham, Moses, Jacob, David, Isaiah, Jesus and Paul-were all men of action as well as sentiment, and it is manifest from any fair reading of their lives that their work was helped and not hindered by this aspect of their fellowship with God. For always the vision emphasizes the play of a spiritual world; the response of a man's spirit to the appeal of that world; and the ordering of both worlds by an intelligent and compelling Power able to communicate Himself to man and apparently supremely interested in the welfare of CHARLES M. STUART

VISITATION, viz-i-tā'shun, vis- (תֹּתֶבֶּף, pekuddāh; ἐπισκοπή, episkopē): In Bib. writings, the Divine investigation or inspection of men's character and deeds with a view to apportioning to them their due lot, whether of reward or of chastisement; Divine dispensation of mercy or of punishment. (1) In a general sense: "Visited after the visitation of all men" (Nu 16 29), i.e. in natural death, the usual lot of men, as opposed to a calamitous death; "She shall have fruit in the visitation of souls" (Wisd 3 13 AV), i.e. in the time of Divine judg-(Wisd 3 13 AV), i.e. in the time of Divine judgment. So Sir 18 20 and perhaps 1 Pet 2 12.

(2) In a good sense, of God's care, providence and mercy: "Thy visitation [RVm "care"] hath preserved my spirit" (Job 10 12). So Lk 19 44, and, according to some, 1 Pet 2 12 (see above).

(3) Most frequently in an evil sense, of calamity or distress viewed as Divine punishment: "What will ve do in the day of visitation, and in the descent will ye do in the day of visitation, and in the deso-Will ye do in the day of visitation, and in the desorbation which shall come from far?" (Isa 10 3). So Jer 8 12; 10 15; 11 23; 23 12; 46 21; 48 44; 50 27; 51 18; Hos 9 7; Mic 7 4; Wisd 14 11. D. MIALL EDWARDS

VOCATION, vo-kā'shun. See Calling.

VOICE, vois. See Bath Kol.

VOID, void: The uses of "void" in EV are all modern, except for the phrase "void place" in AV 1 K 22 10 || 2 Ch 18 9 (RV "open"); 2 Macc 14 44 (so AV and RVm). On the OT passages see OPEN PLACE. In 2 Macc the Gr word is κενεών, keneön, which may mean either "an open place," in general, or, specifically, "the hollow between the ribs and the hip," whence Ry "his side." Moffatt in Charles' Apoc translates "the open street."

VOLUME, vol'ûm: This word (from Lat volvere, "roll"), twice used in AV (Ps 40 7 [Heb m*ghillāh]; He 10 7), is better Englished as "roll" in RV. See ROLL.

VOLUNTARY, vol'un-tā-ri: For the sake of variety AV in Lev 7 16; Ezk 46 12 (bis) has rendered קּוֹבֶּהְ, nºdhābhāh, by "voluntary offering" instead of the usual "freewill offering" (so RV). The words "of his own voluntary will" in Lev 1 3 AV are a pure gloss, properly omitted in RV, as they represent nothing in the Heb. 1 Macc 2 42 has "voluntarily" as part of the tr of 2 42 has "voluntarily" as part of the tr of εκουσιάζω, hekousiázō, RV "willingly."

VOPHSI, vof'sī (לְּכְּלִי, wophṣī, meaning unknown): Father of Nahbi the Naphtalite spy (Nu 13 14); but the text is doubtful. LXX B has Γαβεί, Iabei, A F Luc., Ίαβι, Iabi.

VOW, vou (פֹרֶל, nedher; εὐχή, euché; פֹּלֶג, 'iṣṣār, found only in Nu 30 6.8.10 and trd ὁρισμός,

horismós, by LXX): A vow could be positive (nedher) and included all promises to perform certain things for, or bring certain offerings to, God, in return for certain benefits which were hoped for at His hand (Gen 28 20-22, Jacob; Lev 27 2.8; Nu 30; Jgs 11 30, Jephthah; 1 S 1 11, Hannah; 2 S 15 8, Absalom; Jon 1 16, vows of heathen); or negative ('is $s\bar{a}r$), and included promises by which a person bound himself or herself to abstain from certain things (Nu 30 3). Nowhere in the OT do we find the making of vows regarded as a religious duty (Dt 23 22), but the fulfilling of a vow was considered as a sacred and binding duty (Dt 23 21-23; Jgs 11 35; Eccl 5 4; cf Ps 22 25; 66 13; 76 11; 116 A vow was as binding as an oath (see OATH) and therefore to be kept to the letter; and it was not to be lightly made (Prov 20 25). A father could veto a daughter's vow, and a husband a wife's. If a husband did not veto a wife's vow, and then caused her to break it, the sin was his and not hers (Nu 30, passim). It seems that vows were considered binding only when actually uttered (Dt 23 23). Persons, including one's self, animals, land and other possessions, could be vowed, but all these could be redeemed with money (see Jeph-THAH), which money was to be estimated by the priest, except in the case of a clean animal. In the case of land, houses and unclean animals a fifth part of the estimated value was to be added to make up the redemption money. In the case of land the sum was greater or smaller as the coming year of Jubilee was far off or near (Lev 27, passim). Nothing which was by nature holy could be made the object of a vow, e.g. firstlings, tithes, etc (Lev 27 26.28.30); and, on the other hand, an abomination, e.g. the hire of a prostitute, could not be made the object of a vow (Dt 23 18). In Mal 1 14 the offering of what was of less value than what had been vowed is vigorously condemned.

In the NT Jesus refers to vows only to condemn the abuse of them (Mt 15 4-6; Mk 7 10-13; cf Talm, Nedhārīm, and see Corban). In Acts 18 18 (cf Acts 21 23.24) Paul desires to show his Jewish brethren that he is willing to keep the forms of Jewish piety so long as they do not clash with his Christian conscience (cf 1 Cor 9 21). For the vow

of the Nazirite, see Nazirite.

PAUL LEVERTOFF VOYAGE, voi'žj, AND SHIPWRECK, ship'rek, OF ST. PAUL. See PAUL THE APOSTLE; PHOENIX; and "Literature" to Ships and Boats.

VULGATE, vul'gåt:

I. NAME AND ITS HISTORY
1. Present Usage
2. Earlier Usage
3. Post-Hieronymic
4. Historical Importance of the Vulgate ORIGIN

ORIGIN
1. Corruption and Confusion of Old Versions
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4. Request of Pope Damasus
JEROME'S TRANSLATIONS AND REVISIONS: METHOD
1. The NT
Gospels or Whole NT?
2. OT from the LXX
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Subsequent Recensions and History of Vulgare GATE
1. In the MSS
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V. MSS OF VULGATE

VI. LATINITY

VII. USE OF VULGATE

VIII. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN VULGATE AND ENGLISH VERSIONS LITERATURE

I. Name and Its History.—The term "Vulgate" with us means but one thing—the standard authoritative Bible of the Lat or Rom church, prepared mostly by the labors of Jerome. But this is not 2. Earlier

the original use of the word and it was never so used by Jerome himself; indeed, it did not at first

refer to a Lat VS or tr at all. The word "Vulgate" comes from the adi or 1. Present comes from the adj. or Usage participle vulgata which usually accompanied editio, and meant at first current or regularly used text. It was originally used as the equivalent of κοινή εκδοσις, koinê êkdosis = the LXX.

Jerome and Augustine both use the

term in this sense. Jerome (Comm. in Isa 65 20), "Hoc juxta LXX inter-Usage pretes diximus, quorum editio toto orbe vulgata est" (and ib 30 22), vulgata editio again refers to the LXX. Elsewhere Jerome actually gives the Greek words (of the LXX) as found in editione vulgata (Comm. in Osee 7 13). Augustine editione vulgata (Comm. in Osee 7 13). Augustine identifies the expression with the LXX (De doctr. christ., xvi.10): "Secundum vulgatam editionem, hoc est interpretum Septuaginta." The term editio vulgata was next extended to the form in which the LXX was at first known to the West-the Old Lat VSS (see Latin; Latin Versions), although, as Westcott remarks, there does not appear to be any instance in the age of Jerome of the application of the term to the Lat VS of the OT without regard to its derivation from the LXX or to that of the NT, so that Jerome usually intended the LXX though he quoted it in Lat form. editio, having acquired the meaning of the current or ordinarily used text of LXX, was once again extended to mean a corrupt or uncorrected text as opposed to the standard emended LXX VS of Origen's Hexapla, and in this sense is used by Jerome as synonymous with antiqua or vetus editio.

Jerome as synonymous with antiqua or vetus editio.

Ep., cvi.2 deserves citing in this connection: "Admoneo aliam esse editionem quam Origenes et Caesariensis Eusebus omnesque Graeciae translatores κουήν [koindn], i.e. communem appellant atque vulgatam, et a plerisque λονκιανός, [Loukianόs] nunc dicitur: aliam LXX interpretum quae in 'Εξαπλοίς [Hexaplots] [i.e. of Origen] codicibus reperitur, et a nobis in Latinum sermonem fideliter versa ... κονή [koinθ] [communis editio] ... vetus corrupta editio est, ea antem quae habetur in 'Εξαπλοίς [Hexaplots] et quam nos vertimus, ipsa est quae in eruditorum libris incorrupta et immaculata LXX interpretum translatio reservatur." ("I recall that one is the text which Origen and Eusebius of Caesarea and all the Greek translators call the κοινή [koinθ], i.e. the common and current text, and is now called by most persons Lucian's [version]; the other is the text of the translators of the LXX which is found in the codices [or books] of Origen [or the Hexapla], and has been faithfully translated by us into the Latin language ... the koinē [the ordinary text] ... is the old corrupted text, but that which is found in the Hexapla, and which we are translating, is the same one which the version of the translators of the LXX has preserved unchanged and immaculate in the books of the scholars.")

It was only very slowly that Jerome's VS ac-

It was only very slowly that Jerome's VS acquired this name, the phrase editio vulgata being applied to the LXX or the Old Lat VSS of

3. Postthe LXX sometimes down to mediaeval Hieronymic times, while Jerome's tr was known as editio nostra, codices nostri, tr emendat-

ior, or tr quam tenet Rom ecclesia. The Tridentine Fathers were therefore guilty of an anachronism when they referred to Jerome's tr as vetus et vulgata editio. Roger Bacon was apparently the first, in the 13th cent., to apply the term Vulgata in our sense (not exclusively, but also to the LXX), and this usage became classic through its acceptance by the Tridentine Council ("vetus et vulgata editio"

The interest of the Vulg will be apparent when we reflect that this tr proved to be to the West what the LXX had been to the East, that

4. Historical it was prepared with great care by Importance the greatest scholar whom Lat Chris-of the tianity produced, that it was for Vulgate hundreds of years the only Bible in universal use in Europe, that it has given to us much of our modern theological terminology as well as being the sponsor for many Gr words which have enriched our conceptions. It

has also proved of primary importance as an early and excellent witness to the sacred text. Add to this that "directly or indirectly it is the real parent of all the vernacular VSS of Western Europe" except the Gothic of Ulfilas. For Eng.-speaking students it possesses peculiar interest as the source of the earlier tr's made by the Venerable Bede, and of the earlier tr⁸ made by the Venerable Bede, and portions of the OT were tr^d in the 10th cent. from the Vulg by Ælfric. Its greatest influence was exerted in the Eng. VS of Wycliffe—a literal tr from the Vulg (1383). And Coverdale's Bible (1535) was "faithfully and truly tr^d out of Dutch [i.e. German of Luther] and Latin." The Rheims and Douay VS was based on the Vulg, though "diligently conferred with the Heb and Gr." The Vulg exercised considerable influence upon Luther's Vulg exercised considerable influence upon Luther's VS and through it upon our AV.

II. Origin of the Vulgate.—Lat Christianity had

not been without a Bible in its own language."

Lat VSS are found in North Africa 1. Corrupas early as the middle of the 3d cent. as early as the middle of the od terms and are found in the texts of Cyprian and Tertullian. But these trs were characterized by "simplicity," "rudeness" and provincialism. There was tion and Confusion of Old Versions

not one standard authoritative VS with any ecclesiastical recognition. VSS were rather due to "individual and successive efforts." Augustine says that anyone who got hold of a Gr MS and thought he knew Gr and Lat would venture on a tr. These VSS originated in Africa and not from Rome, else they had been more authoritative. sides, the first two centuries of the Rom church were rather Gr; the earliest Christian literature of Rome is Gr, its bishops bear Gr names, its earliest liturgy was Gr. When the church of Italy became Lat-speaking—probably at the end of the 3d cent.
—the provincialisms of the African VS rendered it unfit for the more polished Romans, and so recensions were called for. Scholars now recognize a European type of Old Lat text. And Westcott thinks a North Italian recension (at least in the Gospels) was made in the 4th cent. and known as the Itala (see Latin), and which he recognizes in the Itala mentioned in Aug., De doctr. christ., xv, as "verborum tenacior cum perspicuitate sententiae"; but F. C. Burkitt (The Old Lat and the Itala, 54 ff) takes the Itala here as referring to Jerome's VS. Amid such confusion and the appearance of national or provincial recensions, the Lat church became conscious of the need of a standard ed. There were almost as many types of texts as there were MSS: "Tot exemplaria paene quot codices," says Jerome (Pref. to Gospels). Independent and unauthorized or anonymous tra—esp. of the NT—aided by the gross carelessness of scribes, made confusion worse con-founded. Augustine complains of this "Latinorum interpretum infinita varietas."

In addition to the inconvenience in preaching and the liturgical variations, a greater demand for an authoritative VS arose from the

2. Heresy continual watch of the early church against heretics. Confusion of text abetted heresy, and the absence of a standard text made it harder to refute it. Besides, the Jews, with one authoritative text, laughed at the confusion of the Christian Scriptures.

The inevitable separation of East and West, both politically and ecclesiastically, and the split between

Gr and Lat Christianity, rendered the
3. Inevitable Sepaexistence of a standard Lat text imperative. Christianity was felt to be ration of the religion of a book, and hence that book must be inspired and authoritative in every word—even in its order East and West of words.

Pope Damasus determined to remedy this state

Vulgate

of affairs, and with all the authority of the papal see commissioned Jerome to produce an authentic and standard authorized VS.

and standard authorized VS.

4. Request

of Damasus upon a more competent scholar—a man who had been providentially gifted and prepared for the task. Jerome—his Lat name was Eusebius Hieronymus—was born at Stridon on the borders of Dalmatia about 340, or a little later, of Christian parentage. He had the advantages of the best classical education and became a devoted student of the best Lat writers. In a dream he saw a vision of judgment, and on claiming to be a Christian he was rebuked: "Mentiris, Ciceronianus es, non Christianus." He began his theological studies in Gaul; but later sought the seclusion of ascetic life in the desert near Antioch. Here he studied Heb from a converted rabbi in order to subdue fierce passions by the difficulties of that language. About 375 or 376 began his correspondence with Damasus. In 382 he came to Rome, and became the intimate friend and adviser of Damasus. 4. Request

III. Jerome's Translations and Revisions: Method.—These fall into three main groups: (1) revision of the NT; (2) OT juxta LXX;
1. The NT (3) OT from Heb. The exact date of the pope's commission is not given: it was probably in 382—the year of Jerome's arrival

in Rome—or early in 383, in which year the Gospels appeared in revised form. Damasus asked simply for a revision of the Old Lat VSS by the help of the Gr rather than a new VS. Jerome collated Gr MSS, and carefully compared them with the "Italian" type of Old Lat texts; where possible the Old Lat was preserved. Thus Jerome approached the task with a conservative spirit. Still the result was a considerable departure from the Old Lat VS, the changes being (1) linguistic, removal of provincialisms and rudeness, (2) in interpretation, e.g. supersubstantialis for ἐπιούσιον, epicusion, in the Lord's Prayer, (3) the removal of interpolations, (4) the insertion of the Eusebian Canons.

The Gospels or the whole NT revised?—It is disputed whether Jerome revised the whole NT or only the Gospels.

against the revision of the whole NT the arguments briefly are: (1) That Augustine, writing 20 years after the appearance of the revised Gospels, speaks only of "Gospel": "Evangelium ex Graeco interpretatus est" (\$E_D., civ.6); but Augustine may here be speaking generally or applying "Gospel" to the whole NT. (2) Jerome in his preface apparently speaks of "only four Gospels" ("quattuor tantum evangelia"). (3) The rest of the NT does not show the same signs of revision as the Gospels. (4) The absence of the prefaces usual ("solita praefatione") to Jerome's revised VSS. On the other hand, to more than counterbalance these, (1) Damasus required a revision of the whole NT, not only of the Gospels (Pref. of Damasus). (2) In other statements of Jerome he expressly says he revised the NT (not Gospel or Gospels); in \$E_D., \textil 20, he seems to correct Augustine's evangelium by writing: "Si me, ut dicis, in Novi Testamenti emendatione suspicis," and in \$E_D., lxxi. 5, "It translated the NT according to the Gr' ("NT Graecae reddidi auctoritati"); cf also \$De Vir. Ill., cxxxv. (3) Jerome quotes passages outside the Gospels where his VS differed from the Old Lat VSS, e.g. Rom 12 11; 1 Tim 1 15; cf \$E_D., xxii. (4) Damasus died at the end of 384—perhaps before the rest of Jerome's revision was published, and so Jerome thought no further prefaces needed.

The more likely conclusion is that Jerome revised

The more likely conclusion is that Jerome revised the whole NT, though not all with equal care.

His revision was hasty and soon be-2. OT came more or less confused with the Juxta LXX Old Lat VSS to which the people clung as they do to all old VSS. Having probably completed the NT from the Gr. Jerome began immediately on the OT from the Confus began immediately on the OT from the Gr of the

(1) Roman Psalter.—He commenced with the Pss, which he simply emended only where imperatively required (cf preface), and cursorily (c 384). This revision is called the Rom Psalter (Psalterium Romanum), which continued in use in Rome and Italy till it was displaced under the pontificate of Pius V by the Gallican Psalter, though the Rom

Psalter is still used in St. Peter's, Rome, and in St. Mark's. Milan.

(2) Gallican Psalter.—This Psalter soon became so corrupted by the Old Lat VS that Jerome (c 387) undertook a second revision at the request of Paula and Eustochium. This became known as the Gallican Psalter because of its early popularity in Gaul. It was also made from the LXX, but with the aid of other Gr VSS. Jerome adopted in it the critical signs used by Origen—a passage inclosed between an obelus and two points being absent from the Heb but present in the LXX, that between an asterisk and two points being absent from the LXX but supplied from Theodotion (Preface to Pss).

(3) Rest of the OT.—About the same time Jerome published tr^s of other OT books from the LXX. Job was revised very soon after the Gallican Psalter. The preface to Prov, Eccl, Cant and Ch is extant to show he had revised these books. Job and Pss are the only books of this revision juxta LXX

It is again disputed whether Jerome completed the whole OT in this revision because (1) the usual prefaces are again lacking (except to the books already mentioned), and (2) in his prefaces to the revision from the Heb Jerome makes no reference to an earlier revision of his own; (3) the work implied was too great for the brief space possible and must have been done between 387 and 390 (or 391), for by this latter date he was already on the tr from the Heb. But Jerome was a phenomenal worker, as we learn that his tr of Proy, Eccl and Cant from the Heb was made in three days. And his commentary on Eph was written at the rate of 1,000 lines a day.

Jerome probably completed the whole, as we infer from his own direct positive statements. He speaks of "mea in libris canonicis interpretatio" (Ep., cxii. 19; see references in Westcott), and in the preface to the Books of Solomon after the LXX he states he did not correct Wisd and Ecclus, "desiring only to emend the canonical books" ("tantummodo canonicas scripturas vobis emendare desiderans"). Once again, he speaks of having carefully tr^d the LXX into Lat ($\operatorname{Con} \operatorname{Ruf}$., ii.24; cf Ep ., lxxi).

If the postscript to Ep ., cxxxiv, to Augustine is genuine, Jerome complains he had lost the most of

his former labors by fraud ("pleraque enim prioris laboris fraude cuiusdam 3. Translaamisimus"). And Augustine requests (Ep., xcvi.34) from Jerome his VSS from the LXX ("Nobis mittas, obtion of OT from Hebrew secro, interpretationem tuam de LXX

quam te edidisse nesciebam"). Having in the course of these labors discovered the unsatisfactory condition of the LXX text and his friends pleading the need of a tr direct from the Heb, Jerome began this huge task about 390 with S and K, which he published with the *Prologus galeatus* ("helmeted prologue"), next the Pss (c 392), Job and the Prophets (393), 1 and 2 Esd (c 394) (3 and 4 being omitted), Ch (396). Then followed a severe illness until 398, when "post longam aegrotationem" he trd Prov, Eccl and Cant. He then started on the Octateuch: "Octateucho quem nunc in manibus habeo" (Ep., lxxi.5), the Pent being first tr^d in 401, Josh, Jgs, Ruth and Est soon after (xl.4: "post sanctae Paulae dormitionem"). Tob and Jth were tr^d for him from Chaldee into Heb from which he then trd them into Lat (c 405), and shortly before or after these he added the apocryphal additions to Dnl and Est. Bar he passed over. Wisd and Ecclus were not revised by him. Whether he revised Macc is doubtful. Thus was completed in 15 strenuous years (390-405) a work which has proved a κτημα ές del, ktema es ael (Thuc. i.22), "a possession for all time." The tr was largely undertaken at the request of friends and at no papal request. Jerome did not pretend to be working for publicity; he actually asked one friend not to show his tr.

Reception.—But human nature rarely recognizes merit in its own generation, and the spirit of conservatism rose in rebellion against beneficial innovation. Jerome was accused of slighting the LXX, which even in the eyes of Augustine was equally inspired with the Heb original. Jerome's fiery temper and his biting tongue were not calculated to conciliate.

IV. Subsequent Recensions and History of the Vulgate.—By degrees the fierce opposition died down, and even by the time of Jerome's

1. In MSS death men were beginning to perceive the merits of his VS which Augustine used in the Gospels. Some parts of Jerome's Vulg won their way to popularity much sooner than others—the Old Lat VSS died hard and not without inflicting many a wound on the Vulg. His Psalter from the Heb never ousted the Gallican which still holds its place in the Vulg. Some scholars were able to appreciate Jerome's ed sooner than others. And it was at different dates that the different provinces and countries of the West adopted it. Pelagius used it in his comm. on the Pauline Epp. As might be expected, the Old Lat VSS retained their place longest in the place of their origin— North Africa. Britain proved the next most con-servative. The old VSS were never authoritatively deposed, and so Jerome's VS was compelled to win its way by its own merits. In the 5th cent.—esp. in Gaul—it continued to grow in popularity among scholars, being adopted by Vincent of Lérins, Eucherius of Lyons, Sedulius, and Claudianus Mamertus, and Prosper of Aquitaine. In the next century its use became almost universal except in Africa, where the Old Lat was retained by Junilius and Facundus. At the close of the 6th cent. Pope Gregory the Great acknowledges that the new (i.e. the Vulg) and the old are both equally used by the Apostolic See; and thus the Vulg was at least on equal footing with the old. In the 7th cent. the Old Lat retreats, but traces of it survive down into the Middle Ages, affecting and corrupting the Jerome VS. Mixed texts and conflated readings arose—the familiarity of the Old Lat in lectionaries and liturgies telling on the Vulg. The NT, being only a revision and not a fresh tr, and being most in use, degenerated most.

(1) As early as the 6th cent, the need of an emendated Vulg text was felt, and Cassidorius undertook to revise part of it. This was merely private enterprise and did little to stem the flood

of corruption.

(2) About the close of the 8th cent. Charlemagne commissioned an Englishman Alcuin, abbot of St. Martin, Tours, to produce a revised text on the basis of the best Lat MSS, without reference to the Gr text. Alcuin sent to York for his MSS and thus produced a text after British MSS. On Christmas Day, 801 AD, he presented the emperor with the emended text. The authority by which this text was prepared and its public use together with the class of MSS used did much to preserve a pure Vulg text and stay interpolations: "The best MSS of his recension do not differ widely from the pure Hieronymian text" (Westcott).

pure Hieronymian text" (Westcott).

(3) Another recension of about the same date—but a scholar's private enterprise—was produced by a Visigoth, Theodulf, bishop of Orleans. He made the Spanish family of MSS together with those of Southern France the basis of his text. His inscribing variant readings in the margin really helped the process of corruption. His text—though prepared at enormous labor—was far inferior to that of Alcuin and exerted little influence in face of the authoritative VS of Alcuin. MSS were rapidly multiplied in the 9th cent. on the Alcuinian model by the school of Tours, but with carelessness and haste which helped to a speedy degeneration of the text. Again the confusion called for remedy.

(4) In the 11th cent. Lanfranc, bishop of Canterbury (1069–89), attempted correction—apparently with little

success. About the middle of the 12th cent., Stephen Harding of Citeaux produced a revision—extant in MS in Dijon public library (no. 9), as did also Cardinal Nicolaus. The increased demand for Bibles in the 13th cent. gave opportunity for further corruption of the text—publishers and copyists being indifferent as to the character of MS chosen as a basis.

(5) In consequence of the fame of the University of Paris in the 13th cent. and the enormous activity in producing Bible MSS, there resulted a type of text called by Roger Bacon Exemplar Parisiense, for which he has

nothing good to say.

(6) In the same century steps were taken toward a standard text and to stay corruption by the drawing up of correctoria, i.e. books in which the readings of Gr and Lat MSS were weighed to decide a text, the authority of Fathers cited, etc. Some of the principal correctoria are: Correctorium Parisiense known also as Senonense—one of the worst, following the Parisian type of text; Correctorium Vaticanum, the best; Correctorium Sorbonicum, in the Sorbonne; Correctorium Dominicanum.

(1) Early editions.—Little more was done till the invention of printing, and the first products of the press were Lat Bibles.

tunately at first the current text was Printed accepted without any critical labors, Vulgate and so the earliest printed Vulgates only perpetuated an inferior text. Only a few from among some hundreds of early VSS can be noted:
(a) the Mazarin Bible—one of the most beautiful and valuable books in the world—printed at Mainz about the middle of the 15th cent. (1455, Westcott) by Gutenberg, Schöffer or Fust; (b) the first Bible published at Rome in 1471 by Sweynheym and Pannartz and reprinted in Nuremberg in 1475; (c) 1504 a Paris ed with variant readings; (d) an ed in Complutensian Polyglot (1514 ff) from ancient MSS and from the Gr; (e) practically the first critical ed, by Robertus Stephanus (1st ed 1528, 2d 1532, reprinted later), of interest as being practically the basis of the standard Rom Vulg; (f) Hentenian the basis of the standard Rom Vilig; (f) Hententan critical ed (Louvain, 1547). Attempts to produce a corrected text by aid of the original were made by Erasmus in 1516, Pagninus in 1518 ff, Cardinal Cajetan, Steuchius in 1529, Clarius in 1542, etc. Even new tr^a were made by both Roman Catholic and Protestant scholars. This bewildering number of VSS and the controversies of the 16th cent. called for a standard ed. The Council of Trent (1546) took up the matter and decreed that the "ipsa vetus et vulgata editio quae longo tot saeculorum usu in ipsa ecclesia probata" ("the same old and ordinarily used text which has been approved in the church itself by the long usage of so many centuries") should be regarded as authentic (authentica). By this they apparently meant the Jerome VS, but did not state in which MS or printed ed it was to be

(2) Sixtine edition (1590).—No further steps were taken for the present to secure a standard official Bible for the church—the private ed of John Hentenius of Louvain serving in the meanwhile until the pontificate of Sixtus V. This pope intrusted the work to a committee under Cardinal Caraffa, but he himself strenuously cooperated. MSS and printed edd were examined, but the original Gr or Heb was to be regarded as decisive in difficulties. The result was published as the Sixtine ed of the Vulg by the Vatican press in 1590 (see title on 1st and 2d pages). The text resembles the Stephanus ed of 1540. A new puzzling method of verse enumeration was introduced. As one would expect, there was prefixed to the ed a Bull Aeternus ille, etc, in which the divines gave themselves credit for their painstaking labors, and the result was declared the authorized Vulg of the Tridentine Council, "pro vera, legitima, authentica tindubitate in compiliar publicia privational directional divines and the second et indubitata, in omnibus publicis privatisque dis-putationibus . . ." ("by virtue of truth, usage, authenticity and certainty, in all public and private disputes"). Errors of printing were corrected by

the pen or by pasting a slip of paper with the correction over the error. This ed was not to be re-printed for 10 years except at the Vatican, and after that any ed must be compared with the Vatican ed, so that "not even the smallest particle should be altered, added or removed" under pain of the "greater excommunication." Sixtus died the same year, and the Jesuit Bellarmine persuaded Clement VIII to recall the Sixtine ed and prepare another standard Vulg in 1592.

(3) Clementine edition (1592).—In the same year appeared the Clementine ed with a preface by Bellarmine asserting that Sixtus had himself determined to recall his ed on account of printers' errors (from which it was remarkably free). The pains and The pains and penalties of the Sixtine Bull were evaded by printing the book as a Sixtine ed, actually printing the name of Sixtus instead of Clement on the title-page: Biblia Sacra Vulgatae Editionis Sixti Quinti Pont. Max. iussu recognita atque edita. The awkward system of verse enumeration of the Sixtine was The text itself was rather of the Hentendropped. No future ed was to be printed except on the exact pattern, "even to the smallest particle" of the Vatican ed. Thanks largely to the papal Bull this Clementine ed of 1592 still remains the official VS of the Roman Catholic church. A second ed appeared in 1593, and a third in 1598. Roman Catholic scholars were discouraged from undertaking a new VS, and Protestant scholars were, until recently, too occupied with the original

Bentley's projected ed of the NT never appeared. Under cover of the works of Jerome a corrected text was published by Vallarsi, 1734—really the completion and revision of the ed of Martianay of Little more was done in the way of critical edd till the latter half of the 19th cent.

(4) Modern critical editions.—In 1861 Vercellone reprinted the Clementine Vulg (with an excellent preface), the names of Sixtus and Clement both appearing on the title-page. In 1906 an ed-Bib Sac Vulgatas ed by Hetzenauer—was published at (The majority of recent edd have been confined to the NT or part of it: Tischendorf, Nov. Test. Lat.: textum Hieronymi . . . restituit, Leipzig, 1864; Hetzenauer, Nov. Test. Vulg. ed.: ex Vat. edd. earumque correctorio critice edidit P. M. H., Oeniponte, 1899.) The Oxford Vulg, prepared by Bishop J. Wordsworth and H. J. White, of which the first part was issued in 1890 in a comment. Hishop J. Wordsworth and H. J. White, of which the first part was issued in 1889, is a comprehensive work of great value. P. Corssen published the first instalment of a Vulg NT (*Ep. ad Gal*, Berlin, 1885). This is exclusive of the printed edd of several important MSS. Pope Pius X intrusted the preparation of a revised ed of the Vulg to the Benedictine order—but as yet nothing

V. MSS of the Vulgate.—To give a satisfactory list would be impossible within our space limits. The number is legion—estimated at about 8,000. As yet the same order has not been called out of the chaos of Vulg and Old Lat MSS in the manner in which Westcott and Hort have reduced the Gr MSS of the NT to a system. The student may conveniently approach the subject in White's list in the 4th ed of Scrivener. A Plain Intro to the Criticism of the NT, II, 67 ff., or the longer one by Gregory in Tischendort's NT Gr, 8th ed, III, 983 ff, also in Westcott's art. in DB or White's in HDB; Vercellone, Variae Lectiones, 1860; Berger, Histoire de la Vulgate, 374 ff.

VI. Latinity.—Space permits only a few general remarks. The Lat of the old VSS was simple, rude and vernacular, abounding in literalisms and provincialisms. In many ways, in vocabulary, diction and construction, it offended scholars. As was natural Jerome smoothed the roughness of the old VSS and removed the most glaring solecisms and offensive provincialisms. His work is a master-piece—like our AV—in the harmonious blend of

simple, popular, forceful language and a scholarly graceful tr. "As a monument of ancient linguistic power the tr of the OT stands unrivaled and unique" power the tr of the OT stands unrivaled and unique" (Westcott). The Vulg has enriched our language by introducing many Gr words, "apostle," "evangel," "synagogue," "baptism," etc. It has also given us much of our theological vocabulary, "edification," "justification," "propitiation," "regeneration," "Scripture," etc. It still retains many marks of its birth in (1) Old Lat words elevated from the vernacular, (2) Africanisms: clarifico, etc, according for manday, long compound who like absaeculum for mundus, long compound vbs. like obtenebrare, etc, (3) Graecisms, like the use of the pronoun for the art, as hic mundus = δ κόσμος, ho kósmos, (4) Hebraisms, like adposuit ut apprehenderet et Petrum (Acts 12 3; see special works mentioned in 'Literature").

VII. Use of the Vulgate.—In the OT the Vulg is not of much importance for the criticism of the Heb text, because of the freedom which Jerome permitted himself in tr, and because our present Massoretic Heb text had by that time taken on its present form. But on the LXX it often throws a very useful light. In the NT Jerome's VS ranks practically in importance with our oldest and best Gr MSS in establishing (in conjunction with the Old Lat VSS) the received Gr text of the 4th cent., both by way of supplementing and correcting our Gr authorities. It is in the Gospels that Jerome's work is most thorough and useful. His VS also supplies many a hint for the interpretation of our Gr text.

thorough and useful. His VS also supplies many a hint for the interpretation of our Gr text.

VIII. Differences between Vulgate and Our English Version.—Apart from differences of rendering and minor points, the Vulg text differs from the Eng. in the order of the books, in the amount contained in some of them, in the occasional divergence of chapter and verse enumeration. The NT is practically the same in the Clementine text, though the order of books varies in many MSS—the Catholic Epp, being placed sometimes after Acts. In some MSS the Ep. to the Laodiceans is found. Most variety obtains in the OT. The sequence of canonical books is the same, but the apocryphal books are interspersed among them and not placed at the end. Tob and Jth are inserted between Neh (2 Esd) and Est, Wisd and Ectus between Cant and Isa. Bar follows Lam, ch 5 of which is called the "Prayer of Jeremiah the prophet": 1 and 2 Macc are placed after Mal; 3 and 4 Esd and Pr Man appear as an appendix after the NT. In Pss the divergence is considerable, the Vulg—like the Heb—counting the title as the first verse. Pss 9, 10 of our VS=Ps 9 in Vulg, so that the Vulg is one Ps behind the Eng. till Ps 114, then Pss 114, 115 again form one Ps=Vulg 113. The Vulg is now two behind. Matters are equalized by Ps 116 being divided into two in the Vulg (=114, 115), and 147 again=two Vulg Pss 146, 147. Thus only Pss 1-8 and 148-150 run the same. Against Jerome's advice the apocryphal parts of Dnl and Est were accepted as integral parts of those books, the Three being inserted at Dnl 3 23, Sus forming ch 13 and Bel ch 14. Ad Est is linked on to the end of Est. In conclusion, the present Vulg, as Westcott remarks, is a composite of elements belonging to every period and form of the Lat VS, including (1) unrevised Old Lat tremature.—This is too vast to cite, but in some of the following works sufficient bibliographies will be found: Berger, Hist de la Vulg pendant les premiers vicles du moyen age, 1893; H. Hody, De bib. textibus originalibus, 1705; F. Kaulen, Ge

VULTURE, vul'tūr (ΤΝ), dā'āh; LXX γύψ, gúps, and ἴκτινος, iktinos; Lat Vulturidae): Any member of a family of large birds that subsist wholly or in part on carrion. The largest vulture of Pal was the Lammer-geier. This bird waited until smaller vultures, eagles and hawks stripped a carcase to the bone, then carried the skeleton aloft and dashed it on the rocks until the marrow could be secured. This was a favorite delicacy. This bird was fond of tortoise also, and is said to have dropped the one that struck the bald head of Aeschylus, which the bird mistook for a stone, so causing the death of the poet. Several smaller species, including "Pharaoh's chickens," flocked all over Pal. These were protected by a death penalty for their value as scavengers in cities. They fed on carcases of animals that killed each other, ate putrid fish under the nests of pelican and cormorant, followed caravans across the desert, and were ready for offal thrown from animals dressed for feasting. They flocked over the altars for the entrails from sacrifice, and devoured scraps cast aside by tent-dwellers

and residents of cities. They paired with affectionate courting and nested in crevices, in walls, hollow trees and on cliffs. They raised only one pair of young to the season, as the nestlings were over two months old before they took wing. The young were white at first, then black feathers enveloped them. On account of their steady diet of carrion, no one ever has been able to use their flesh for food, although some daring ornithologists have tried. For this reason the vulture was placed among the abominations and should by right have headed the lists (Lev 11 18; Dt 14 13). The other references that used to be trd "vulture" in AV (LXX ξλαφος, εlaphos, Vulg correctly milous) are changed to "falcon" and "kite." Isa 34 15 changes "vulture" to "falcon." Gene Stratton-Porter

W

WAFER, wā'fēr. See Bread.

WAGES, wā'jez, wā'jiz (תַּנֶּם, hinnām, מַשְּׁכֶּרָת, maskōreth, אָלֶּכְּר , pe'ullāh, רְטַיָּט , sākhar, יַטְּטָר , sākhār; μισθός, misthós, οψώνιον, opsônion): (1) Hinnām means "gratis," without cost or any advantage, for nought, or in vain; wages in the sense of reasonable return. Jeremiah pronounces woe upon him who "useth his neighbor's service without wages, and giveth him not his hire" (Jer 22 13; the only place where the word is used). (2) Maskō-reth means "reward" or "wages." Laban said to Jacob: "Shouldest thou therefore serve me for nought? tell me, what shall thy wages be?" (Gen 29 15) Leob said corporating Labor. 15). Jacob said, concerning Laban, speaking to Rachel and Leah: "Your father hath deceived me, and changed my wages ten times" (Gen 31 7; cf ver 41). (3) Polullah generally means "work," "labor," "reward," "wages." The old Levitical Law was insistent on honesty in wages and on promptness in payments: "The wages of a hired servant hess in payments: "The wages of a fired servant shall not abide with thee all night until the morning" (Lev 19 13). (4) Mistakkēr means "earning," "hire," "reward," "wages," from root sākhar, meaning "to hire," and has in it the idea of temporary purchase: "He that earneth wages earneth wages to put it into a bag with holes" (Hag 1 6). (5) Sākhār means "payment of contract," in the material way of salary, maintenance fare and so comrial way of salary, maintenance, fare, and so compensation, reward, price, benefit, wages—seemingly wages received after an understanding as to time, manner and amount of payment. Laban (employer) said to Jacob (employee): "Appoint me thy wages, and I will give it" (Gen 30 28); "If he said thus, The speckled shall be thy wages" (Gen 31 8); Pharaoh's daughter said to Moses' mother: "Take this child away, and nurse it for me, and I will give thee thy wages" (Ex 2 9); Nebuchadrezzar and his army served against Tyre, "yet had he no wages, nor his army" (Ezk 29 18), and the prey of Egypt "shall be the wages for his army" (ver 19); swift and sure judgment is predicted against "those that oppress the hireling in his wages, the widow, and the fatherless" (Mal 3 5). (6) Misthos means either in a literal or figurative sense "pay for service," either primitive or beneficial, and so reward, hire, wages. In Jn 4 36 Jesus said, "He that reapeth receiveth wages, and gathereth fruit unto life ternal." 2 Pet 2 15 has changed "wages" (AV) to "hire," reading "who loved the hire of wrongdoing." (7) Opsōnion, meaning primarily "rations for soldiers" (opson being the word for cooked meat) and so "pay" or stipend, provision wages. In Lk 3 14 John said to the soldiers, "Be content with

your wages"; "The wages of sin is death" (Rom 6 23); Paul said: "I robbed other churches, taking wages of them" (2 Cor 11 8); the same word in 1 Cor 9 7 is trd "charges."

The Bible refers to wages actual and wages figurative. Of actual wages there are three kinds: (1) money wages, (2) provision (usually food) wages, and (3) what may be called "exchange" wages, wages in kind, sometimes "human-kind," e.g. Jacob's wages from Laban. Often laborers and soldiers received both money and "keep" wages. The laborer in NT times received about 15 cents per day (the "shilling" of Mt 20 2), besides in some cases his provisions. The old Law required daily payment, honesty in dealing, also sufficient food for the laborer.

laborer.

It is practically impossible to test "Bible" wages by any of the theories of modern economists. In this connection, however, mere mention of the six principal theories may be of interest. Concisely put they are: (1) wage-fund, (2) standard-of-living, (3) German-socialistic, (4) production, (5) Henry George's, and (6) the laborer's-value theories. The incidents in the OT of Jacob and in the NT of Mt 20 both show that the laborer was at the caprice of the employer. Therefore we may designate the Bible law of wages as the "employer's theory."

WILLIAM EDWARD RAFFETY

WILLIAM EDWARD RAFFETY WAGON, WAGGON, wag'un. See Cart.

WAIL, wāl, WAILING, wāl'ing. See Burial, III, 2; IV, 4, 5, 6.

WAIT, wāt: The word is used in the OT both as a substantive and as a vb. In the NT it appears as a vb. only. בְּצְרָב, 'erebh, בְּצְרָב, 1. The Sub- ma'ārābh, mean a concealed hidingstantive place for purposes of sudden attack, an ambuscade. (1) "Lie in wait": "Abimelech rose up . . . from lying in wait": (Jgs 9 35 AV); "When they abide in the covert to lie in wait" (Job 38 40). (2) "Lay wait": "They compassed him in, and laid wait for him" (Jgs 16 2).

him" (Jgs 16 2).

(1) מולי, shārath, "to serve," "to minister," to act in the capacity of servant or attendant: "These waited on the king" (2 Ch 17 19).

2. The Verb Used esp. in this sense with regard to the ceremonial service of the host: "They shall go in to wait upon the service in the work of the tent of meeting" (Nu 8 24; cf ver 25); "The Levites wait upon their business" (2 Ch 13 10 AV). "Wait at" occurs in the same sense in the NT: "They which wait at [RV "wait upon"] the altar," etc (1 Cor 9 13 AV). (2) The simple vb. is used to describe the longsuffering and patience of God toward His wilful people: "And therefore will Jeh wait, that he may be gracious unto you" (Isa 30 18); "When the longsuffering of God waited in the days of Noah" (ἀπεκδέχομαι,

apekdéchomai, 1 Pet 3 20). (3) The most important and frequent use of the word "wait." however. is to define the attitude of a soul God-ward. It implies the listening ear, a heart responsive to the wooing of God, a concentration of the spiritual faculties upon heavenly things, the patience of faith, "the earnest expectation of the creation" (Rom 8 19). It describes an eager anticipation and yearning for the revelation of truth and love as it is in the Father. Thus: "My soul, wait thou for God only" (Ps 62 5); "Our soul hath waited for Jeh" (Ps 33 20); "Mine eyes fail while I wait for my God" (Ps 69 3); "Wait for Jeh, and he will save thee" (Prov 20 22).

and he will save thee" (Prov 20 22).

Also the NT thus: "Waiting for our adoption, to wit, the redemption of our body" (Rom 8 23); "For we through the Spirit by faith wait for the hope of righteousness" (Gal 5 5). From various references in the NT there seems to have been in the days of Jesus a sect in whose name the word "wait" played an important part. Of the aged Simeon, who met Mary and Joseph when they brought the infant Jesus to the temple, it is said that he was "waiting for [RV "looking for"] the consolation of Israel" (Lk 2 25), that is, he was looking for the fulfilment of the Messianic promise. Again, after Our Lord's crucifixion, when Joseph of Arimathaea begged for the body of Jesus, we are told that he was one of those that "waited for the kingdom of Cod" (πρωσεξιομαί, prosdeξehmai, Mk 15 43 AV; Lk 23 51 AV). It is thought by some authorities that this implies their having belonged to the sect of the Essenes. Epiphanius associates the sect with one which he names "Gortheni," whose title is derived from a word which means "to expect."

ARTHUR WALWYN EVANS WALK, wôk (περιπατεῖν, peripatein): Aside from

its frequent occurrence in the usual sense, the word "walk" is used figuratively of conduct and of spiritual states. (1) Observance of laws or customs: "Thou teachest all the Jews who are among the Gentiles to forsake Moses, telling them not to circumcise their children, neither to walk after the customs" (Acts 21 21). (2) Of the spiritual life: "If we walk in the light, as he is in the light" (1 Jn 1 7); "That like as Christ was raised from the dead through the glory of the Father, so we also might walk in newness of life" (Rom 6 4); "Walk by the Spirit, and ye shall not fulfil the lust of the flesh" (Gal 5 16); "For we walk by faith, not by sight" RUSSELL BENJAMIN MILLER (2 Cor 5 7).

WALL, wôl. See Architecture; City; For-TIFICATION; HOUSE; JERUSALEM; VILLAGE.

WALLET, wol'et, -it. See Scrip.

WANDERING, won'dering, STARS. See As-TRONOMY.

WANDERINGS, won'der-ingz, OF ISRAEL:

Conditions
1. The Wilderness
2. Four Separate Regions Included
3. "The Sandy Tract"
4. Description of the Arabah
5. Physical Condition of the Wilderness
6. Difficulties Regarding the Numbers of Israel and Account of Tabernacle
7. Difficulty as to Number of Wagons
8. Fauna of the Desert
9. Characteristic Names of the Districts
FIRST JOURNEY

FIRST JOURNEY

1. Mode of Traveling

2. The Route: the First Camp

3. Waters of Marah

4. Camp by the Red Sea

5. The Route to Sinai

5. The Route to Sinal
SECOND JOURNEY
1. The Stay at Sinai
2. Site of Kadesh-barnea
3. The Route: Hazeroth to Moseroth
4. The Camps between Hazeroth and Moseroth
THE THIRTY-EIGHT YEARS
1. The History
2. The Camps Visited

V. THE FINAL JOURNEY

The Route
The Five Stations to the Border of Moab
From Iyim to Arnon
The Message to Sihon

From the Arnon to Shittim

I. Conditions.—A consideration of the geography and natural features of the desert between Egypt and Edom, in which the Hebrews are

1. The said to have wandered for 40 years, Wilderness has a very important bearing on the question of the genuineness of the

Pent narrative. This wilderness forms a wedge between the Gulfs of Suez and 'Akabah, tapering



Wilderness of Judaea.

S. to the granite mountains near Sinai. It has a base 175 miles long E. and W. on the N., and the distance N. and S. is 250 miles. The area is thus over 20,000 square miles, or double the size of the Promised Land E. and W. of Jordan. On the N. of this desert lie the plains of Gaza and Gerar, and the Neghebh or "dry region" (the south; see Nu 13 T. N. in this little results and the Neghebh or "dry region"). 17 RV), including the plateau and low hills round Beersheba.

There are four separate regions included in the area, the largest part (13,000 square miles) being

2. Four Separate Regions Included

a plateau which on the S. rises 3,000 to 4,000 ft. above the sea, and shelves gently toward the Phili plains. It is drained into the broad Wady el-'Arish, named from el-'Arish ("the booth"), a station on the Mediter-

ranean coast S. of Gaza, where this valley enters the sea. In this direction several prominent mountains occur (Jebel Yelek, J. Hilâl, and J. Ikhrimm), while further E.—near the site of the Western Kadesh—there is a step on the plateau culminating on the S. in Jebel el-Mukhrah; but none of these ranges appears to be more than about 4,000 ft. above the sea. The plateau is known as Badiet et-Tih ("the pathless waste"), and though some Arab geographers of the Middle Ages speak of it as the desert "of the wandering of the Beni Isrâil," they refer to the whole region as far as 'Akabah, and not to the plateau alone. The elevation on the S. forms a very steep ascent or "wall" (see Shur), bending round on the W. and E., and rising above the shore plains near Suez and the 'Arabah near Edom. Near the center of the plateau is the small fort of Nakhl ("the palms"), where water is found; but, as a whole, the Tîh is waterless, having very few springs, the most important being those near the western Kadesh ('Ain Kadîs); for Rehoboth belongs to the region of the Negheth rather than to the Th. In winter, when very heavy rains occur and not to the plateau alone. The elevation on the the Tih. In winter, when very heavy rains occur, the valleys are often flooded suddenly by a seil, or "torrent," which is sometimes 10 ft. deep for a few hours. Such a seil has been known to sweep away trees, flocks, and human beings; yet, in consequence of the hard rocky surface, the flood rushes away to

the sea and soon becomes a mere rivulet. Where soft soil is found, in the valleys, grass will grow and afford pasture, but even early in spring the Arabs begin to suffer from want of water, which only remains in pits and in water holes among rocks. They have then much difficulty in watering their

Below the Tih escarpment on the S. is another region called Debbet er-ramleh ("the sandy tract").

which is only 20 miles across at its 3. "The widest; and to the W. are the sandy plains, with limestone foothills, stretching E. of the Bitter Lakes and Sandy Tract" of the Gulf of Suez. The third region consists of the granite chain (see Sinai) which rises to 8,550 ft. above the sea, and some 6,000 ft. above its valleys, near Jebel Masa. Parts of this region are better watered than is any part of the Tih, and the main route from Egypt to Edom has consequently always run through it.

consequently always run through it.

The fourth region is that of the 'Arabah, or broad valley (10 miles wide) between the Gulf of 'Akabah and the Dead Sea. It has a watershed some 4. Description of the heighborhood of Petra); and N. of this shed the water flows to the Dead Sea 1,292 ft. below the Mediterranean. The total length of this valley is 120 miles, the watershed being (near the Edomite chain) about 45 miles N. of 'Akabah. The head of the Gulf was once farther N.; and, near 'Ain Ghudian (probably Eziongeber) and 'Ain et-Tabah (probably Jotath), there is a mud flat which becomes a lake in winter—about 20 miles from the sea. Lower down—at 'Ain ed Deffight—there is another such flat, the head being 10 miles from 'Akabah. The whole region is much better watered than either of the three preceding districts, having springs at the foot of the mountains on either side; and the 'Arabah is thus the best pastoral country within the limits described. It now supports a nomad population of about 2,000 or 3,000 souls (Haiwatta and 'Alawin Arabs), while the region round Sinal has some 2,000 souls (Towārah Arabs): the whole of the Tih has probably not more than 5,000 inhabitants; for the stronger tribes ('Azdzimeh and Terabin) live chiefly between Gaza and Beersheba. These Arabs have goats, sheep and camels, but cattle are only found near Beersheba. The flocks are watered daily—as in Pal generally—and are sometimes driven 20 miles in winter to find pasture and water. The water is also brought on donkeys and camels to the camps, and carried in goatskin bags on a journey through waterless districts. See also Arabah.

There is no reason to think that the conditions at the time of the Exodus differed materially from

those of the present time. The Arabs 5. Physical have cut down a good many acacia trees for firewood in recent times, but Condition of the the population is too small materially Wilderness to affect the vegetation. The annual rainfall—except in years of drought—is

from 10 to 20 in., and snow falls in winter on the Tth, and whitens Sinai and the Edomite mountains for many days. The acacia, tamarisk and palm grow in the valleys. At Wady Feiran there are said to be 5,000 date palms, and they occur also in the 'Arabah' and the Edomite gorges, while the white broom (1 K 19 5, AV "juniper") grows on the Tih This Tîh plateau is the bed of an ancient ocean which once surrounded the granite mountains of Sinai. It was upheaved probably in the Miocene age, long before man appeared on earth. The surface formation (Hull, Memoir on the Geology and Geography of Arabia-Petraea, etc, 1886) consists of Cretaceous limestones of the Eocene and Chalk ages, beneath which lies the Nubian sandstone of the Greensand period, which is also visible all along the route from Sinai to 'Akabah, and on the east side of the Dead Sea, and even at the foot of the Gilead plateau. These beds are all visible in the Tîh escarpment; and N. of Sinai there are yet older formations of limestone, and the "desert sandstone" of the Carboniferous period. Since the conditions of natural water-supply depend entirely on geological formation and on rainfall, neither of which can be re-

garded as having changed since the time of Moses, the scientific conclusion is that the desert thus described represents that of his age. This, as we shall see, affects our conclusion as to the route followed by Israel from Egypt to the 'Arabah; for, on the direct route from Suez to Nakhl (about 70 miles), there is no water for the main part of the way, so it has to be carried on camels; while, E. of Nakhi, in a distance of 80 miles, there is only one known supply in a well (Bir eth-Themed) a few miles S. of the road. This route was thus practically impassable for the Hebrews and their beasts, whereas the Sinai route was passable. Thus when Wellhausen (*Hist of Israel and Judah*, 343) speaks of Israel as going straight to Kadesh, and not making a "digression to Sinai," he seems not to have considered the topography as described by many modern travelers. For not only was the whole object of their journey first to visit the "Mount of God," but it also lay on the most practicable route to Kadesh.

nrst to visit the "Mount of God," but it also lay on the most practicable route to Kadesh.

It is true that there are certain difficulties as regards both the numbers of Israel and the account of the tabernacle. The first of these objections has been considered elsewhere (see Exors). The detailed account of the tabernacle (Ex 25-28; 36-39) belongs to a part of the Pent which many critical writers assign to a later date than that of the old narrative and laws (Ex 1-24). The description may seem more applicable to the semi-permanent structure that existed at Shiloh and Nob, than to the original "tent of meeting" in the desert. On the other hand, living so long in civilized Egypt, the Hebrews no doubt had among them skilled artificers like Bezalel. The Egyptians used acada wood for furniture; and though the desert acada does not grow to the size which would furnish planks 1½ cubits broad, it may be that these were made up by joiner's work such as the ancients were able to execute. There was plenty of gold in Egypt and Asia, but none near Sinai. It is suggested, however, that the ornaments of which the Hebrews spoiled the Egyptians were presented, like the stuffs (Ex 36 6) wrought for the curtains—just as the Arabs weave stuffs for their tents—and they might have served to spread a thin layer of gold over acadia boards, and on the acadia altar. It is more difficult to understand (on our present information) where sliver enough for the bases (Ex 26 25) would be found. Copper (27 4) presents less difficulty, since there were copper mines in Wady Nusb near Serabit at Khādim. The women gave gold earrings to Aaron (32 3) for the Golden Calf, but this may have been a small object. Eusebius (Onom), referring to Dizahab, "the place of gold" (Dt 1 1), now Dhahab ("gold") on the west shore of the Gulf of 'Akabah, E. of Sinai, mentions the copper mines of Punon, and thought that veins of gold might also have existed in the mountains of Edom in old times. A little gold is also found in Midian. We know that the Egyptians and As

Another difficulty is to understand how six ox wagons (Nu 7 3) sufficed to carry all the heavy planks and curtains, and vessels of the 7. Difficulty tabernacle; and though the use of ox as to Num-carts, and of four-wheeled wagons ber of also, is known to have been ancient Wagons in Asia, there are points on even the easiest route which it would seem impossible for wagons to pass, esp. on the rough road through Edom and Moab. On the other hand, we know that an Egyp Mohar did drive his chariot over the mountains in Pal in the reign of Rameses II, though it was finally broken near Joppa.

Whatever be thought as to these questions, there are indications in other passages of actual acquaintance with the desert fauna. Although

8. Fauna of the manna, as described (Ex 16 31), the Desert is said not to resemble the sweet gum which exudes from the twigs of the tamarisk (to which it has been compared by some), which melts in the sun, and is regarded as a delicacy by the Arabs, yet the quail (Ex 16 13; Nu 11 31) still migrate from the sea northward across the desert in spring, flying low by night. The birds noticed (Lev 11; Dt 14) include—as Canon Tristram remarked—species found on the seashores and in the wilderness, such as the cormorant, pelican and gull; the ostrich (in the desert E. of Moab); the stork, the crane and the heron which migrate from Africa to the Jordan valley. It is notable that, excepting the heron (Assyr anpatu), the Heb names are not those used by later Assyrians. The mammals include the boar which loves the marshes, and the hyrax (AV "coney") which still exists near Sinai and in the desert of Judah, with the desert hare. It is remarkable that in Dt (14 5), besides the ibex and the bubak, two species are added (the fallow deer, Heb 'ayyāl, AV "hart," and the roebuck, Heb yaḥmūr, Arab. yaḥmūr, AV "fallow deer") which are not desert animals. The former occurs at Tabor; the latter was found by the present writer in 1873 on Carmel, and is since known in Gilead and Lebanon. But Dt refers to conditions subsequent to the capture of Gilead and Bashan.

The various districts in the desert receive characteristic names in the account of the Exodus.

Thus Shur is the coast region under the

9. Charac'wall' of the Tih, and Sin (Ex 17 1;
teristic Nu 33 11) was the "glaring" desert
Names of (see Sinai) of white chalk, W. of Sinai.
the Districts Paran is noticed 10 t, as a desert and

between Sinai and Kadesh. The name seems to survive in Wâdy Feirân W. of Sinai. It means some kind of "burrows," whether referring to mines, caves or water pits, according to the usual explanation; but in Arab. the root also means "hot," which is perhaps more likely. The term seems to be of very wide extension, and to refer to the Tîh generally (Gen 21 21); for David (1 S 25 1) in Paran was not far from Maon and Carmel S. of Hebron, and the same general application (1 K 11 18) is suggested in another passage. Finally the desert of Zin (cin) is noticed 9 t, and very clearly lay close to Kadesh-barnea and E. of Paran (Nu 13 21; 20 1; 34 3; Dt 32 51; Josh 15 3). The rabbis rendered it "palm" (cīn), which is appropriate to the 'Arabah valley which still retains the old name mentioned in Dt 1 1. These various considerations as to the conditions to be fulfilled may serve to show that the difficulties often raised, as to the historic character of the Exodus narrative, have been much overstated; and a further study of the various journeys serves to confirm this view.

view.

II. First Journey.—Israel left Egypt in the early part of April (after the 14th of Abib) and reached Sinai about the 14th or 19th of the

1. Mode of 3d month (Ex 19 1), or at the end of Traveling

May. They thus took two months to accomplish a journey of about 117

Traveling

May. They thus took two months to accomplish a journey of about 117 miles; but from the first camp after crossing the Red Sea to that in the plain before the Mount ten marches are mentioned, giving intervals of less than 12 miles between each camp. Thus they evidently remained in camp for at least 50 days of the time, probably at the better supplied springs, including that of the starting-point, and those at Elim and Rephidim, in order to rest their flocks. The camps were probably not all crowded round one spring, but spread over a distance of some miles. The Arabs indeed do not camp or keep their flocks close to the waters, probably in order not to defile them, but send the women with donkeys to fetch water, and drive the sheep and goats to the spring or well in the cool of the afternoon. Thus we read that Amalek "smote the hindmost" (Dt 25 18), which may either mean the stragglers unable to

keep up when "weary," or perhaps those in the camp most in the rear.

The route of Israel has been very carefully described by Robinson (*BR*, 1838, I, 60–172; II, 95–195), and his account is mainly follow-

2. The ed in this and the next sections. We Route: the may place the first camp (see Exodus), First Camp between the springs which supply between the springs which supply between the springs which supply the control of the control

First Camp between the springs which supply Suez ('Ain Nab'a and 'Ayyan Masa), which are about 4 miles apart. The first of these is scooped out among the sand hillocks, and bubbles up in a basin some 6 ft. deep. The water is brackish, but supplies as many as 200 camel loads at once for Suez. At 'Ayyan Masa ("the springs of Moses") there are seven springs, some being small and scooped in the sand. A few palms occur near the water (which is also brackish), and a little barley is grown, while in recent times gardens of pomegranates have been cultivated (A. E. Haynes, Man-Hunting in the Desert, 1894, 106), which, with the palms, give a grateful shade.

From this base Israel marched "three days in the wilderness" of Shur, "and found no water" (Ex 15 22). They no doubt carried it with

3. The them, and may have sent back camels to fetch it. Even when they reached the waters of Marah ("the bitter") they found them undrinkable till sweetened. The site of Marah seems clearly to have been at 'Ain Hawûrah ("the white chalk spring"), named from the chalky mound beside it. This is 36 miles from 'Ayyûn Mûsa, giving an average daily march of 12 miles. There is no water on the route, though some might have been fetched from 'Ain Abu Jerûd in Wûdy Sudr, and from the small spring of Abu Suweirah near the sea. Burckhardt thought that the water was sweetened from the berries of the Gharkad shrub (which have an acid juice) on the thorny bushes near the spring. This red berry ripens, however, in June. There is no doubt, on the other hand, that the best treatment for brack water is the addition of an acid taste. The Arabs consider the waters of this spring to be the most bitter in the country near.

From Marah, the next march led to Elim ("the palms"), where were "twelve springs [not "wells"]

of water and seventy palms." The

palms"), where were "twelve springs [not "wells"] of water and seventy palms." The site seems clearly to have been in Camp by Wâdy Gharandil, where a brook is the Red Sea found fed by springs of better water than that of Marah. The distance is only about 6 miles, or an easy march, and palm trees exist near the waters. Israel then entered the desert of Sin, stretching from Elim to Sinai, reaching a camp "by the Red Sea" (Nu 33 10) just a month after leaving Egypt (Ex 16 1). The probable site is near the mouth of Wady et-Taiyibeh ("the goodly valley"), which is some 10 or 12 miles from the springs of Gharandil. The foothills here project close to the coast, and N. of the valley is Jebel Hammam Far'aan ("the mountain of Pharaoh's hot bath"), named from hot sulphur springs. The water in Wady et-Taiyibeh is said to be better than that of Marah, and this is the main Arab wateringplace after passing Gharandil. A small pond is here described by Burckhardt at el-Murkhat, in the sandstone rock near the foot of the mountains, but the water is bitter and full of weeds, moss and mud. The site is close to a broad shore plain stretching S. Here two roads diverge toward Sinai, which lies about 65 miles to the S.E., and in this interval (Nu 33 11-15) five stations are named, giving a daily march of 13 miles. The Hebrews probably took the lower and easier road, esp. as it avoided the Egyp mines of Wâdy el-Maghārah ("valley of the cave") and their station at Serābīţ el-Khādim ("pillars of the servant"), where—though this is not certain—there may have been a detachment

of bowmen guarding the mines. None of the five camps on this section of the route is certainly known. Dophkah apparently means "overdriving" of flocks, and Alush (according to the rabbis) "crowding," Route to thus indicating the difficulties of the Sinai march. Rephidim ("refreshments") cates a better camp. The site, ever since the 4th cates a better camp. The site, ever since the 4th cent. AD, has always been shown in Wâdy Feirân (Eusebius, Onom, s.v. "Rephidim")—an oasis of date palms with a running stream. The distance from Sinai is about 18 miles, or 14 from the western end of the broad plain er-Râhah in which Israel camped in sight of Horeb; and the latter name (Ex 17 6) included the Desert of Sinai even as far W. as Rephidim. Here the rod of Moses, smiting the rock revealed to the Hebrews an smiting the rock, revealed to the Hebrews an abundant supply, just as they despaired of water. Here apparently they could rest in comfort for some three weeks before the final march to the plain "before the mount" (Ex 19 1.2), which they reached two months after leaving Egypt. Here Amalek— coming down probably from the mines—attacked them in the rear. Meanwhile there was ample time for the news of their journey to reach Midian, and for the family of Moses (Ex 18 1-5) to reach Sinai. On one of the low hills near Wâdy Feirân, Moses watched the doubtful fight and built his stone altar. A steep pass separates the oasis from the Rahah plain, and baggage camels usually round it on the N. by Wâdy esh-Sheikh, which may have been the actual route. The Rephidim oasis has a fertile alluvial soil, and the spot was chosen by Christian

Mt. Sinai for 10 months, leaving it after the Passover of the "second year" (Nu 9 1-3),

1. The
Stay at since, when they again witnessed the
Sinai spring migration of the quail (11 31)

hermits perhaps as early as the 3d cent. AD.

Sinai spring migration of the quail (11 31)
"from the sea"—as they had done in
the preceding year (Ex 16 13) farther W.—they
were already about 20 miles on their road, at Kibroth-hattaavah, or "the graves of lust."

roth-hattaavah, or "the graves of lust."
(1) In order to follow their journey it is necessary to fix the site of Kadesh-barnea to which they were

going, and there has been a good deal of confusion as to this city since, in 1844, Rev. John Rowlands discovered the site of the western Kadesh, at 'Ain Kadis' in the northern part of the Tih.

Robinson pointed out (BR, II, 194, n. 3) that this site could not possibly be right for Kadesh-barnea; and, though it was accepted by Professor Palmer, who visited the vicinity in January, 1870, and has been advocated by Henry Clay Trumbull (Kadesh-barnea, 1884), the identification makes hopeless chaos of the OT topography. The site of 'Ain Kadis is no doubt that of the Kadesh of Hagar (see Shur), and a tradition of her presence survives among the Arabs, probably derived from one of the early hermits, since a small hermitage was found by Palmer in the vicinity (Survey of Western Pal, Special Papers, 1881, 19). But this spring is not said to have been at the "city" of Kadesh-barnea, which is clearly placed at the southeast corner of the land of Israel (Josh 15 3), while, in the same chapter (ver 23), another site called Kedesh is mentioned, with Adadah ('Ada'deh 7 miles S.E. of Arad) and Hazor (at Jebel Hadîreh); this Kedesh may very well have been at the western Kadesh.

(2) Kadesh-barnea is noticed in 10 passages of the OT, and in 16 other verses is called Kadesh only. The name probably means "the holy place of the desert of wandering," and—as we shall see—the

wanderings of Israel were confined to the 'Arabah. The place is described as "a city in the uttermost the "red land" of Mt. Seir, so called from its red sandstones, as contrasted with the white Tîh limestone. It is also very clearly placed (Nu 34 3.4) S. of the Dead Sea (cf Josh 15 3), while Ezekiel also (47 19) gives it as the southeastern limit of the land, opposed to Tamar (Tamrah near Gaza) as the southeastern border town. A constant tradition, among Jews and Christians alike, identifies Kadeshbarnea with Petra, and this as early as the time of Jos, who says that Aaron died on a mountain near Jos, who says that Aaron died on a mountain near Petra (Ant, IV, iv, 7), and that the old name of Petra was Arekem (vii, 1). The Tg of Onkelos (on Nu 34 4) renders Kadesh-barnea by "Rekem of the G'aia," and this name—meaning "many-colored"—was due to the many-colored rocks near Petra, while the g'aia or "outcry" is probably that of Israel at Meribah-kadesh (Nu 27 14), and may have some connection with the name of the village el-Jii, at Petra, which is now called Wady Musa ("the valley of Moses") by the Arabs, who have a tradition that the gorge leading to Petra was cloven by the rod of Moses when he struck the rock at the "waters of strife" (Nu 27 14), forming the present stream which represents that of "Meribah of Kadesh." Eusebius also (Onom s.v. "Barne") connects Kadesh with Petra, and this traditional site so fully answers the requirements of the journey in question that it may be accepted as one of the bestfixed points on the route, esp. as the position of Hazeroth agrees with this conclusion. Hazeroth (Nu 11 35; 12 16; 33 17; Dt 1 1) means "inclosures," and the name survives at 'Ain Hadrah ("spring of the inclosure") about 30 miles N.E. of Mt. Sinai on the way to the 'Arabah. It was the 3d camp from Sinai, the 1st being Taberah (Nu 11 3) and the 2d Kibroth-hatteavah (11 35) giving a 3) and the 2d Kibroth-hattaavah (11 35), giving a daily march of 10 miles. See KADESH-BARNEA.

daily march of 10 miles. See Kadesh-barnea.

After passing Hazeroth (12 16; 13 3) the journey appears to have been leisurely, and Israel probably camped for some time in the best pastures.

3. The from Paran near Hazeroth to explore the route to Kadesh, and to examine the Hazeroth to "south country" through which Israel moved the wilderness of Zin." or otherwise "from Kadesh-barnea." on the E., to Rehob—probably Rehoboth (now er-Ruheibeh)—on the W.; and—having been absent 40 days (13 25)—after visiting Hebron (ver 22) they returned by the direct route leading S. of Arad (Tell 'Arad) to Petra, which road is called (21 1) the "way of the spies." On their return, in the season of "first-ripe grapes" (13 20), they found Israel at Kadesh (13 26). No place N. of Hebron is mentioned in the account of their explorations, and it is difficult to suppose that, in 40 days, they could have reached the Syrian city of Hamath, which is some 350 miles N. of Petra, and have returned thence. The definition of Rehob (mentioned before Hebron) as being on the coming to Hamath' (13 21) is best explained as a scribe's error, due to an indistinct MS, the original reading being häläceth (Tatal Tatal T

Most of the sites along this route are unknown, and their position can only be gathered from the

Moseroth

meaning of the names; but the 6th station from Hazeroth was at Mt.

Shepher (Nu 33 23), and may have left its name corrupted into Tell el'Asfar (or 'Asfar), the Heb meaning and "the shining hill," and the Arab. either the same or else "the yellow."

This site is 60 miles from Hazeroth.

This site is 60 miles from Hazeroth, giving a daily march of 10 miles. As regards the

other stations, Rithmah means "broomy," referring to the white desert broom; Rimmon-perez was a "cloven height," and Libnah a "white" chalky place; Rissah means "dewy," and Kehelathah, "gathering." From Mt. Shepher the distance to the vicinity of Mt. Hor is about 55 miles, and seven stations are named, giving an average march of 8 miles. The names are Haradah (Nu 33 24), "fearful," referring to a mountain; Makheloth, "gatherings"; Tahath—probably "below"—marking the descent into the 'Arabah; Terah, "delay," referring to rest in the better pastures; Mithkah, "sweetness" of pasture or of water; Hashmonah, "fatness"; and Moseroth, probably meaning "the boundaries," near Mt. Hor. These names, though now lost, agree well with a journey through a rugged region of white limestone and yellow sandstone, followed by a descent into the pastoral valley of the 'Arabah. The distances also are all probable for flocks.

IV. The Thirty-eight Years.—From the time of their first arrival at Kadesh-barnea, in the autumn of the 2d year, to the day that the Hebrews crossed the brook Zered in 1. The Moab on their final march, is said to History have been a period of 38 years (Dt 2 14), during which the first generation died out, and a strong race of desert warriors succeeded it. During this period Israel lived in the nomadic state, like modern Arabs who change camp according to the season within well-defined limits, visiting the higher pastures in summer, and wintering in the lower lands. On their first arrival near Kadeshbarnea, they were discouraged by the report of the spies, and rebelled; but when they were ordered to turn S. "by the way of the Red Sea" or Gulf of Akabah, they made an unsuccessful attempt to enter Pal by the way of the spies (Nu 14 25-45). They were discomfited by Amalekites at Hormah ("cutting off"), which place is otherwise called Zephath (Jgs 1 17). Here also they were again defeated by the king of Arad (Nu 21 1.3) in the early autumn of the 40th year of wandering. This site may well be placed at the ascent now called Nukb es-Sufah ("the pass of Zephath"), which preserves the Heb name, 45 miles N.W. of Mt. Hor, on the main road from Hebron to Petra. The route is well watered, and 'Ain Yemen is a spring at the foot of this ascent leading to the higher terrace of the Tîh. Arad lies N. of the road, and its Can. king no doubt marched S. some 40 miles, to defend the top of the ascent down which the Amalekites had driven the first generation of Hebrews, who returned to the Kadesh-barnea

which Israel visited, and no doubt revisited annually, during the 38 years of nomadic life. We have in fact three passages which appear to define the limits of their wanderings. (1) In the first of their wanderings. (1) In the first of their wanderings. (1) In the first of they left Moseroth, near Mt. Hor, the site of which latter has always been shown—since the time of Jos at least—at the remarkable mountain W. of Petra, now called Jebel Hârân ("Aaron's Mountain"); thence they proceeded to the wells of the Bene-jaakan, to Hor-haggidgad, and to Jotbathah. Hor-haggidgad (or Gudgodah, Dt 10 7) signifies apparently the "hill of thunder," and the word is not in any way connected with the name of Wâdy Ghadaghid ("the valley of failing waters"), applying to a ravine W. of the 'Arabah: for the Heb and Arab. words have not a letter in common. The site of Jotbathah, which was in "a land of brooks of waters" (Dt 10 7), is, on the other hand, pretty clearly to be fixed at 'Ain et-Tâbah ("the good

spring"), 28 miles N. of 'Akabah, and about 40 along the road from Mt. Hor. This spring, near a palm grove, feeds the winter lake of et-Tabah to its W. in the 'Arabah. The next station was Abronah ("the crossing"), and if this refers to crossing the 'Arabah to the western slopes, we are naturally brought—on the return journey—to Ezion-geber, at 'Ain-ghudtan (the usual identification), which springs from the western slopes of the Tih on the side of the lake opposite to Jotbathah. Thence the migrants gradually returned to Kadesh.

(2) The second passage (Dt 10 6.7) is one of

(2) The second passage (Dt 10 6.7) is one of many geographical notes added to the narrative of the wanderings, and gives the names in a different order—Wells of the Bene-jaakan, Moserah, Gudgodah, and Jotbathah—but this has little importance, as the camps, during 38 years, would often

be at these springs.

(3) The third passage is in the preface to Dt (1 1.2), which enumerates the various places where Moses spoke to Israel at various times after leaving Sinai. These include the region E. of Jordan, the wilderness, the 'Arabah, "over against Suph," with all the district between Paran and Tophel (now Tufileh, on the southern border of Moab), as well as Laban (probably the Libnah of Nu 33 20), Hazeroth, and Dizahab which may be Dhahab on the seashore E. of Sinai. This list, with the valuable notes added showing that Kadesh-barnea was 11 days from Horeb in the direction of Mt. Seir, refers to speeches down to the last days of Moses' life. The wanderings of the 38 years do not include the march through Edom and Moab; and, though it is of course possible that they may have extended to Hazeroth and Sinai, it seems more probable that they were confined to the 'Arabah between Petra and Jotbathah. Elath (now 'Akabah), on the eastern shore at the head of the gulfs, is not mentioned; for the raised beach S. of the Lake of Jotbathah would not give pasture. In summer the camps would be on the western slopes of the valley, where grass might be found in April; and the annual migrations were thus within the limits of some 500 sq. miles, which is about the area now occupied by a strong tribe among Arabs.

strong tribe among Arabs.

V. The Final Journey.—In the 1st month of the 40th year (Nu 20 1) Israel was at Kadesh in the desert of Zin where Mirriam was hunted

desert of Zin, where Miriam was buried.

1. The They were troubled once more by Route want of water, till Moses smote the rock of Meribah ("strife"). They were commanded to keep peace with their relatives of Edom and Moab, whose lands were not attacked by the Hebrews till the time of Saul, and of David and his successors. They camped on the border of Kadesh, desiring to reach the main road to Moab through the city; and, when this was refused by the king of Edom, they withdrew a few miles W. to Mt. Hor. Here Aaron was buried, and was mourned for 30 days (Nu 20 29), after which the 2d attempt to reach Hebron by the main road (21 1) was also repulsed. Since, on this occasion, Israel remained "many days" in Kadesh (Dt 1 46) and left it less than 38 years after they first reached it in autumn, it would seem that they may have started in August, and have taken about a month to reach the brook Zered; but only five stations are noticed (Nu 21 10-12; 33 41-44) on the way. They are not said—in any passage—to have gone to Elath, but they turned "from mount Hor by the way to the Red Sea, to compass the land of Edom" (Nu 21 4), or, as otherwise stated (Dt 2 8), they went "from the way of the Arabah" on the road which led "from Elath and from Ezion-geber"; and thus, starting on the "way to the Red Sea," they "compassed mount Seir many days," turning "northward" by the "way of the wilderness of

Moab" (Dt 2 1.8) after passing through the coast of Edom (2 4).

of Edom (2 4).

If the list of five stations is complete, we may suppose that they left the 'Arabah road not many miles S. of Petra, striking E. by an existing road

2. The Five high plateau above Petra to the E., and reaching the present Haj route. This the Border of Moab as the 2d camp, if we accept the statement of Eusebius (Onom, s.v. 'Phinon'); for he appears to have known it as an Edomite village N. of Petra, in the desert, where convicts were employed digging copper. The name, however, has not been recovered. The preceding camp at Zaimonah suggests some 'gloomy' valley leading up to the Edomite ('the ruins') or 'the ruins of the crossings'), the site of which is pretty certainly at 'Aimsh, a few miles N. of Tophel. The total distance thus seems to have been about 60 miles for four marches, or 15 miles a day. Iyim was 'in the border of Moab' (Nu 33 44) and in the desert facing Moab, in the East (21 11).

Here therefore Israel left Edom; and between Iyim and the river Arnon, in a distance of about 32 miles.

only one station is mentioned, being at only one station is mentioned, being at the valley of Zered (21 12; Dt 2 13.14). This has usually been placed at Wâdy el-Hesy ("the pebbly valley"), which flows into the Dead Sea, having 3. From Iyim to Arnon

its head near Iyim; but this is evidently too far S., and it is no doubt the great gorge at Kerak that is intended, having its head close to the Haj road, halfway from Iyim to Arnon, giving a daily march of 16 miles. The traditional identification of the Arnon with Wâdy Môjib is rendered certain by the positions of Diban (Dhiban) and Aroer ('Ar'air) close by. It was the border of the Amorites, who had driven the Moabites S. of this river (Nu 21 13; Dt 2 36). depriving them of their best lands which stretched to Heshbon. These Amorites were apparently recent intruders who, with the Hittites (see HITTITES), had invaded Damascus and Bashan from North Syria, and who no doubt had thus brought the fame of Balaam from Pethor (Nu 22 5), on the Euphrates near Carchemish.

The Hebrews were now a strong people fit for war, and Moses sent messengers from the "wilder-ness of Kedemoth" (Dt 2 26) to

Sihon in Heshbon, demanding a peace-4. The Message ful passage through his lands, such as had been accomplished through Edom and Moab. Kedemoth ("the Eastern to Sihon Lands") was evidently the desert of Moab.

It was objected, by Colenso, to the narrative of the Pent that, since Israel only reached the brook Zered in autumn of the 40th year, only six months are left for the conquest of North Moab, Gilead and Bashan. But it must be remembered that the Hebrews left all their impedimenta in the "plains of Moab" (Nu 22 1) opposite Jericho at Shittim, so that the advance of their army in Gilead and Bashan was unimpeded. The Assyrians, in later times, covered in a season much longer distances than are attributed to Heb conquerors, and the six months leave quite enough time for the two missions sent from Moab (Nu 22 5–36) to fetch Balaam. See Numbers, Book of.

(1) It is notable that, for the march from the Arnon to Shittim, we have two lists of stations.

That which is said to have been written

From down by Moses himself (Nu 33 45-49) mentions only four stations in a distance of about 25 miles—namely the Arnon to Shittim

Dibon-gad, Almon-diblathaim, Nebo and the plains of Moab, where the camps were placed at various waters from Beth-jeshimoth (Saeimeh) on the northeastern shore of the Dead Sea to Abelshittim ("the Meadow of Acacias"), now called the Ghôr es-Seisebân, or "Valley of Acacias." In this area of 50 square miles there were four running streams, besides springs, and excellent pasture for flocks. This therefore was the headquarters of the nation during the Amorite war.

(2) In the 2d list (Nu 21 13-20) we read of a still more gradual and cautious advance in the Amorite lands, and this may represent the march of the main body following the men of war. Leaving the Arnon, they reached "a well" (Beer), probably near Dibon, this being one of those shallow water pits which the Arabs still scoop out in the valleys when the water runs below the surface. Between Arnon and Pisgah (or Nebo) no less than five stations are noticed in about 20 miles, namely Beer, Mattanah ("the gift"), Nahaliel ("the valley of God"), Bamoth (or Bamoth-Baal [Nu 22 41], "the monuments of Baal"), and Pisgah (Jebel Neba). Of these only the last is certainly known, but the central station at Nahaliel may be placed at the great gorge of the Zerka Ma'ain, the road from Dibon to Nebo crossing its head near Beth-meon. There was plenty of water in this vicinity. The last stage of Israel's march thus seems to represent a program of only about 4 miles a day, covered by the more rapid advance of the fighting men; and no doubt the women, children and flocks were not allowed to proceed at all until, at least, Shon had been driven from Heshbon (Nu 21 21-25).

We have thus considered every march made by the Hebrews, from Egypt to Shittim, by the light of actual knowledge of their route. 6. Review We have found no case in which the stations are too far apart for the passage of their beasts, and no discrepancies between any of the accounts when carefully considered. If, as some critical writers think, the story of the spies and the list of camps said to have been written down by Moses are to be attributed to a Heb priest writing in Babylonia, we cannot but wonder how he came to be so accurately informed as to the topography of the wilderness, its various regions, its water-supply and its natural products. It does not seem necessary to suppose a "double source. because, in the spring of two successive years, the manna is noticed, and Israel is recorded as having manna is noticed, and israel is recorded as having eaten the quail flying (as now) by night to the Jordan valley from Africa. The march was not continuous, and plenty of time is left, by the recording of the state of the factor of the facto corded dates, for the resting of the flocks at such waters as those of Elim, Rephidim and Hazeroth. The wanderings of the 38 years represent a nomadic life in the best pastures of the region, in and near the 'Arabah. Here the new race grew up-hardy as the Arabs of today. When they left Egypt the Pharaoh still had a firm hold on the "way of the Philistines," and the Canaanites owned his sway. But 40 years later Egypt was defeated by the Amorites, and the forces of the Pharaoh were withdrawn from Jerus after suffering defeat in Bashan (see Am Tab, no. 64, Brit. Mus., where no less than nine known places near Ashteroth and Edrei are noticed); general chaos then resulted in Southern Pal, when the 'Abiri (or Hebrews) appeared from Seir, and 'destroyed all the rulers' (see Exopus). This, then, was the historic opportunity for the defeat of the Amorites, and for Joshua's conquest of the Promised Land. C. R. CONDER

WAR, wôr, WARFARE, wôr'fâr (מַלְחָמָה, milhāmāh, "מְלְשֵׁר מֵ", 'anshē m., ''men of war,'' ''soldiers''; πόλεμος, pólemos, πολεμεῖν, polemein, στρατεύεσθαι, strateúesthai, στρατιά, stratiá):

- Religious Significance
 Preliminaries
 Operations of War
 Strategy
 Important Requisites
 Characteristics

- 7. Defeat and Victory 8. Spoils and Trophies 9. Treaties of Peace 10. War in the NT

From an early period of Heb history war had a religious significance. The Hebrews were the people of Jeh, and they were reminded in their

1. Religious wars by the priest or priests who ac-Significance companied their armies that Jeh was with them to fight their battles (Dt

20 1-4). It was customary to open a campaign, or to enter an engagement, with sacrificial rites (1 S 7 8-10; 13 9). Hence, in the Prophets, to "prepare" war is to carry out the initiatory religious

rites and therefore to "sanctify" war (Jer 6 4; 22 7; 51 27.28; Mic 3 5; Joel 3 9; RVm in each case); and Isaiah even speaks of Jeh mustering His host and summoning to battle His "consecrated ones" (Isa 13 3), the warriors consecrated by the sacrifices offered before the war actually opened. The religious character attaching to war explains also the taboo which we find associated with it (Dt 20 7; 23 10; 2 S 11 11).

War, Warfare

(1) Religious preliminaries.—It was in keeping with this that the oracle should be consulted before a campaign, or an engagement (Jgs 20 18 ff; 1 S 14 37; 23 2; 28 6; 30 8). The ark of God was believed 2. Preliminaries to be possessed of special virtue in assuring victory, and, because it was identified in the eyes of the Israelites with the presence of Jeh, it was taken into battle (1 S 4 3). The people learned, however, by experience to put their trust in Jeh Himself and not in any outward token of His presence. At the battle of Ebenezer the ark was taken into the fight with disastrous results to Israel (1 S 4 4 ff). On the other hand at the battle of Michmash, the sacred ephod at Saul's request accompanied the Israelites into the field, and there was a great discomfiture of the Philis (1 S 14 18). In the later history prophets were appealed to for guidance before a campaign (1 K 22 5; 2 K 3 11), although fanatical members of the order sometimes gave fatal advice, as to Ahab at Ramoth-gilead, and probably to Josiah at Megiddo. Upon occasion the king addressed the host before engaging the enemy (2 Ch 20 20–22, where Jehoshaphat also had singers to go before the army into battle); and Judas Maccabaeus did so, with prayer to God, on various occasions (1 Macc 3 58; 4 30; 5 32).

(2) Military preliminaries.—The call to arms was given by sound of trumpet throughout the land (Jgs 3 27; 6 34; 1 S 13 3; 2 S 15 10; 20 1; cf Nu 10 2). It was the part of the priests to sound an alarm with the trumpets (2 Ch 13 12-16; cf 1 Macc 4 40; 16 8), and the trumpets were to be blown in time of battle to keep God in remembrance of Israel that they might gain the victory. In the Prophets, we find the commencement of war described as the drawing of the sword from its sheath (Ezk 21 3 ff), and the uncovering of the shield (Isa 22 6). Graphic pictures of the mobilizing of forces, both for invasion and for defence, are found in Isa (22 6-8) and Nah (3 2) and other Prophets. It was in the springtime that campaigns were usually opened, or resumed after a cessation of hostilities in winter (2 S 11 1; 1 K 20 22.26).

Of the actual disposition of troops in battle there

are no full accounts till the Maccabean time, but an examination of the Bib. battlefields by

3. Орегаtions of War

modern travelers with knowledge of military history has yielded valuable results in showing the position of the

combatants and the progress of the fight (an excellent example in Dr. William Miller's Least of All Lands, 85 ff, 116 ff, 150 ff, where the battles of Michmash, Elah and Gilboa are described with plans). With the Israelites the order of battle was simple. The force was drawn up, either in line, With the Israelites the order of battle or in three divisions, a center and two wings. There was a rearguard (called in AV "rereward," in RV "rearward") to give protection on the march or to bring in stragglers (Jgs 7 16; 1 S 11 11; 2 S 18 2; 1 Macc 5 33; cf also Nu 10 25; Josh 6 9; 1 S 29 2; Isa 58 8). The signal for the charge and the retreat was given by sound of trumpet. There was a battle-cry to inspire courage and to impart confidence (Jgs 7 20; Am 1 14, etc). The issue of the battle depended upon the personal courage and endurance of the combatants, fighting man against man, but there were occasions when the

decision was left to single combat, as at the battle of Elah between the giant Goliath and the stripling David (1 S 17). The combat at Gibeon between the men of Benjamin, twelve in number, followers of Ish-bosheth, and twelve of the servants of David, in which each slew his man and all fell together by mutual slaughter, was the prelude to "a very sore battle" in which Abner and the men of Israel were beaten before the servants of David (2 S 2 16).

To the minor operations of war belong the raid, such as the Philis made into the Valley of Rephaim (1 Ch 14 9), the foray, the object of which was plunder (2 S 3 22), the foraging to secure supplies (2 S 23 11 m), and the movements of bands who captured defenceless inhabitants and sold them as slaves (2 K 5 2).

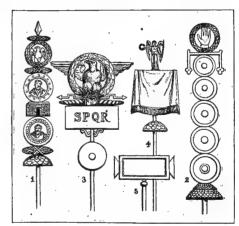
Of strategical movements in war there was the ambush with liers-in-wait resorted to by Joshua at

Ai (Josh 8 3 ff); the feint, resorted 4. Strategy to by the Israelites against the tribe of Benjamin (Jgs 20 20 ff); the flank movement, adopted by David in the Valley of Rephaim to rout the Philis (2 S 5 22 f); and the surprise, inflicted successfully at the Waters of Merom upon the Canaanites under Jabin by Joshua (Josh 11 1 f). Of all these the story of Judas Maccabaeus, the great military leader of the Jewish nation, furnishes illustrations (1 Macc 4 5 and elsewhere).

Among the requisites for the proper conduct of war the most important was the camp (mahaneh).

Of the exact configuration of the camp Imporof the Israelites, it is not possible to tant Requispeak with certainty. The camp of Israel in the wilderness seems to have been quadrilateral, although some have

supposed it to be round or triangular (Nu 2 1 ff). The camp in the wilderness was furnished with



Roman Standards or Banners. From Montfaucon (1, 2). Hope (3, 4). Arch of Titus (5).

ensigns and standards—the family ensign $(\dot{o}th)$, and a standard (deghel) for the group of tribes occupying each of the four sides. The standard or banner $(n\bar{e}_{\bar{s}})$ is used of the signal for the mustering of troops, but standard-bearer, which occurs only once in the Bible, is a doubtful reading (Isa 10 18, where RVm, "sick man," is rather to be followed). In time of war the camp was surrounded by a barricade, or wagon-rampart (ma'gal), as at Elah (1 S 17 20); and Saul lay within such a barricade in the wilderness of Ziph with his people round about him when David surprised him and carried off his spear (1 S 26 5 ff). Tents were used for the shelter of troops, at any rate when occupied with a siege (2 K 7 7), although at the siege of Rabbah we read of booths for the purpose (2 S 11 11). Pickets were set to watch the camp. and the watch was changed three times in the course of the night (Jgs 7 19; 1 Macc 12 27). It was usual to leave a guard in charge of the camp when the force went into action or went off upon a raid (1 S 25 13; 30 10). Careful prescriptions were laid down for the preservation of the purity of the camp, "for Jeh thy God walketh in the midst of thy camp, therefore shall thy camp be holy" (Dt 23 9-14; cf Nu 5 1-4).

Garrisons (maççābh) were placed in occupation of fortresses and strategical centers (2 Ch 17 2). No doubt the caves in the hillsides and rocky fastnesses of the land, as at Michmash, would serve for their reception (1 S 13). The garrisons, however, which are expressly mentioned, were for the most part military posts for the occupation of a subject country—Philis in Israelitish territory (1 S 13 23; 14 1.11), and Israelites in Syrian and Edomite territory (2 S 8 6.14).

Among the characteristic notes of war, the tumult and the shouting were often noticed by the sacred historians (1 S 4 6; 14 19; 2 K 7 6). In the figurative language of the prophets the terrors and horrors and devastation of war are set forth rs. "The snorting of his horses is heard 6. Characteristics in lurid colors. from Dan," is Jeremiah's description of an invading army, "at the sound of the neighing of his strong ones the whole land trembleth" (Jer 8 16). "The crack of the whip and the noise of the rumbling wheel and the galloping horse, and the jolting chariot and the rearing horsemen; and the flash of the sword and the glitter of the spear, and the multitude of slain; and a mass of dead bodies and no end to the carcases' (Nah 3 2-4: J. M. P. Smith's tr in ICC). Because of the devastation of territory and the slaughter of men which it entails, the sword is named with famine and "noisome beasts" (ARV has "evil beasts") and "pestilence" as one of God's "four sore judgments" (Ezk 14 21 AV). By a familiar figure "the sword" is often taken for all the operations of war, because it is characteristic of it to devour and to destroy (2 S 2 26;

Jer 2 30) While the treatment of the vanquished in the wars of Israel never reached the pitch of savagery

7. Defeat and Victory severity, such as David's treatment of his Moabite prisoners (2 S 8 2) and of the Ammonites captured at Rabbah (2 S 12 31), and Menahem's barbarous treatment of Tiphsah (2 K 15 16; cf Nu 31 17; Josh 6 21). That it was common for the Philis to mutilate and abuse their prisoners is shown by Saul's determination not to fall into their hands (1 S 31 4). On that occasion the Philis not only stripped the slain, but cut off Saul's head and fixed his body to the wall of Bethshan (1 S 31 9.10). It was usual to carry off prisoners and sell them as slaves (2 K 5 2; 1 Macc 3 41). The conquerors were wont to deport the population of the subjugated country (2 K 17 6), to carry off treasure and impose tribute (2 K 16 8), and even to take the gods into captivity (Isa 46 1). On the other hand, the victors were hailed with acclamations and songs of rejoicing (1 S 18 6), and victory was celebrated with public thanksgivings (Ex 15 1; Jgs 5 1; 1 Macc 4 24).

The spoils of war, spoken of as booty also—armor, clothing, jewelry, money, captives and animals reliable to the victors were divided excellent.

mals-falling to the victors, were divided equally between those who had taken part in the battle and those who had been left behind in camp (Nu 31 27; Josh 22 8; 1 S 30 24 f). A proportion

of the spoils was reserved for the Levites, and "a tribute unto the Lord" was also levied before distribution was made of the collected booty (Nu 31 28.30). To the Lord, 8. Spoils in the Israelitish interpretation of war, and **Trophies** the spoils truly belong, and we see this exemplified at the capture of Jericho when the silver and the gold and the vessels of brass were put into the treasury of the house of the Lord (Josh 6 24). Under the monarchy, part of the spoils fell to the king who might in turn dedicate it to the Lord or use it for the purposes of war (2 K 14 14; 1 Ch 18 7.11). The armor of the conquered was sometimes dedicated as a trophy of victory and placed in the temple of the heathen or

preserved near the ark of God (1 S 21 9; 31 9). As the blast of the war-horn summoned to war, so it intimated the cessation of hostilities (2 S 2

28); and as to draw the sword was 9. Treaties the token of the entrance upon a camof Peace paign, so to return it to its sheath, or to put it up into the scabbard, was emblematic of the establishment of peace (Jer 47 6). As ambassadors were sent to summon to war (Jer 49 14), or to dissuade from war (2 Ch 35 21), so ambassadors were employed to negotiate peace (Isa 33 7). Treaties of peace were made on occasion between combatants, as between Ahab and Ben-hadad II after the defeat of the latter and his fortunate escape from the hands of Ahab with his life (1 K 20 30.31). By the appeal of Ben-hadad's representative to Ahab's clemency his life was spared, and in return therefor he granted to Ahab the right to have bazaars for trade in Damascus as his father had had in Samaria (1 K 20 34). Alliances, offensive and defensive, were common, as Ahab and Jehoshaphat against Syria (1 K 22 2 ff), Jehoram and Jehoshaphat and the king of Edom against Moab (2 K 3 7 ff), and the kings of the West, including Ahab and Hadadezer of Damascus, to resist Shalmaneser II of Assyria, who routed the allies at the battle of Karkar in 854 BC. It is among the wonderful works of Jeh that He makes war to cease to the end of the earth, that He breaks the bow, and cuts the spear in sunder, and "burneth the chariots in the fire" (Ps 46 9). And prophetic pictures of the peace of the latter days include the breaking of "the bow and the sword and the battle out of the land" (Hos 2 18), the beating of "swords into plowshares, and spears into pruning-hooks" (Isa 2 4; Mic 4 3).

Among the signs of the last days given by Our Lord are "wars and rumors of wars" (Mt 24 6; Mk 13 7; Lk 21 9; 21 24). Jesus 10. War in accepts war as part of the present world-order, and draws from it an impressive illustration of the exacting conditions of Christian discipleship (Lk 14 31 ff). He foresees how Jerus is to be encompassed with armies and devoted to the bitterest extremities of war (Lk 19 41 ff). He conceives Himself come, not to send peace on earth, but a sword (Mt 10 34); and declares that they who take the sword shall perish by the sword (Mt 26 52). The apostles trace war to the selfishness and greed of men (Jas 4 1 ff); they see, speaking figuratively, in fleshly lusts enemies which war against the soul (1 Pet 2 11); they find in war apt figures of the spiritual struggle and Divine protection and ultimate victory of the Christian (Rom 7 23; 8 37; 2 Cor 10 3.5; 1 Tim 1 18; He 13 13; 1 Pet 1 5), and of the triumphs of Christ Himself (2 Cor 2 14; Col 2 15; Eph 2 16.17). St. Paul made the acquaintance of the barracks, both at Jerus and at Caesarea (Acts 21 34.37; 23 35); and at Rome his bonds became familiar to the members of the Prætorian

guard who were from time to time detailed to have

him in keeping (Phil 1 13). It is under the figures of battle and war that St. John in the Apocalypse conceives the age-long conflict between righteousness and sin, Christ and Satan, and the final triumph of the Lamb, who is King of kings, and Lord of lords (Rev 16 14–16; 17 14; 19 14). For other references see Army, 9; Prætorian Guard; Treaty.

LITERATURE.—Benzinger, art. "Kriegswesen" in Herzog, RE, XI; Nowack, Hebräische Archaeologie, 72; Browne, Heb Antiquities, 44-47.

T. Nicol WAR, MAN OF (אִישׁ מִלְחָמְה, 'ĩsh milḥāmāh):

"Jehovah is a man of war: Jehovah is his name" (Ex 15 3).

In early Israel the character of Jeh as the war-God forms a prominent feature in the conception of God (Nu 10 35; 21 14; Josh 5 13; 10 11; Jgs 5 4.13. 20.23.31, etc). See God, Names of, III, 8; Lord of Hosts; and HDB, V, 635 ff.

WARD, wôrd: "Ward" and "guard" are two different spellings of the same word, and in consequence no clear line can be drawn between them. EV, however, has used "guard" only in the sense of "a special bedy of soldiers" (Gen 37 36, etc), while "ward" is used, not only in this sense (Jer 37 13; contrast 39 9), but also in a variety of others. So a "ward" may mean "any body of men on special duty," as 1 Ch 9 23; AV 1 Ch 26 16; Neh 12 24.25 (RV "watch"), or the duty itself, as Isa 21 8; 1 Ch 12 29 AV (RV "allegiance"); 25 8; 26 12 (RV "office," m "ward"); Neh 12 45; 13 30 (RV "charge"). Or "ward" may mean "guarded place," always in the phrase "put in ward." RV has kept this phrase throughout (Gen 40 3, etc), changing it only in Ezk 19 9, where "cage" better carries out the figure of the context.

The distinction of the older Eng. between "watch" and "ward," as applying respectively to the night and to the day seems unknown in EV. Cf Isa 21 8.

The affix "-ward," denoting direction and still used in such forms as "toward," "northward," etc, had a much wider range in Bib. Eng. So "to Godward" (Ex 18 19; 2 Cor 3 4; 1 Thess 1 8); "to thee-ward" (1 S 19 4); "to us-ward" (Ps 40 5; Eph 1 19; 2 Pet 3 9 AV); "to you-ward" (2 Cor 1 12; 13 3; Eph 3 2; 2 Pet 3 9 RV); and in Ex 37 9, AV "even to the mercy seatward" (RV "toward the mercy-seat").

Burton Scott Easton

Burton Scott Easton
WARES, wârz (אַרְבָּר, makkāḥāh, אַרֶּבָּר, mekher, אַרְבָּרָבָּר, mimkār, אַרְבָּר, kin'āh, אַרְבָּרָבָּר, ma'āseh, אַרְבָּרָבָּר, vizzābhōn, אַרְבָּרָבָּר, kin'āh, אַרְבָּרָבָּר, ma'āseh, אַרְבַּרָבָּר, vizzābhōn, אַרְבָּרָבְּר, vizzābhōn, אַרְבּיּרָבָּר, vizzābhōn, אַרְבּיּרָבָּר, vizzābhōn, viransacd (Neh 10 31); (2) mekher, "price" or "pay," value, merchandise (Neh 13 16); (3) mimkār, a "selling," the thing sold (Neh 13 20); (4) kin'āh, a "package," hence wares (Jer 10 17); (5) ma'āseh, "transaction," activity, property, possession, work, occupation, thing made, deed, business (Ezk 27 16.18); (6) 'izzābhōn, "selling," trade, revenue, mart, letting go for a price (Ezk 27 33); (7) k'lī, a "prepared" something, as an implement, tool, weapon, utensil, armor, furniture, sack, vessel, hence wares (Jon 1 5). In most cases the real sense is merchandise (see Merchandises). "That which did not a little amuse the Merchandizers [in Vanity-Fair] was, that these Pilgrims set very light by all their Wares; they cared not so much as to look upon them" (Bunyan, The Pilgrim's Progress).

WILLIAM EDWARD RAFFETY WARFARE. See WAR, WARFARE.

WARP, wôrp (אולי), shethī [Lev 13 48-59]): The long threads fixed into the loom to form the basis of the web, and into which the woof is wrought from the shuttle. The warp and the woof lying at right angles to one another have in their Heb form $(sh^{\epsilon}th\bar{\iota}\ w^{\epsilon}\bar{\iota}\bar{e}rebh)$ given to modern Jewish speech a secret expression to designate the cross. See Weaving.

WARS, wôrz, OF JEHOVAH (THE LORD), BOOK OF THE. See Bible, IV, 1, (1), (b).

WASH, wosh, WASHING, wosh'ing: The two usual Heb words for "wash" are "Π, rāḥaç, and D, kābhas, the former being normally used of persons or of sacrificial animals (Gen 18 4, etc, often trd "bathe"; Lev 15 5, etc), and the latter of things (Gen 49 11, etc), the exceptions to this distinction being few (for rāḥaç, 1 K 22 38 m; for kābhas, Ps 51 2.7; Jer 2 22; 4 14). Much less common are T, dū²h (2 Ch 4 6; Isa 4 4; Ezk 40 38) and T, shāṭaph (1 K 22 38; Job 14 19; Ezk 16 9), trd "rinse" in Lev 6 28; 15 11.12. In Neh 4 23 AV has "washing" and RV "water" for mayim, but the text is hopelessly obscure (cf RVm). In the Apoc and NT the range of terms is wider. Most common is νίπτω, nipiō (Mt 6 17, etc), with aponipiō in Mt 27 24. Of the other terms, λούω, louö (Sus vs 15.17; Jn 13 10, etc), with apolouō (Acts 22 16; 1 Cor 6 11) and the noun loutrón (Sir 34 25b; Eph 5 26; Tit 3 5), usually has a sacral significance. On βαπτίζω, baptizō (Sir 34 25a: Mk 7 4; Ik 11 38), with the noun baptismos (Mk 7 4 [text?]; He 9 10), see Baptism. In Lk 5 2; Rev 7 14; 22 14 RV occurs πλύνω, plūnō, while Jth 10 3 has περικλύζω, periklūzō. Virtually, as far as meaning is concerned, all these words are interchangeable. Of the figurative uses of washing, the most common and obvious is that of cleansing from sin (Ps 51 2; Isa 1 16, etc), but, with an entirely different figure, "to wash in" may signify "to enjoy in plenty" (Gen 49 11; Job 29 6; the meaning in Cant 5 12 is uncertain). Washing of the hands, in token of innocence, is found in Dt 21 6; Mt 27 24.

The "washing balls" of Sus ver 17 (σμῆγμα, smēgma, a very rare word) were of soap. See Soap. Burton Scott Easton

WASHING OF FEET: The OT references (Gen 18 4; 19 2; 24 32; 43 24; Jgs 19 21; 1 S 25 41; 2 S 11 8; Cant 5 3; Ps 58 10) show that the washing of the feet was the first act on entering the tent or house after a journey. The Orientals wore only sandals, and this washing was refreshing as well as cleanly. In the case of ordinary people, the host furnished the water, and the guests washed their own feet, but in the richer houses, the washing was done by a slave. It was looked upon as the lowliest of all services (1 S 25 41). Jesus pointedly contrasts Simon's neglect of even giving Him water for His feet with the woman's washing His feet with tears and wiping them with her hair (Lk 7 44). On the last evening of His life, Jesus washed the disciples' feet (Jn 13 1-16). Their pride, heightened by the anticipations of place in the Messianic kingdom whose crisis they immediately expected, prevented their doing this service for each other. Possibly the same pride had expressed itself on this same evening in a controversy about places at table. Jesus, conscious of His Divine dignity and against Peter's protest, performed for them this lowliest service. His act of humility actually cleansed their hearts of selfish ambition, killed their pride, and taught them the lesson of love. See also Expos T, XI, 536 f.

Was it meant to be a perpetual ordinance? Jn 13 15, with its "as" and the present tense of the vb. "do," gives it a priori probability. It has been so understood by the Mennonites and the Dunkards. Bernard of Clairvaux advocated making it a sacra-

The Pope, the Czar, and the Patriarch of Constantinople wash the feet of 12 poor men on Maundy Thursday; so did the Eng. kings till James II, and it is still practised in the royal palaces of Madrid, Munich and Vienna. But the objections to such an interpretation are overwhelming: It is never referred to in the Synoptic Gospels, the Acts or the Epp.; 1 Tim 5 10 refers only to lowly service to the saints. (2) It was first in the 4th cent. (cf Ambrose and Augustine) that it became the custom to wash the feet of the baptized on Maundy Thursday. (3) Ritualizing such an act of love absolutely destroys its meaning. (4) No large body of Christians has ever received it as a sacra-F. L. Anderson ment or an ordinance.

According to the Belief and Practice of the Church of the Brethren

Feet-washing is always practised in connection with the Agape and Eucharist. This entire service is usually called "Love Feast." These

1. Practice Love Feasts are always held in the evening (in conformity to the time of Jesus' Last Supper). Preparatory services on self-examination are held either at a previous service or at the opening of the Love Feast. Each church or congregation is supposed to hold one or two Love Feasts annually. No specified time of the year is set for these services. Before the supper is eaten all the communicants wash one another's feet; the brethren by themselves, and likewise the sisters by themselves.

(1) The mode.—In earlier years the "Double Mode" was practised, where one person would wash the feet of several persons and another would Mode" is almost universal, wherein each communicant washes and wipes the feet of another. Hence each one washes and wipes the feet of another. other, and in turn has this same service performed to himself.

(2) The salutation.—Feet-washing is also accompanied with the "Holy Kiss." As soon as one has pamed with the "Holy Kiss." As soon as one has finished washing and wiping the feet of another, he takes him by the hand and greets him with the "holy kiss," usually with an appropriate benediction as: "God bless you," or "May the Lord bless us."

There are three texts in the NT referring to feet-washing (Lk 7 36-50; Jn 13 1-17; 1 Tim 5 10).

(1) Jesus washing the disciples' feet

2. Scriptur- (Jn 13 1-17).—"At supper time" (δείπ-

al Basis for νου γενομένου, deipnou genoménou) Jesus arose, laid aside His garments (lμάτια, Feethimátia="outer garments"), girded Himself with a towel, poured water Washing into a basin, and began to wash and wipe the feet of the disciples.

(2) Peter's objection.—"Simon Peter . . . saith unto him, Lord, dost thou wash my feet [σύ μου virreus τοὺς πόδας, sử mou nipteis toủs pódas? I Jesus answered . . . What I do thou knowest not now; but thou shalt understand hereafter. Peter saith unto him, Thou shalt never wash my feet." Where-upon Jesus said: "If I wash thee not, thou hast no part with me."

(3) Jesus explains.—Peter now goes to the other extreme and desires complete washing. Jesus answers "He that is bathed [λελουμένος, lelouménos, rom λούω, louō, "to bathe the entire body"] needeth not save to wash [νίπτειν, niptein—"to wash a part of the body"] his feet." Jesus was not instituting a new symbol to take the place of baptism, to cleanse the entire person, but clearly distinguishes between the bathing (louō) of the entire body and the partial cleansing needed after the bath (baptism or immersion).

(4) The command.—"If I then, the Lord and the Teacher, have washed your feet, ye also ought to wash one another's feet" (ver 14, και ὑμεῖς ὀφείλετε wash one another's feet" (ver 14, καὶ ὑμεῖς ὀφείλετε ἀλλήλων νίπτεν τοὺς πόδας, καὶ humeis opheilete allĕίδπ niptein toús pódas), "I have given you an example [sign, symbol, ὑπόδειγμα, hupódeigma], that ye also should do as I have done to you" (ver 15). "If ye know these things, happy [or "blessed" RV, μακαρου, makárioi] are ye if ye do them" (ἐὰν ποιῆτε αὐτά, eán poiête autá). No language is clearer, and no command of Issue is stronger than this. Furtherno command of Jesus is stronger than this. Furthermore, no symbol is accompanied with a greater promise. Note also, "If I wash thee not, thou hast no part with me."

(1) Negatively.—(a) It cannot be explained as necessity or custom, i.e. that the dust must be washed from the feet of the disciples before proceeding with the supper. It was so cold that Peter had to warm himself, and this is sufficient evidence that they wore shoes instead of sandals at this time. Furthermore, Peter did not understand the action of Jesus, hence it could not have been customary. Most of all, Jesus was not scrupulous about keeping the customs or practices of the Jewish Cleansings (Mk 7 1–20). (b) It was not customary for the host to wash the feet of the guests. Peter objected, and Jesus told him distinctly that he could not understand at the time (âρτι, ârti), but would afterward (μετὰ ταῦτα, metá taúta). The symbol had a deeper meaning.

(μετὰ ταῦτα, metá taúta). The symbol had a deeper meaning.

(2) Positively.—(a) Feet-washing symbolizes humility and service. The apostles had been quarreling as to who would be greatest in the kingdom which they thought Jesus was about to set up (Lk 22 24–30). Most authorities agree that this quarrel took place before the supper. Peter's question, "Dost thou wash my feet?" shows clearly that his objection lay principally in this, that Jesus, the Lord and Master, should perform such a humble service. But Jesus was trying all the time to teach His disciples that true greatness in His kingdom is humility and service. "I am in the midst of you as he that serveth" (Lk 22 27; cf Mt 5 5; 23 11.12). Humility and service are fundamental virtues in the Christian life. To wash the feet of another symbolizes these virtues in the same way that the Eucharist symbolizes other Christian virtues. (b) Cleansing: Jesus clearly distinguished between the first cleansing which cleanses the whole person, and the washing of a part of the body. Baptism is the new birth, which means a complete cleansing. But after baptism we still commitsins, and need the partial cleansing as symbolized by feetwashing. Cf Bernard of Clairvaux: "Feet-washing is a cleansing of those daily offences which seem inevitable for those who walk in the dust of the world" (sed pedes lablut sunt] qui sunt animae affectiones, dum in hac pulvere gradium, ex toto mundi esse non possunt).

Feet-washing is practised by the Church of the

Feet-washing is practised by the Church of the Brethren for the following reasons: (1) Jesus washed His disciples' feet and said, "I have

4. Practised given you an example, that ye also by the should do as I have done to you" (Jn Church of the Brethren (Yanger 19) (The North of the Brethren (Tanger 19) (The North of the Should do as I have done to you" (Jn 13) (15) (2) Jesus said, "Ye also ought of the Brethren (Yanger 19) (The North of the Should do not have the said of the Should do as I have done to you" (Jn 18) (J

(ver 8). (4) "If ye know these things, blessed are ye if ye do them" (ver 17). (5) Feet-washing symbolizes humility and service, which are fundamental virtues. (6) Feet-washing symbolizes cleansing from the sins committed after baptism.

LITERATURE.—For the Church of the Brethren: C. F. Yoder, God's Means of Grace; R. H. Miller, The Doctrine of the Brethren Defended; tracts issued by the Brethren Publishing House, Elgin, III. For history of feetwashing, see ERE, V; New Sch-Herz Enc of Religious Knowledge, IV, 4; Smith and Cheetham, Dict. of Christian Antiquities, arts, "Baptism," "Maundy Thursday." DANIEL WEBSTER KURTZ

WASHPOT, wosh'pot (אָרָר בַּרָּדְּרָּ, s̄t̄r raḥaç, "vessel for washing"): Only Ps 60 8=108 9, "Moab is my washpot"; i.e. "Moab is my chattel, to be treated contemptuously," as the vessel in which the conqueror's feet are washed.

WASP, wosp. See Hornet.

WATCH, woch (הֹיְטְשָׁצֵּׁ, 'ashmurāh, אַשְׁמֶרָה 'ashmōreth; φυλακή, phulakē): A division of the night. The night was originally divided into three watches (Jgs 7 19), but later into four, as we find in the NT (Mt 14 25; Mk 6 48). We do not know the limits of the watches in the first division, but the middle watch probably began two hours before midnight and ended two hours after. The fourfold division was according to the Rom system, each of which was a fourth part of the night. See Time.
"Watch" is also the guard placed on watch

(פֹּשְׁכֵּר, mishmār, Neh 4 9; κουστωδία, koustādia, from Lat custodia, Mt 27 65.66; 28 11). It sometimes refers to the act of watching, as in 2 K 11 6.7 (בְּשְׁמֵרֶה, mishmereth); Lk 2 8 (phulakē).

"Watch" is also used figuratively, as in Ps 141 3 for restraint: "Set a watch, O Jeh, before my mouth" (コラウザ, shomrāh). See WARD. H. Porter

WATCHER, woch'er (Aram. לִּיר, "wakeful one"): In Nebuchadnezzar's dream (Dnl 4 13.17.
23 [MT 10.14.20]) a messenger who with "a holy
one" descended from heaven, they having joint
authority to issue decrees. In the apocryphal literature the doctrine of the "watchers" is much
elaborated. In Jub they are regarded as angels
sent to instruct mankind in righteousness. In En they sometimes appear as archangels and at other times as fallen angels. In the latter condition only we find them in the Book of Adam and Eve. place of descent was according to En 6 6 the summit of Mt. Hermon.

W. M. Christie mit of Mt. Hermon.

WATCHMAN, woch'man (הַבֶּוֹע , cōpheh, שׁמֵל , shōmēr, កាម្លឺឃុំហ្ , meçappeh, רְעֵּבׁ , nōçēr): Used to designate a sentinel on the city walls (2 S 18 25; 2 K 9 18; Ps 127 1; Isa 62 6) or on the hilltops (Jer 31 6). Cant 3 3; 5 7 introduces another class, "the watchmen that go about the city," and thus, it would seem, points to some system of municipal police. The distinction in meaning between the various words is clear, $\varsigma\bar{o}pheh$ having the idea of "outlooker" and $n\bar{o}\varsigma\bar{e}r$ that of "careful watcher" (being applied even to besiegers from outside: Jer 4 16, "watchers"), while $sh\bar{o}m\bar{e}r$ also embraces the idea of "defending" or "guarding." In Isa 21 6 $m^e\varsigma appeh$ is to be taken generally in the sense of "watch." In Sir 37 14 $\sigma\kappa\sigma\sigma bs$, skopbs, means simply "looker." W. M. Christie The distinction in meaning between the

WATCH-TOWER, woch'tou-ër (ጣርሃኒ), micpeh [Isa 21 8; 2 Ch 20 24]; ፲፫፰, bahan [Isa 32 14 RV]): In Isa 2 16 the words sekhīyōth ha-hemdāh have puzzled the translators. AV gives "pleasant pictures," RV "pleasant imagery," while RVm has "pleasant watchtowers." Guthe in Kautzsch's Bible translates Schaustücke, which practically agrees with RV. See MIZPEH; TOWER.

WATER, wô'tēr (Δ), mayim; ὕδωρ, húdōr): (1) The Gr philosophers believed water to be the original substance and that all things were made from it. The Koran states, "From water we have made all things." In the story of the creation

made all things." In the story of the (Gen 1 2) water plays an elemental part.

(2) Because of the scarcity of water in Pal it is esp. appreciated by the people there. They love the people it by a stream of running water. Men long for a taste of the water of their native village (1 Ch 11 17). A town or village is known throughout the country for the quality of its water, which is described by many adjectives, such as "light," "heavy," etc.

(3) The rainfall is the only source of supply of

water for Pal. The moisture is carried up from the

sea in clouds and falls on the hills as rain or snow. This supplies the springs and fountains. are mostly small and have little or no water in summer. For the most part springs supply the villages, but in case this is not sufficient, cisterns Most of the rain falls on the western are used. slopes of the mountains, and most of the springs are found there. The limestone in many places does not hold the water, so wells are not very common, though there are many references to them in the Bible.

- (4) Cisterns are usually on the surface of the ground and vary greatly in size. Jerus has always had to depend for the most part on water stored in this way, and carried to the city in aqueducts. A large number of cisterns have been found and partially explored under the temple-area itself. The water stored in the cisterns is surface water, and is a great menace to the health of the people. During the long, dry summer the water gets less and less, and becomes so stagnant and filthy that it is not fit to drink. In a few instances the cisterns or pools are sufficiently large to supply water for limited irrigation. See Cistern.
- (5) During the summer when there is no rain, vegetation is greatly helped by the heavy dews. A considerable amount of irrigation is carried on in the country where there is sufficient water in the fountains and springs for the purpose. There was doubtless much more of it in the Rom period. Most of the fruit trees require water during the summer.

(6) Many particular wells or pools are mentioned in the Bible, as: Beersheba (Gen 21 19), Isaac's well (Gen 24 11), Jacob's well (Jn 4 6), Pool of Siloam (Jn 9 7), "waters of Nephtoah" (Josh 15 9).

(7) Washing with water held a considerable place in the Jewish temple-ceremony (Lev 11 32; 16 4; 17 15; 22 6; Nu 19 7; Ex 30 18; 40 7). Sacrifices were washed (Ex 29 4; Lev 1 9; 6 28;

14 5).
(8) The lack of water caused great suffering (Ex 15 22; Dt 8 15; 2 K 3 9; Ps 63 1; Prov 9 17; Ezk 4 11; Lam 5 4). See also Fountain; Pit; Pool; Spring; Well. Alfred H. Joy

WATER OF BITTERNESS (OR OF JEAL-OUSY). See Adultery, (2).

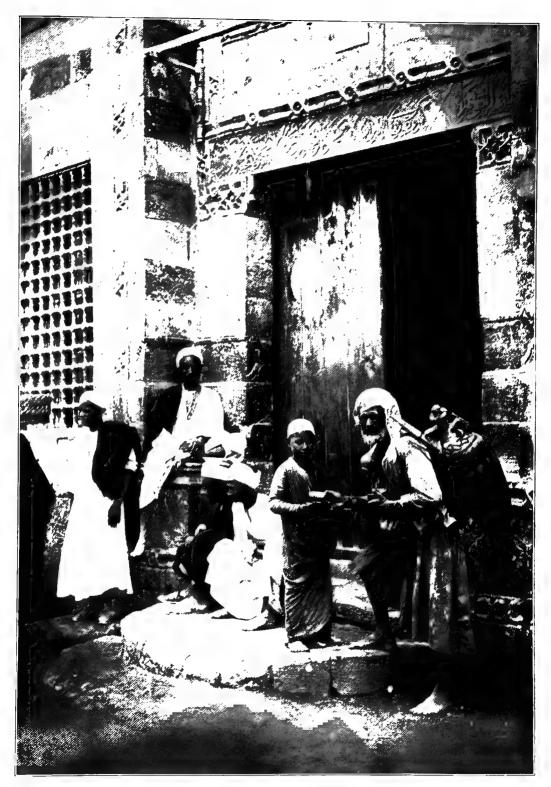
WATER OF SEPARATION (OR OF UNCLEAN-NESS). See Defilement; Separation; Unclean-

WATERCOURSE, wô'tēr-kōrs: (1) מְלַּמְיּלּ 'āphīk (Ezk 6 3; 31 12; 32 6; 34 13; 35 8; 36 4.6), AV "river," elsewhere "stream," "channel," or "brook." (2) אָבֶּי, pelegh (Prov 21 1). "The king's heart is in the hand of Jeh as the water-courses," AV "rivers," elsewhere "streams" or "rivers." (3) יְבֶּלְ מִיִּם, yābhāl, בְּבֶּלִי מִיִּם, yibh·ley mayim, "watercourses" (EV) (Isa 44 4); in Isa 30 25, EV has "streams of water"; cf יוּבֶל, yūbhal, "rivers" (Jer 17 8); יוּבָּל , yūbhāl, "Jubal" (Gen 4 21); אַרְבֶּל , 'w̄bhal, "the river Ulai" (Dnl 8 2.3.6). (4) אַרָּה, te'ālāh, "channel," AV "watercourse" (Job 38 25); elsewhere "conduit," "the conduit of the upper pool" (2 K 18 17; Isa 7 3; 36 2). (5) אַנוֹע , çinnōr, "watercourse," AV "gutter" (2 S 5 8). See Brook; RIVER; STREAM; WATERFALL. ALFRED ELY DAY

WATERFALL, wô'tēr-fôl (אַנּלּר, cinnōr; only in ARV [Ps 42 7]):

> "Deep calleth unto deep at the noise of thy waterfalls; All thy waves and thy billows are gone over me.

AV and ERV have "waterspouts," ERVm "cataracts." The etymology of the word is uncertain.



A VENDOR OF WATER

It occurs also in 2 S 5 8, trd "watercourse," AV "gutter." Cf אָלְקּוֹרוֹשׁ, canterōth, "spouts" (Zec 4 12).

WATERPOT, wô'tēr-pot (ὑδρία, hudria; cf ὕδωρ, húdōr, "water"): An earthen vessel, or jar, for carrying or holding water (in LXX for 📆, kadh,



Eastern Waterpots.

"jar," or "pitcher"). It was usually carried by women upon the head, or upon the shoulder (Jn 4 28). Pots of larger size, holding eighteen or twenty gallons apiece, were used by the Jews for purposes of ceremonial purification (Jn 2 6).

WATERS, wô'tērz (፲፫፫, mayim, pl. of "፲, may, "water"; in the NT ὕδωρ, hidōr, "water"; κινδύνοις ποταμῶν, kindúnois potamôn [2 Cor 11 26], AV "perils of waters," is in RV "perils of rivers"): In the NT there is frequent reference to the water of baptism. Pilate washes his hands with water to signify his guiltlessness. Jesus tells the Sam woman of the living water. The Lamb shall guide the redeemed unto fountains of waters of life.

The uses of mayim are well classified in BDB, esp. the figurative references, as follows: a symbol of distress, "when thou passest through the waters" (Isa 43 2); of force, "like the breach of waters" (2 S 5 20); of that which is overwhelming, "a tempest of mighty waters overflowing" (Isa 28 2); of fear, "The hearts of the people . . . became as water" (Josh 7 5); of transitoriness, "Thou shalt remember it as waters that are passed away" (Job 11 16); of refreshment, "as streams of water in a dry place" (Isa 32 2); of peace, "He leadeth me beside still waters" (Ps 23 2); of legitimate pleasures, "waters out of thine own cistern" (Prov 5 15); of illegitimate pleasures, "Stolen waters are sweet" (Prov 9 17); of that which is poured out abundantly, blood (Ps 79 3), wrath (Hos 5 10), justice (Am 5 24), groanings (Job 3 24).

WATERS OF MEROM. See MEROM, WATERS

WATERS OF STRIFE, strif. See MERIBAH.

WATERSPOUT, wô'tếr-spout: (1) אָלְּבֶּוֹר (Ps 42 7), ARV "waterfalls," AV and ERV "waterspouts," ERVm "cataracts." (2) אָנָר , tannīn (Ps 148 7), ARV "sea-monsters," AV and ERV

"dragons," ERVm "sea-monsters" or "waterspouts."

"Praise Jeh from the earth, Ye sea-monsters, and all deeps."

See Dragon; Sea-Monster; Waterfall.
Alfred Ely Day

WAVE OFFERING, wav of'ering. See Sacrifice in the OT.

WAW, waw ($\$): The sixth letter of the Heb alphabet; transliterated in this Encyclopaedia w (or v). It came also to be used for the number 6. For name, etc, see Alphabet.

WAX, waks:

(1) Noun (קּדּלְבֵּל, dōnagh): Used only in a simile of melting (Ps **22** 14; **68** 2; **97** 5; Mic **1** 4). But see Writing.

(2) A now archaic vb., meaning "to grow," used freely in EV as a tr of various terms in Gr and Heb. The past participle in AV and ERV is "waxen," except in Gen 18 12. There (and throughout in ARV) the form is "waxed."

WAY, wā (תֹבֵאׁ, 'ōraḥ, אֶּרֶקְ, 'orḥā', אֶבֶלּ, 'ereç, גוֹא , bō', דְּרֶדְ, derekh, הַלִּיכְה , hǎlīkhāh, הָנְּלָה , maˈgālāh, בְּלְבָּוֹה , nāthībh; òδos, hodós, πάροδοs, párodos, πορεία, poreía, τρόπος, trópos; "highway," ΤζΟς, mי sillah, מַסְלּוּל , maslal; διεξόδοι τῶν ὁδῶν, diexodoitôn hodôn): The list just cited contains only a portion of the words trd "way" or "highway" in AV. Most of them have the primary meaning of "road," "customary path." "course of travel" (Gen 3 24; Ex 23 20; Nu 20 17, etc). By a very easy and natural figure "way" is applied to the course of natural ngure "way" is applied to the course of human conduct, the manner of life which one lives (Ex 18 20; 32 8; Nu 22 32; 1 S 8 3; 1 K 13 33, etc; Acts 14 16; 1 Cor 4 17; Jas 5 20). "The way of an eagle . . . of a serpent . . . of a ship . . . and of a man" (Prov 30 19) agree in that they leave no trace behind them (cf Wisd 5 10 11). In some asset the longuage man had a 5 10.11). In some cases the language may be such as to leave it indeterminate whether the way or course of conduct is good or bad (Dt 28 29; 1 S 18 14; 2 Ch 27 7; Job 13 15; Prov 3 6; 6 6; Jas 18), though in most cases the Bible writers attach to every act an ethical evaluation. Sometimes this way of conduct is of purely human choice, without reference to either God or good (Jgs 2 19; Job 22 15; 34 21; Ps 119 9; Prov 12 15; 16 2). Such a course is evil (2 Ch 7 14; Ps 1 6; 119 101.104. a course is evil (2 ch 7 14, Fs 1 6, 113 101.164. 128; Prov 1 19, etc) and will obtain such punish-ment as its lack of merit warrants (1 K 8 32.39; 2 Ch 6 23; Job 30 12; 34 11; Jer 17 10; Ezk 7 3.9; Hos 12 2). At the opposite extreme from this is the good way (Ps 1 6; Prov 8 20; 12 28; this is the good way (FS 1 6, Frov 8 20, 12 28, 15 10; Isa 26 7), which is that course of conduct enjoined by God and exemplified in His perfect conduct (Gen 6 12; 18 19; Dt 8 6; 26 17; 1 K 2 3; Job 23 11; Ps 51 13, etc). These two ways briefly but graphically described by the Lord (Mt 7 13.14; cf Lk 13 24) became the subject of extended catechetical instruction in the early church. See the Ep. of Barnabas, xviii, and the Did., i.1. Frequently the way in this metaphorical sense is characterized by that quality which is its outstanding feature, e.g. mention is made of the way of life (Prov 15 24; Jer 21 8; Acts 2 28); of truth (Ps 119 30; 2 Pet 2 2); of peace (Isa 59 8; Lk 1 79; Rom 3 17); of justice (Prov 17 23; Dnl 4 37); of righteousness (Mt 21 32; 2 Pet 2 21); of salvation (Acts 16 17); of lying (Ps 119 29), and of death (Jer 21 8). Frequently God's purpose or His customary action is quently God's purpose or His customary action is described as His way (Ps 103 7; Isa 26 8; Mt 22 16; Acts 13 10). Since all of God's plans and pur-

poses tend toward man's salvation, His provisions to this end are frequently spoken of as His Way, and inasmuch as all of the Divine plans center in Christ He is preeminently the Way (Jn 14 6). Out of this fact grew the title, "The Way," one of the earliest names applied to Christianity (Acts 9 2; 18 25.26; 19 9.23; 22 4; 24 22).

The word highway is used to denote a prominent road, such a one for example as was anciently maintained for royal travel and by royal authority. It is always used in the literal sense except in Prov 15 19; 16 17, where it is a course of conduct. See also Path, Pathway. W. C. Morro

WAY, COVERED. See COVERED WAY.

WAY, LITTLE (בְּלֶרָה, kibhrāh, "length," "a measure"): A technical measure of distance in the Heb; but it must be considered undefined (Gen 35 16; 48 7 AV, ERV "some way," ARV "some distance"; 2 K 5 19, ERV "some way," ARVm "some distance"). The Heb term kibhrāh is also found in Phon invariations of distance of dis found in Phoen inscriptions as a measure of dis-

WAYFARING, wā'fâr-ing, MAN: The tr in Jgs 19 17; 2 S 12 4; Jer 9 2; 14 8 of \(\tau\). '\(\tau\). '\(\ta\) in \(\ta\) 33 8 of '\(\ta\) bh\(\ta\)' \(\ta\) and, "to journey." In Isa 33 8 of '\(\ta\) bh\(\ta\)' \(\ta\) and in Isa 35 8 of \(\ta\) bl\(\ta\) derekh, "one walking on a road." "Traveler" is the meaning in all cases.

WAYMARK, wā'märk (ፕትች, çīyūn): In Jer 31 21, "Set thee up waymarks," explained by the parallel, "Make thee guide-posts" (AV "Make thee high heaps"). A sign or guiding mark on the highwav.

WEALTH, welth, WEALTHY, wel'thi (がつ, hōn, π, hayil, ςζζ, nekhāşīm; εὐπορία, euporia, "to possess riches," "to be in a position of ease" [Jer 49 31]): The possession of wealth is not regarded as sinful, but, on the contrary, was looked upon as a sign of the blessing of God (Eccl 5 19; 6 2). The doctrine of "blessed are the poor, and cursed are the rich" finds no countenance in the Scriptures, for Lk 6 20.24 refers to concrete conditions (disciples and persecutors; note the "ye"). God is the maker of rich and poor alike (Prov 22 2). But while it is not sinful to be rich it is very dangerous, and certainly perilous to one's salvation (Mt 19 23). Of this fact the rich young ruler is a striking example (Lk 18 22.23). It is because of the danger of losing the soul through the possession of wealth that so many exhortations are found in the Scriptures aimed esp. at those who have an abundance of this aimed esp. at those who have an abundance of this world's goods (1 Tim 6 17; Jas 1 10.11; 5 1, etc). Certain parables are esp. worthy of note in this same connection, e.g. the Rich Fool (Lk 12 16-21), the Rich Man and Lazarus—if such can be called a parable—(Lk 16 19-31). That it is not impossible for men of wealth to be saved, however, is apparent from the narratives, in the Gospels, of such rich men as Nicodemus, and Joseph of Arimathaea (Jn 19 38.39; Mt 27 57-60), and Zacchaeus (Lk 19 1-10). It may fairly be inferred from the Gospel records that James and John, who were disciples of Our Lord, were men of considerable means (Mk 1 19. 20; Jn 19 27).

Wealth may be the result of industry (Prov 104), or the result of the special blessing of God (2 Ch 1 11.12). We are warned to be careful lest at any time we should say "My power and the might of my hand hath gotten me this wealth. But thou shalt remember Jeh thy God, for it is he that giveth thee power to get wealth" (Dt 8 17.18).

Those possessing wealth are liable to certain kinds of sins against which they are frequently warned, e.g., high-mindedness (1 Tim 6 17); oppression of the poor (Jas 2 6); selfshness (Lk 12 and 16); dishonesty (Lk 19 1-10); self-conceit (Prov 28 11); self-trust (Prov 18 11).

It is of interest to note that in the five places in the NT in which the word "lucre"—as applying to wealth—is used, it is prefaced by the word "filthy" (1 Tim 3 3 [AV].8; Tit 1 7.11; 1 Pet 5 2), and that in four of these five places it refers to the income of ministers of the gospel, as though they were particularly susceptible of being led away by the influences and power of money, and so needed special warning.

The Scriptures are not without instruction as to how we may use our wealth wisely and as wellpleasing to God. The parable of the Unjust Steward (Lk 16) exhorts us to "make . . . friends by means of the mammon of unrighteousness," by which is meant that we should use the wealth which God has committed to us as stewards in order that we may win friends (souls) with it for Him and His kingdom, just as the unfaithful steward used the goods with which his master had intrusted him to make friends for himself. The parable of Dives and Lazarus gives us the sad picture of a selfish rich man who had abused his trust, who had failed to make friends with his money, and who, in the other world, would have given anything just for such a friend (Lk 16 19-31). See also RICHES. WILLIAM EVANS

WEAN, wen: "To wean" in EV is always the tr of נְבֵּל, gāmal, but gāmal has a much wider force than merely "to wean," signifying "to deal fully with," as in Ps 13 6, etc. Hence, as applied to a child, gāmal covers the whole period of nursing and care until the weaning is complete (1 K 11 20). This period in ancient Israel extended to about 3 years, and when it was finished the child was mature enough to be intrusted to strangers (1 S 1 24). And, as the completion of the period marked the end of the most critical stage of the child's life, it was celebrated with a feast (Gen 21 8), a custom still observed in the Orient. The weaned child, no longer fretting for the breast and satisfied with its mother's affection, is used in Ps 131 2 as a figure for Israel's contentment with God's care, despite the smallness of earthly possessions. In Isa 28 9 there is an ironical question, 'Is God to teach you knowledge as if you were children? You should knowledge as in you not have learned His will long ago!'
BURTON SCOTT EASTON

WEAPONS, wep'unz. See Armor.

WEASEL, we'z'l (לְבֹּוֹה , hōledh; cf Arab. בּבּׁבּׁבּׁׁה, khuld, "mole-rat"): (i) Hōledh is found only in Lev 11 29, where it stands first in the list of eight unclean "creeping things that creep upon the earth. AV and RV agree in rendering $h\bar{\rho}ledh$ by "weasel," and LXX has $\gamma a\lambda \hat{\eta}$, $gal\hat{t}$, "weasel" or "marten." According to Gesenius, the Vulg, Tg and Talm support the same rendering. In spite of this array of authorities, it is worth while to consider the claims of the mole-rat, Spalax typhlus, Arab. khuld. This is a very common rodent, similar in appearance and habits to the mole, which does not exist in Pal. The fact that it burrows may be considered against it, in view of the words, "that creepeth upon the earth." The term "creeping thing" is, however, very applicable to it, and the objection seems like a quibble, esp. in view of the fact that there is no category of subterranean animals. See Mole. (2) The weasel, Mustela vulgaris, has a wide range in Asia, Europe, and North America. It is from 8 to 10 in. long, including the short tail. It is brown above and white below. In the northern part of its range, its range, its whole fur, except the tail, is white in winter. It is active and fearless, and preys upon all sorts of small mammals, birds and insects. See LIZARD.

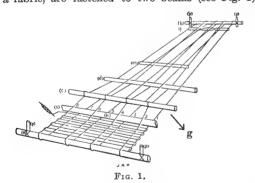
ALFRED ELY DAY

רוֹם, yōm [Prov 25 20], trd "day"; ev8(a, eudia, χειμών, cheimon, "tempest"): In the "clear sky, "clear sky," χειμων, cneemon, venipess γ. In East it is not customary to talk of the weather as in the West. There seems to be no word in the Heb corresponding to "weather." In Job 37 22 AV translates "Fair weather comes out of the north, but RV translates more literally, "Out of the north cometh golden splendor." "As one that taketh off a garment in cold weather [or lit. "on a cold day" . . so is he that singeth songs to a heavy heart" (Prov 25 20).

Jesus rebukes the Pharisees for their lack of spiritual foresight when they took such interest in natural foresight. He said, "When it is evening, ye say, It will be fair weather: for the heaven is red. And in the morning, It will be foul weather to-day: for the heaven is red and lowering" (Mt 16 2.3). The general conditions of the weather in the difference of the weather i ent seasons are less variable in Pal than in colder countries, but the precise weather for a given day is very hard to predict on account of the proximity of the mountains, the desert and the sea.

ALFRED H. JOY

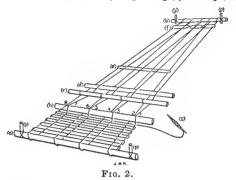
WEAVING, we'ving: Although weaving was one of the most important and best developed of the crafts of Bible times, yet we have but few Bib. references to enlighten us as to the processes used in those early days. A knowledge of the technique of weaving is necessary, however, if we are to understand some of the Bib. incidents. The principle of weaving in all ages is illustrated by the process of darning. The hole to be darned is laid over with parallel threads which correspond to the "warp" (ישׁרָּבּי) of a woven fabric. Then, by means of a darning needle which takes the place of the shuttle in the loom, other threads are interlaced back and forth at right angles to the first set of strands. This second set corresponds to the woof עֶרֶב, 'ērebh) or weft of woven cloth. The result is a web of threads across the hole. If the warp threads, instead of being attached to the edges of a fabric, are fastened to two beams (see Fig. 1)



which can be stretched either on a frame or on the ground, and the woof is interlaced exactly as in darning, the result will be a web of cloth. The process is then called weaving (\(\mathbb{I}\), '\(\alpha\), and the apparatus a loom. The most up-to-date loom of our modern mills differs from the above only in the devices for accelerating the process. The first of these improvements dates back some 5,000 years to the early Egyptians, who discovered what is technically known as *shedding*, i.e. dividing the warp into two sets of threads, every other thread being lifted so that the woof can run between, as is shown in the diagram of the Arab. loom.

Figs. 1 and 2 show the working of the looms still commonly used among the Bedouins. For the sake of

clearness only eight threads are shown in the warp. In reality the eight strands are made by passing one continuous thread back and forth between the two poles (a) and (b), held apart by the stakes (p) driven into the ground. In Fig. 1 the even strands are shown running through loops of string attached to the rod (c), and thence under the beam (d) to the pole (b). By placing the ends of (c) on stones (see Fig. 3), or by suspending (c) on loops, the



even threads are raised above the odd, thus forming a shed through which the weft can be passed. The separating of odds and evens is assisted by a flat board (h) of wedge-shaped cross-section, which is turned at right angles to the odds. After the shuttle has been passed across, this same stick is used to beat up the weft. In Fig. 2 the second position of the threads is shown: (c) is removed from the stones or loops, and allowed to lie loosely on the warp; (d) is pulled forward toward the weaver and raised on the stones in the position previously occupied by (c). The flat spreader is passed through the new shed in which the odds are now above and the evens below. The weft is run through and is beaten into place with the thin edge of (h). The shuttle (s) commonly used is a straight tree branch on which the thread is loosely wound "kite-string" fashion.

The loom used by Delilah was no doubt like the one described above (Jgs 16 13.14). It would have been an easy matter for her to run in Samson's locks as strands of the weft while he lay sleeping on the ground near the loom at a position corresponding to (g). The passage might be transposed thus: "And he said unto her, If thou weavest the seven locks of my head into the web. And she passed in his locks and beat them up with the batten [קר, $y\bar{a}th\bar{e}dh$] [see h, Fig. 1], and said unto him, The Philistines are upon thee, Samson. And he awakened out of his sleep and as he jumped up he pulled away the pins of the loom" (p, Fig. 1).

The counterpart of the Bedouin loom is shown on the ancient tombs at Beni Hasan (see EB, 5279, or Wilkinson, I, 317). As Dr. Kennedy points out, the artist of that ancient picture has unwittingly reversed the order of the beams. The shedding beam, of the two, should be nearer the weaver. At what period the crude shedding device described above was replaced by a double set of loops worked by pedals is unknown. Some writers believe that the Jews were acquainted with it. The "flying shuttle" of the modern loom is probably a comparatively recent invention.

The products of the Bedouin looms are coarse in texture. Such passages as Ex 35 35; Isa 19 9, and examples of ancient weaving, lead us to believe that in Bible times contemporaneous with the primitive loom were more highly developed machines, just as in the cities of Egypt and Paltoday, alongside of the crude Bedouin loom, are found the more intricate hand looms on which are produced the most delicate fabrics possible to the weaver's art. Examples of cloth comparing favorably with our best grades of muslin have been found among the Egyp mummy wrappings.

Two other forms of looms have been used for weaving, in both of which the warp is upright. In one type the strands of the warp, singly or in bundles, are suspende from a beam and held taut by numerous small weights

made of stones or pottery. Dr. Bliss found at Tel el-Hesy collections of weights, sometimes 60 or more together, individual examples of which showed marks where cords had been attached to them. These he assumed were weavers' weights (see A Mound of Many Cities). In this form the weaving was necessarily from top to bottom.

The second type of upright loom is still used in some parts of Syria, esp. for weaving coarse goat's hair cloth. In this form the warp is attached to the lower beam and passes vertically upward over another beam and thence to a wall where it is gathered in a rope and tied to a peg, or it is held taut by heavy stone weights. The manipulation is much the same as in the primitive loom, except that the weft is beaten up with an iron comb. The web is wound up on the lower beam as it is woven (cf Isa 38 12).

In all these kinds of weaving the Syrian weavers of today are very skilful. If a cylindrical web is referred to in Jn 19 23, then Jesus' tunic must have been woven with two sets of warp threads on an upright loom so arranged that the weft could be passed first through one shed and then around to the other side and back through the shed of the second set.

Goliath's spear was compared in thickness to that of the weaver's beam, i.e. 2 in. to $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. in diameter (1 S 17 7; 2 S 21 19; 1 Ch 11 23; 20 5) (see d, Fig. 1).

In Job 7 6, if "shuttle" is the right rendering



Fig. 3.—Showing "Shed" of Arab Loom.

Patterns are woven into the web (1) by making the warp threads of different colors, (2) by alternating colors in the weft, (3) by a combination of (1) and (2); this produces checked work (720).



Fig. 4.—Showing Upright Loom.

shibbeç, Ex 28 39 RV); (4) by running special weft threads through only a portion of the warp. requires much skill and is probably the kind of weaving referred to in Ex 26 1 ff; Ezk 16 13; 27 16; (5) when metals are to be woven, they are rolled thin, cut into narrow strips, wound in spirals about threads of cotton or linen (cf Ex 28 5 ff; 39 3 ff). for אָרֶג, 'eregh, the reference is to the rapidity with which the thread of the shuttle is used up, as the second part of the verse indicates.

For a very full discussion of the terms employed see A. R. S. Kennedy in EB, IV, 5276-90. JAMES A. PATCH

WEB. See SPIDER; WEAVING.

WEDDING. See Marriage.

WEDGE, wej, OF GOLD (בְּשׁוֹן זָהָב, lāshōn zāhābh, lit. "tongue of gold"): A piece of gold in the form of a wedge found by Achan in the sack of Jericho. It was in one of the forms in which gold was used for money and was probably stamped or marked to indicate its weight, which was 50 shekels, i.e. one *māneh*, according to the Heb standard, or nearly two pounds troy. Its value would be £102 10s., or \$510. See MONEY; POUND. A wedge, or rather, oblong rectangular strip of gold, of similar weight has been found in the excavations of Gezer (Macalister, Bible Side-Lights, 121). Along with metal rings they were doubtless used as an early form of currency. In Isa 13 12 AV, kethem, "pure gold" (so RV), is trd as "golden wedge" on insufficient grounds.

H. Porter

WEEDS, wedz ($\Box \Box \Box$), $\S \bar{u}ph$, "a weed" [Jon 2 5]). See FLAG; COCKLE; RED SEA.

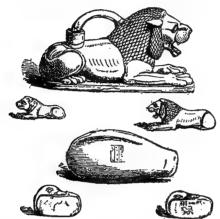
WEEK, wēk (ソスヴ, shebha', from ソコヴ, shebha', "seven"; σάββατον-τα, sábbaton-ta, "from sabbath to sabbath"): The seven-day division of time common to the Hebrews and Babylonians (Gen 29 27, 28; Lk 18 12). See ASTRONOMY; TIME. "Week" is used in the apocalyptic writings of Daniel for an unknown, prophetic period (Dnl 9 24-27). For the names of the days see Astrology, 12.

WEEKS, FEAST OF. See PENTECOST.

WEEKS, SEVENTY. See SEVENTY WEEKS.

WEEPING, wep'ing. See Burial, IV, 4, 5, 6.

WEIGHT, wat (Measure of quantity) (בְּשָׁקַלּ) mishkāl, יְלָּבֶלֶ , mishkāl [Ezk 4 10], from אָבָלָּט, shākal, "to weigh," אָבָּל, 'ebhen, "a stone," used for weighing in the balance): Weights were commonly



Bronze and Stone Weights Used in Nineveh.

of stone or bronze (or of lead, Zec 5 7.8). They were of various forms, such as the lion-shaped weights of Babylonia and Assyria, or in the form of birds and other animals. The Heb and Phoen weights, when made of stone, were barrel- or spindle-shaped, but in bronze they were often cubical or octagonal or with numerous faces (see illustration under Weights and Measures). Hemispherical or dome-shaped stone weights have been found in Pal

(*PEFS*, 1902, p. 344; 1903, p. 117; 1904, p. 209). **Figurative:** The phrase "without weight" (2 K **25** Figurative: The phrase "without weight" (2 K 25 16) signifies a quantity too great to be estimated. "Weight of glory" (2 Cor 4 17, βάρος, bάπος) has a similar meaning, but with a spiritual reference. "Weighty," "weightier" (Mt 23 23; 2 Cor 10 10, βαρός, bαπάς, βαρότερος, bαπάτετος), signify what is important. The Gr δγκος, όgkος (He 12 1), is used in the sense of burden, hindrance, as is also the Heb nēţel (Prov 27 3).

H. PORTER

WEIGHTS, wats, AND MEASURES: The system of weights and measures in use among the Hebrews was derived from Babylonia and Egypt, esp. from the former. The influence of these countries upon Pal has long been recognized, but archaeological investigations in recent years have shown that the civilization of Babylonia impressed itself upon Syria and Pal more profoundly in early times than did that of Egypt. The evidence of this

has been most clearly shown by the discovery of the Am Tab, which reveal the fact that the official correspondence between the Egyp kings and their vassals in these lands was carried on in the language of Babylonia long after its political influence had been supplanted by that of Egypt. It is natural, then, that we should look to Babylonia for the origin of such important elements of civilization as a system of weights and measures.

It was quite natural that men should have found a standard for linear measures in the parts of the human body, and we find the cubit,

1. Linear originally the length of the forearm, taken as the standard, and the span, the palm and the digit, or finger-Measures breadth, associated with it in linear measurement. They do not seem to have employed the foot, though it is represented in the two-thirds of the cubit, which was used by the Babylonians in the manu-

facture of building-brick.

This system, though adequate enough for man in the earliest times, was not so for an advanced stage of civilization, such as the Babylonians reached before the days of Abraham, and we find that they had introduced a far more accurate and scientific system (see Cubit). They seem to have employed, however, two cubits, of different lengths, one for commercial purposes and one for building. We have no undoubted examples of either, but judging by the dimensions of their square building-bricks, which are regarded as being two-thirds of a cubit on a side, we judge the latter to have been of about 19 or 20 in. Now we learn from investigations in Egypt that a similar cubit was employed there, being of from 20.6 to 20.77 in., and it can hardly be doubted that the Hebrews were familiar with this cubit, but that in more common use was certainly shorter. We have no certain means of determining the length of the ordinary cubit among the Hebrews, but there are two ways by which we may approxi-mate its value. The Siloam Inscription states that the tunnel in which it was found was 1,200 cubits The actual length has been found to be about 1,707 ft., which would give a cubit of about 17.1 in. (see *PEFS*, 1902, 179). Of course the given length may be a round number, but it gives a close approximation.

Again, the Mish states that the height of a man is 4 cubits, which we may thus regard as the average stature of a Jew in former times. By reference to Jewish tombs we find that they were of a length to give a cubit of something over 17 in., supposing the stature to be as above, which approximates very closely to the cubit of the Siloam tunnel. The consensus of opinion at the present day inclines toward a cubit of 17.6 in. for commercial purposes and one of about 20 in. for building. This custom of having two standards is illustrated by the practice in Syria today, where the builder's measure, or dra', is about

2 in. longer than the commercial.

Of multiples of the cubit we have the measuringreed of 6 long cubits, which consisted of a cubit and a hand-breadth each (Ezk 40 5), or about 10 ft. Another measure was the Sabbath day's journey, which was reckoned at 2,000 cubits, or about 1,000 yds. The measuring-line was used also, but whether it had a fixed length we do not know. Sabbath Day's Journey; Measuring Line. The following is the table of linear measures:

LINEAR MEASURE			
Finger or digit (") ['eçba')	abou	t 🚦 ir	n.
Hand-breadth or palm (TD7), tephah)	**	3 ir	a.
Span (TTT, zereth)	4.6	9 ir	a.
Span (111, 2eren) Cubit (TON, 'ammāh). 2 spans.	44	17 6 ir	n
Cubit (7728, 'ammah).	44	10 8	
Reed (T), kāneh)		10 10	
Sabbath day's journey (σαββάτου όδός, sabbátou hodós)2,000 "	**	3,600 ft	t.

In the NT we have the fathom ($\delta\rho\gamma$ uid, orguid), about 6 ft., and the furlong ($\sigma\tau d\delta\omega\nu$, stddion), 600 Gr ft. or $606\frac{3}{4}$ Eng. ft., which is somewhat less than one-eighth of a mile. The mile ($\mu l\lambda\omega\nu$, milion) was 5,000 Rom ft., or 4,854 Eng. ft., somewhat less than the Eng. mile.

Regarding the absolute value of the measures of capacity among the Hebrews there is rather more

2. Measures of capacity

uncertainty than there is concerning those of length and weight, since no examples of the former have come down to us; but their relative value is known. Sir Charles Warren considers them to

have been derived from the measures of length by cubing the cubit and its divisions, as also in the case of weight. We learn from Ezk (45 11) that the bath and ephah were equivalent, and he (Warren) estimates the capacity of these as that of \$\frac{1}{2}\$\$ of the cubit cubed, or about 2,333.3 cubic in., which would correspond to about 9 gallons Eng. measure. Assuming this as the standard, we get the following tables for liquid and dry measure:

the talent, but the Hebrews reckoned only 50 shekels to the *māneh*, as appears from Ex **38** 25.26, where it is stated that the amount of silver collected from 603,550 males was 100 talents and 1,775 shekels, and, as each contributed a half-shekel, the whole amount must have been 301,775. Deducting the 1,775 shekels mentioned besides the 100 talents, we have 300,000 or 3,000 to the talent, and, as there were 60 *mānehs* in the talent, there were 50 shekels to each *māneh*. When the Hebrews adopted this system we do not know, but it was in vogue at a very early date.

The shekel was divided into gerahs, 20 to a shekel (Ex 30 13). The gerah (TM, gērāh) is supposed to be some kind of seed, perhaps a bean or some such plant. The shekel of which it formed a part was probably the royal or commercial shekel of 160 grains, derived from Babylon. But the Hebrews certainly had another shekel, called the Phoen from its being the standard of the Phoen traders. This would be natural on account of the close connection of the two peoples ever since the days of David and

1	log.													. appı	roximatel	y l	pint
4	logs.	1 kab													••	2	qus.
							i)								**	3	qts., 1_{5} pts.
24	4.6	6 kabs	s, Šį	omers,	1 sea	ah (7	ې بې چې پې چې	āh, 1 K	18 32)			, .		44	1 3	pecks
72	4.4	18''	10	4.6	3 sea	ahs, 1	ephah	, אֶפַה)	'ēphāh	, Ex 1	6 36).				**	4	t "
360	4.6	90 ''	50	4.4	15 '	' 5	ephahs	s, 1 leth	ech (न	, letl	hekh, I	Ios 3	2).		**	5	bu., 2½ pecks
		80 "	100	44	30 '	' 10	**	2 leth	echs, 1	homer	or ko	r (Ez	k 45	14)	4.6	11	bu., 1 peck

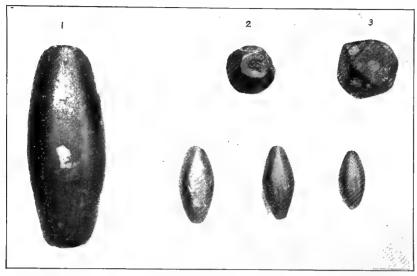
 $S^{\circ}\bar{a}h$ and lethekh, in the above, occur in the Heb text, but only in the margin of the Eng. It will be noticed that the prevailing element in these tables is the duodecimal which corresponds to the sexagesimal of the Bab system, but it will be seen that in the case of weights there was a tendency on the part of the Hebrews to employ the decimal system, making the $m\bar{a}neh$ 50 shekels instead of 60, and the talent 3,000 instead of 3,600, of the Bab, so here we see the same tendency in making the ' $\bar{o}mer$ the tenth of the ' $\bar{e}ph\bar{a}h$ and the ' $\bar{e}ph\bar{a}h$ the tenth of the $h\bar{o}mer$ or $k\bar{o}r$.

Weights were probably based by the ancients upon grains of wheat or barley, but the Egyptians and Babylonians early adopted a more

3. Weights scientific method. Sir Charles Warren thinks that they took the cubes of the measures of length and ascertained how many grains of barley corresponded to the quantity of water these cubes would contain. Thus he infers that the Egyptians fixed the weight of a cubic inch of rain water at 220 grains, and the Babylonians at 2222. Taking the cubic palm at 25.928 cubic in., the weight of that quantity of water would be 5,760 ancient grains. The talent he regards as the weight of 2/3 of a cubit cubed, which would be equal to 101.6 cubic palms, but assumes that for convenience it was taken at 100, the weight being 576,000 grains, deriving from this the maneh (1/60 of the talent) of 9,600 grains, and a shekel (1/50 of the māneh) 192 grains. But we have evidence that the Heb shekel differed from this and that they used different shekels at different periods. The shekel derived from Babylonia had a double standard: the light of 160 grains, or 1/3600 of the talent; and the heavy of just double this, of 320 grains. The former seems to have been used before the captivity and the latter after. The Bab system was sexagesimal, i.e. 60 shekels went to the maneh and 60 manehs to Solomon, but we have certain evidence of it from the extant examples of the monetary shekels of the Jews, which are of this standard, or very nearly so, allowing some loss from abrasion. The Phoen shekel was about 224 grains, varying somewhat in different localities, and the Jewish shekels now in existence vary from 212 to 220 grains. They were coined after the captivity (see Coins), but whether this standard was in use before we have no means of knowing.

Examples of ancient weights have been discovered in Pal by archaeological research during recent years, among them one from Samaria, obtained by Dr. Chaplin, bearing the inscription, in Heb, rebha' neceph (בצל נצה). This is interpreted, by the help of the cognate Arab., as meaning "quarter-half," i.e. of a shekel. The actual weight is 39.2 grains, which, allowing a slight loss, would correspond quite closely to a quarter-shekel of the light Bab standard of 160 grains, or the quarter of the half of the double standard. Another specimen discovered at Tell Zakariyeh weighs 154 grains, which would seem to belong to the same standard. The weights, of which illustrations are given in the table, are all in the collection of the Syrian Protestant College, at Beirût, and were obtained from Pal and Phoenicia and are of the Phoen standard, which was the common commercial standard of Pal. The largest, of the spindle or barrel type (Fig. 1), weighs 1,350 grains, or 87.46 grams, evidently intended for a 6shekel weight, and the smaller ones of the same type are fractions of the Phoen shekel. Figs. 2 and 3 are of the same standard, one a shekel and the other a two-shekel weight. They each have 12 faces, and the smaller has a lion stamped on each face save one, reminding us of the lion-weights discovered in Assyria and Babylonia. The spindle weights are of black stone, the others of bronze.

TABLE OF HEBREW WEIGHTS			
Gerah (Ex 30 13, ¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬¬	bout	11	grains
Beka' (half-shekel, Ex 38 26, デュ, beka')	4.6	122	grains
Shekel (DD, shekel)	4.6	224 o	r 225 grains
$M\bar{a}neh = 50$ shekels (pound, 1 K 10 17, $\pi \bar{a}neh$), $m\bar{a}neh$)	6.6	11 200	"
Talent =60 mānehs or 3,000 shekels (Ex 38 25, קבָּב, kikkār)	44	672,000	**



WEIGHTS OF PHOENICIAN STANDARD.

The above is the Phoen standard. In the Bab the shekel would be 160 or 320 grains; the māneh 8,000 or 16,000, and the talent 480,000 or 960,000 grains, according as it was of the light or heavy standard.

H. Porter

well: (1) אָב, bº'ēr; cf Arab. , bi'r, "well" or "cistern"; usually artificial: "And Isaac's servants digged in the valley, and found there a well of springing [m "living"] water" (Gen 26 19); sometimes covered: "Jacob . . . rolled the stone from the well's mouth" (Gen 29 10). Bº'ēr may also be a pit: "The vale of Siddim was full of slime pits" (Gen 14 10); "the pit of destruction" (Ps 55 23). (2) בוֹל b̄ਰr, usually "pit": "Let us slay him, and cast him into one of the pits" (Gen 37 20); may be "well": "drew water out of the well of Beth-lehem" (2 S 23 16).

(2 S 23 16).
(3) πηγή, pēgē, usually "running water," "fount," or "source": "Doth the fountain send forth from the same opening sweet water and bitter?" (Jas 3 11); may be "well"; cf "Jacob's well" (Jn 4 6).
(4) φρέαρ, phréar, usually "pit": "the pit of the abyss" (Rev 9 1); but "well"; cf "Jacob's well" (Jn 4 11.12): "Which of you shall have an ass or an ox fallen into a well" (AV "pit") (Lk 14 5).
(5) κρήνη, krēnē, "wells" (Sir 48 17), Lat fons, "spring" (Z Esd 2 32).

"spring" (2 Est 2 32).

(6) "Y, 'ayin; cf Arab. 'ain, "fountain,"
"spring": "the fountain [EV] which is in Jezreel"
(1 8 29 1); "In Elim were twelve springs [AV "fountains"] of water" (Nu 33 9); "She [Rebekah] went down to the fountain" (AV "well") (Gen 24 16); "the jackal's well" (ERV "the dragon's well," AV "the dragon well") (Neh 2 13). (7) ", ma'yān, same root as (6); "the fountain [AV "well"] of the waters of Nephtoah" (Josh 18 15); "Passing through the valley of Weeping [AV "Baca"] they make it a place of springs" (AV "well") (Ps 84 6); "Ye shall

draw water out of the wells of salvation" (Isa 12 3). (8) מָקוֹר , māķōr, usually figurative: "With thee is the fountain of life" (Ps 36 9); "The mouth of the righteous is a fountain [AV "well"] of life" (Prov 10 11); "make her [Babylon's] fountain [AV "spring"] dry" (Jer 51 36); "a corrupted spring" (Prov 25 26). (9) אַבּוֹלָת, mabbū², עבּרָל, nābha', "to flow," "spring," "bubble up"; cf Arab. نَبْع nab', مَنْبُوع, yanbū', "fountain": "or the pitcher is broken at the fountain" (Eccl 12 6); "the thirsty ground springs of water" (Isa 35 7). (10) אַלְּילֹּג , m̄o̞c̄a', "spring," אַ אַבְּי, yāçā', "to go out," "the dry land springs of water" (Isa 41 18); "a dry land into watersprings" (Ps 107 35); "the upper spring of the waters of Gihon" (2 Ch 32 30). (11) ; , nēbhekh, root uncertain, reading doubtful; only in Job 38 16, "Hast thou entered into the springs of the sea?" (12) ליה , "hōm, "deep," "abyss"; cf Gen **1** 2; trd "springs," AV "depths" (Dt **8** 7). (13) ל ק , gal, ל ל , gālal, "to roll"; cf Gilgal (Josh 5 9); "a spring shut up" (Cant 4 12). (14) אָלָּ, gullāh, "bowl," "basin," "pool," same root: "Give me also springs of water. And he gave her the upper springs and the nether springs" (Josh 15 19); cf Arab. Lullat, pronounced gullat, "a marble," "a cannon-ball."

As is clear from references cited above, wells and springs were not sharply distinguished in name, though $b^{e}\bar{c}r$, and phrear are used mainly of wells, and 'ayin, $m^{a}y\bar{a}n$, $m\bar{c}g^{a}$, $mabb\bar{u}^{a}$ and (poetically) $m\bar{a}k\bar{b}r$ are chiefly used of fountains. The Arab. bi'r, the equivalent of the Heb $b^{e}\bar{c}r$, usually denotes a cistern for rain-water, though it may be qualified as bi'r jam', "well of gathering," i.e. for rain-water, or as bi'r nab', "well of springing water." A spring

or natural fountain is called in Arab. 'ain or nab' (cf Heb 'ayin and mabbūa'). These Arab. and Heb words for "well" and "spring" figure largely in place-names, modern and ancient: Beer (Nu 21 16); Beer-elim (Isa 15 8), etc; 'Ain (a) on the northeast boundary of Pal (Nu 34 11), (b) in the S. of Judah, perhaps=En-rimmon (Josh 15 32); Enaim (Gen 38 14); Enam (Josh 15 34), etc. Modern Arab. names with 'ain are very numerous, e.g. 'Ainul-fashkhah, 'Ain-ul-hajleh, 'Ain-kārim, etc. See CISTERN; FOUNTAIN; PIT; POOL.

ALFRED ELY DAY WELL, JACOB'S. See JACOB'S WELL.

WELLSPRING, wel'spring (ローラウ, mākōr): Usually "spring" or "fountain" (figuratively), trd "wellspring" only in two passages: "Understanding is a wellspring of life unto him that hath it" (Prov 16 22); "The wellspring of wisdom is as a flowing brook" (Prov 18 4). See Burroughs, Pepacton, p. 35; Well.

WEN: Only in Lev 22 22, "maimed," or "having a wen [m "sores"], or scurvy," for كَالَّذِي yabbāl, "running," hence "a suppurating sore" (cf RVm). A "wen" is a non-inflamed indolent tumor, and so "wen" is about as far as possible from the meaning of the Heb.

WENCH, wench, wensh (つつりは, shiphḥāh): The word "wench" is found only in 2 S 17 17 AV, where RV has "maid-servant." The Heb word shiphḥāh here used is a common term for maid-servant, female slave. AV used the word "wench" to convey the meaning maid-servant, which was a common use of the word at that time, but it is now practically obsolete.

WEST: (1) Usually בְּלֵה, yām, "sea," because the Mediterranean lies to the W. of Pal; not usually in figurative expressions; but of Hos 11 10. (2) Often אָבָּיבׁ, ma'arābh; of Arab. אָבָּיבֹּ, gharb, and אָבָּיבַּׁ, maghrib, "west," אָבָּיבָּׁ, maghrib, "sunset." (3) אַבָּיבֹּאָ הָשִׁבְּיבָּׁ, mebhō' ha-shemsh, "entrance of the sun," אָבִיבֹּא הַשְּׁבָּיבָּׁ, mābhō', אוֹבָּיבָּׁ, bō', "to come in." (Just as בּוֹלְיבָּׁ, mābhō', אוֹבְּיבָּׁ, is the rising of the sun, or east, so אִבְּיבָּׁרָ, mābhō' [or בּוֹלֵי, ma'arābh], is the setting of the sun, or west: "From the rising of the sun [mizrah-shemesh] unto the going down [mābhō'] thereof" [Ps 50 1; cf 113 3; Mal 11].) (4) δυσμή, dusmē, from δύω, duō, "to enter," "sink," "set." The Gr usage is || to the Heb just cited: "Many shall come from the east [anatolē, "rising"] and the west" (dusmē, "setting") (Mt 8

The chief figurative use of the word "west" is in combination with "east" to denote great or infinite distance, as:

"As far as the east is from the west, So far hath he removed our transgressions from us" (Ps 103 12).

ALFRED ELY DAY

WHALE, hwāl: (1) κῆτος, kἑtos (Sir 43 25 [RV
"sea-monster"]; Three ver 57 [RV "whale"]; Mt
12 40 [RV "whale," m "sea-monster"; AV "whale"
throughout). (2) [τος], tannīn (Gen 1 21; Job
7 12), "sea-monster," AV "whale." (3) [τος],
tannīm (Ezk 32 2), "monster," ERV "dragon,"
AV "whale," AVm "dragon."

It will be seen from the above references that the word "whale" does not occur in RV except in Three ver 57 and Mt 12 40. Κετος, the original word in these passages, is, according to Liddell and Scott, used by Aristotle for "whale," Aristotle using also the adj. κητώδης, kētôdēs, "cetacean"; Homer and Herodotus used kētos for any largé fish or sea-monster or for a seal. It is used in Euripides of the monster to which Andromeda was exposed. In the Heb, in the Book of Jon, we find dāgh or dāghāh, the ordinary word for "fish": "And Jeh prepared a great fish to swallow up Jonah" (Jon 1 17). Whales are found in the Mediterranean and are sometimes cast up on the shore of Pal, but it is not likely that the ancient Greeks or Hebrews were very familiar with them, and it is by no means certain that a whale is referred to, either in the original Jonah story or in the NT reference to it. If any particular animal is meant, it is more likely a shark. Sharks are much more familiar objects in the Mediterranean than whales, and some of them are of large size. See Fish.

In Gen 1 21, "And God created the great seamonsters" (AV "whales"), and Job 7 12,

"Am I a sea, or a sea-monster [AV "whale"], That thou settest a watch over me?"

the Heb has tannīn, which word occurs 14 t in the OT and in ARV is tr^d "monster," "sea-monster," or "serpent," and, exceptionally, in Lam 43, "jackals." AV renders in several passages "dragon" (cf Ezk 29 3 ERV)

Tannīm in Ezk 29 3 and 32 2 is believed to stand for tannīn. ARV has "monster," ERV "dragon," AV "whale," AVm "dragon," in 32 2, and "dragon" in 29 3. Tannīm occurs in 11 other passages, where it is considered to be the pl. of tann, and in RV is trd "jackals," in AV "dragons" (Job 30 29; Ps 44 19; Isa 13 22; 34 13; 35 7; 43 20; Jer 9 11; 10 22; 14 6; 49 33; 51 37). In Mal 1 3 we find the fem. pl. tannīth. See Dragon; Jackal.

Alfred Ely Day

WHEAT, hwet ([1] TOT, hittah, the specific word for wheat [Gen 30 14; Ex 34 22, etc], with pupes, pures [Jth 3 3; Sir 39 26]; [2] I, bar, or I, bar [Jer 23 28; Joel 2 24; Am 5 11; 8 6]; in other passages trd "grain" or "corn"; [3] oftos, sitos [Mt 3 12; 13 25.29.30; Lk 3 17; 16 7; 22 31, etc] [for other words trd occasionally "wheat" in AV see Corn; Food]): Wheat, usually the bearded variety, is cultivated all over Pal, though less so than barley. The great plain of the Hauran is a vast expanse of wheat fields in the spring; considerable quantities are exported via Beirût, Haifa and Gaza. The "wheat harvest" was in olden times one of the regular divisions of the year (Ex 34 22; Jgs 15 1; 1 S 12 17); it follows the barley harvest (Ex 9 31.32), occurring in April, May or June, according to the altitude.

E. W. G. Masterman

WHEEL, hwel: (1) לְבָּלֵב, 'ōphan, is the usual word (Ex 14 25, etc). In Prov 20 26; Isa 28 27 the rollers of a threshing wagon are meant (see Agriculture). (2) אַלְבָּלָב, galgal, "rolling thing," generally in the sense of "wheel" (Isa 5 28, etc), but RV in Ezk 10 2.6.13 has "whirling wheels," an advantageous change. The "whirling wheels," an advantageous change. The "wheel . . . broken at the cistern" in Eccl 12 6 is the windlass for drawing the water, and by the figure the breakdown of the old man's breathing apparatus is probably meant. In Ps 83 13, AV has "wheel," but this tr (that of LXX) is quite impossible; RV "whirling dust" (sucked up by a miniature whirlwind) is perhaps right, but the tr* proposed are endless. (3) אַלְבָּלֶב, gilgal, Isa 28 28, the roller of a threshing wagon. (4) במונה אול איני היינים וויינים אול אינים וויינים אינים וויינים אול אינים וויינים אול אינים וויינים אול אינים אינים אול אינים אול אינים אול אינים אול אינים אול אינים אול אינים אינים אול אינים אול אינים אול אינים אול אינים אול אינים אינים אינים אול אינים אינים אול אינים אינים אינים אול אינים אול אינים או

See Potter. (5) DYD, pa'am, Jgs 5 28, lit. "step" (so RVm), and the sound of horses' hoofs is intended. (6) τροχός, trochós, Sir 33 5; Jas 3 6 (AV "course"). In the former passage, "The heart of a fool is as a cart-wheel," the changeableness of a light disposition is satirized. In Jas the figure is of a wheel in rotation, so that a flame starting at any point is quickly communicated to the whole. Just so an apparently insignificant sin of the tongue produces an incalculably destructive effect.

bly destructive effect.

The phrase "wheel of nature" (τροχὸς τῆς γενέσεως, trochόs tễς ρεπέξεοδ) is used here for "the world in progress." It is not a very natural figure and has given rise to much discussion. AV accents trōchos ("course") instead of trochόs ("wheel"), but the language throughout is metaphorical and "course" is not a sufficiently metaphorical word. The tr "birth" for geneseôs (so RVm), i.e. "a wheel set in motion by birth, "is out of the question, as the argument turns on results wider than any individual's existence. "Wheel of nature" is certainly right. But a comparison of life to a wheel in some sense or other (chiefly that of "Fortune's wheel") is common enough in Gr and Lat writers, and, indeed, the exact combination trochos geneseôs is found in at least one (Orphic) writer (tull references in the comms of Mayor and W. Bauer). It would seem, then, that St. James had heard the phrase, and he used it as a striking figure, with entire indifference to any technical significance it might have. This supposition is preferable to that of an awkward tr from the Aramaic. See Course.

Burton Scott Easton

WHELP, hwelp (לְּבֹּילִ , gū̄r, or לְּבֹּילִ , gō̄r; either absol. [Ezk 19 2.3.5; Nah 2 12]; or constr. with 'aryēh, "lion" [Gen 49 9; Dt 33 22; Jer 51 38; Nah 2 11]; also לְבִיל לְבִיל אָרָה וֹנִיל , bṛnē lābhī, lit. "sons of a lioness," trd "the whelps of the lioness" [Job 4 11]. In Job 28 8, AV has "lion's whelps" for עְרַיל לְבִיל שְׁרָה הַּיּה shāḥac, which RV renders "proud beasts," m "sons of pride." In Lam 4 3, gū̄r is used of the young of tannīn, RV "jackals," AV "sea-monsters," AVm "sea-calves"; it may possibly mean "wolves"; σκύμνος, skūmnos, the technical word for "lion's whelp" [1 Macc 3 4]): These references are all figurative: "Judah is a lion's whelp" (Gen 49 9); "Dan is a lion's whelp" (Dt 33 22); it is said of the Babylonians, "They shall roar together like young lions; they shall growl as lions' whelps" (Jer 51 38); of the Assyrians, "Where is the den of the lions, and the feeding-place of the young lions, where the lion and the lioness walked, the lion's whelp, and none made them afraid? The lion did tear in pieces enough for his whelps, and strangled for his lionesses, and filled his caves with prey, and his dens with ravin" (Nah 2 11.12). In Ezk 19 2-9, the princes of Israel are compared to lions' whelps. See Dragon; Lion.

ALFRED ELY DAY
WHIRLWIND, hwûrl'wind (TIPTO, şûphāh
[Prov 1 27; 10 25; Isa 5 28; 17 13; 66 15; Hos
8 7; Am 1 14; Nah 1 3], TYO, şa'ar [Hab 3 14;
Zec 7 14; Hos 13 3; Ps 58 9; Dnl 11 40], TYO,
şa'ārāh [2 K 2 1; Job 38 1; 40 6; Isa 40 24; 41
16; Zec 9 14]): When two currents from opposite directions meet, a circular motion results called a whirlwind. On the sea this takes up small particles of water from the sea and condenses some of the moisture in the clouds above, forming a great funnel-shaped column. They are quite common off the coast of Syria. Considerable damage might be done to a small ship overtaken by them. In the desert sand is taken up in the same way, causing terrible sand storms which are greatly dreaded by caravans. Most of the references in the Bible do not necessarily imply a circular motion, and the word "tempest" might be used in translation.

not necessarily imply a circular motion, and the word "tempest" might be used in translation.

Storms usually come from the S.W. "Out of the south cometh the storm" (Job 37 9); yet in Ezekiel's vision he saw a whirlwind coming out of the north (1 4). Elijah "went up by a whirlwind into heaven" (2 K 2 11). The whirlwind

indicates the power and might of Jeh: "Jeh hath his way in the whirlwind and in the storm" (Nah 1 3); He "answered Job out of the whirlwind" (Job 38 1).

Most of the Scriptural uses are figurative; of destruction: "He will take them away with a whirlwind" (Ps 58 9; Prov 1 27; 10 25; Hos 13 3; Dnl 11 40; Am 1 14; Hab 3 14; Zec 7 14); of quickness: "wheels as a whirlwind" (Isa 5 28; 66 15; Jer 4 13); of the anger of God: "A whirlwind of the Lord is gone forth in fury" (Jer 23 19 AV); of punishment to the wicked: "A continuing whirlwind shall fall . . . on the wicked" (Jer 30 23 AV).

WHITE, hwit. See Colors.

WHITE HORSE. See Horse, White.

WHITEWASH, hwit'wosh: ARVm gives "whitewash" for "untempered mortar" in Ezk 13 10 and 22 28. 'Her prophets have daubed for them,' i.e. seconded them, "with whitewash," thus giving "a slight wall" (13 10 m) a specious appearance of strength. See MORTAR; UNTEMPERED.

WHOLE, hōl, WHOLESOME, hōl'sum: "Whole," originally "hale" (a word still in poetic use), had at first the meaning now expressed by its derivative "healthy." In this sense "whole" is fairly common (Job 5 18, etc) in EV, although much more common in the NT than in the OT. From this meaning "healthy," the transition to the modern force "complete," "perfect," "entire" (Ex 12 6, etc) was not unnatural, and it is in this later sense alone that the advb. "wholly" (Lev 6 22, etc) is used. "Wholesome," however, is derived from the earlier meaning of "whole." It occurs in Prov 15 4, AV, ERV, "a wholesome tongue" (ND), rāphā', "heal," RVm "the healing of the tongue," ARV "a gentle tongue"), and in 1 Tim 6 3, AV "wholesome words" (byadro, hugidinō, "be healthy," RVm "healthful," RV "sound").

Burton Scott Easton

BURTON SCOTT EASTON
WHORE, hor, WHOREDOM, hor'dum. See
CRIMES; HARLOT; PUNISHMENTS.

WICKEDNESS, wik'ed-nes: The state of being wicked; a mental disregard for justice, righteousness, truth, honor, virtue; evil in thought truth, honor, virtue, evil in thought
the OT inality. See Sin. Many words are
rendered "wickedness." There are
many synonyms for wickedness in Eng. and also
in the Heb. Pride and vanity lead to it: "All the proud, and all that work wickedness [רְשָׁלָה , rish'āh] shall be stubble" (Mal 4 1). Akin to this is the word 132, 'āwen, "iniquity," "vanity": "She eateth, coming from inward intent upon evil: "Lo, this is the man that made not God his strength, but trusted in the abundance of his riches, and strengthened himself in his wickedness" (Ps 52 7); 元舜, zimmāh, "wickedness" in thought, carnality or lust harbored: "And if a man take a wife and her mother, it is wickedness" (Lev 20 14); עולה, 'awlāh, "perverseness," "Neither shall the children of wickedness afflict them any more, as at the first" (2 S 7 10). The word for evil (", ra') is many times employed to represent wickedness: "Remember all their wickedness" (Hos 7 2). Wickedness like all forms and thoughts of wrong, kept warm in mind, seems to be a thing of growth, it have a mind the seems to be a thing of growth, it have a mind the seems to be a thing of growth, it have a mind the seems to be a thing of growth, it have a mind the seems to be a thing of growth, it have mind the seems to be a thing of growth, it have mind the seems to be a thing of growth in the seems to be a thing of growth in the seems to be a thing of growth in the seems to be a seem to be a thing of growth in the seems to be a thing of growth in the seems to be a thing of growth in the seems to be a seem to be a seem to be a thing of growth in the seems to be a seem to be a se to be a thing of growth; it begins with a thought,

then a deed, then a character, and finally a destiny. Even in this life men increase in wickedness till they have lost all desire for that which is good in the sight of God and good men; the men in the vision of Isaiah seem to be in a condition beyond which the human heart cannot go: "Woe unto them that call evil good, and good evil; that put darkness for light, and light for darkness" (Isa 5 20). Shades of thought are added by such words as \$\mathbb{T}_1, \textit{r\textit{gai}}_1,
Wickedness, malignity, evil in thought and purpose is presented by the word πονηρία, ponēria:

"But Jesus perceived their wickedness, and said, Why make ye trial of me, ye the NT hypocrites?" (Mt 22 18). Jesus points out the origin of all wrong: "For from within, out of the heart of men, evil thoughts proceed wickednesses, deceit, lasciviousness . . . all these evil things proceed from within, and defile the man" (Mk 7 21-23). See Imitation of Christ, xiii, 5.

DAVID ROBERTS DUNGAN

WIDOW, wid'ō (תְּלֶּמְלָּהְאָ, 'almānāh; χήρα, chêra): In the OT widows are considered to be under the special care of Jeh (Ps 68 5; 146 9; Prov 15 25). Sympathetic regard for them comes to be viewed as a mark of true religion (Job 31 16; Jas 1 27). Dt is rich in counsel in their behalf (24 17, etc).

The word is first mentioned in the NT in Acts 6 1: "There arose a murmuring of the Grecian Jews against the Hebrews, because their widows were neglected in the daily ministration." Paul charges that they be particularly cared for, esp. those that are "widows indeed," i.e. poor, without support and old (1 Tim 5 2–16). Some try to find proof in this passage of that ecclesiastical order of widows mentioned in post-apostolic writings. See LITERATURE, SUB-APOSTOLIC; WOMAN, IV, 5.

GEO. B. EAGER

WIFE, wif. See Marriage; Relationships, Family.

WIFE, BROTHER'S. See Marriage; Relationships, Family.

WILD BEAST, wild bēst: (1) דְּיִדְּיִ , zīz, only with אַרָּרָּיִ , sādhay, "field," in the expression, בּזֹי , zīz sādhay, tr⁴ "wild beasts of the field" (Ps 50 11; 80 13); cf Tg to Ps 80 13, אַרְין , zīzzā', "worm" (BDB); Arab. בּנֹי , zîz, "worm." (2) בּנִי , c̄zyīm (Isa 13 21; 34 14; Jer 50 39). (3) בּנִי , נֹיעַי (Isa 13 21; 34 14; Jer 50 39). (4) בּנִי , hay, "living thing," often tr⁴ "wild beast" in EV (1 S 17 46, etc). (5) In Apoc (Ad Est 16 24, etc) and the NT (Mk 1 13), θηρίον, thērion. (6) Acts 10 12 AV; 11 6, τετράποδον, tetrάpodon, RV "four-footed beast."

(1), (2) and (3) are of doubtful etymology, but the context makes it clear in each case that wild beasts of some sort are meant. The Tg z̄z̄z̄z̄', "worm," is possible in Ps 80 13, though not probable in view of the || "boar": "The boar out of the wood doth ravage it, and the wild beasts of the field feed on it," i.e. on the vine (figurative) brought out of Egypt. In Ps 50 11, however, such an interpretation is out of the question. All the references from ver 8 to ver 13 are to large animals, bullocks, goats, cattle and birds. Vulg and LXX

have in 80 13 "wild beast" and in 50 11 "beauty of the field" (trd)!

Gīyīm, doubtfully referred to cīyāh, "drought," occurs in prophecies of the desolation of Babylon in Isa 13 21 ("wild beasts of the desert") and Jer 50 39, of Edom in Isa 34 14, of Assyria in Isa 23 13 ("them that dwell in the wilderness"). It is associated in these passages with names of wild beasts and birds, some of them of very doubtful meaning, such as tannīm, 'ōḥīm, 'īyīm, setīrīm, braōth ya 'ānāh. Wild beasts of some sort are clearly meant, though the kind can only be conjectured. The word occurs in Ps 74 14 ("the people inhabiting the wilderness"), where it is possible to understand "beasts" instead of "people." It occurs also in Ps 72 9 ("they that dwell in the wilderness"), where it seems necessary to understand "men." If the reading stands, it is not easy to reconcile this passage with the others.

"Tyīm occurs in Isa 13 21 and 34 14 and in Jer 50 39, three of the passages cited for cīyīm. AV referring to 'ī, "island," renders "wild beasts of the islands" (Isa 13 22). RV has "wolves," m "howling creatures"; of Arab. عَوْى, 'anwa', "to howl," and إلَّ إِنَّ أَوَى, 'ibn-'āwa', or إِنِّ أَوَى, 'wâwi, "jackal." See Jackal. Alfred Ely Day

WILD-OX (DN7, re'ēm): The word "unicorn" occurs in AV in Nu 23 22; 24 8; Dt 33 17; Job 39 9.10; Ps 22 21; 29 6; 92 10; Isa 34 7 (AVm "rhinoceros"). RV has everywhere "wild-ox" (m "ox-antelope," Nu 23 22). LXX has μονόκερως, monókerōs, "one-horned," except in Isa 34 7, where we find of ἀδροί, hoi hadroi, "the large ones," "the bulky ones." In this passage also LXX has of κροί, hoi krioi, "the rams," instead of EV "bullocks." Vulg has rhinoceros in Nu 23 22; 24 8; Dt 33 17; Job 39 9.10; and unicornis in Ps 22 21 (21 22); 29 6 (28 6); 92 10 (91 11); Isa 34 7. As stated in the arts, on ANTELOPE and CATLLE.

As stated in the arts. on Antelope and Cattle, $r^{e^{\gamma}} \bar{e}m$ and $t^{e^{\gamma}} \bar{o}$ (Dt 14 5; Isa 51 20) may both be the Arabian oryx (Oryx beatrix), of which the common vernacular name means "wild-ox." It may be presumed that "ox-antelope" of Nu 23 22 RVm is meant to indicate this animal, which is swift and fierce, and has a pair of very long, sharp and nearly straight horns. The writer feels, however, that more consideration should be given to the view of Tristram (Natural History of the Bible) that $r^{e^{\gamma}} \bar{e}m$ is the urus or aurochs, the primitive Bos taurus, which seems to be depicted in Assyr monuments and referred to as $r\hat{e}mu$ (BDB). The etymology of $r^{e^{\gamma}} \bar{e}m$ is uncertain, but the word may be from a root signifying "to rise" or "to be high." At any rate, there is no etymological warrant for the assumption that it was a one-horned creature. The

The great strength and fierceness implied in most of the references suit the wild-ox better than the oryx. On the other hand, Edom (Isa 34 7) was adjacent to the present home of the oryx, while there is no reason to suppose that the wild-ox came nearer than Northern Assyria. There is possibly a reference to the long horns of the oryx in "But my horn hast thou exalted like the horn of the wild-ox" (Ps 92 10). For to, LXX has δρνξ, δrux, in Dt 14 5 (but σευτλίον ἡμίεφθον, seutlion hēmicephthon, "half-boiled beet" [!] in Isa 51 20). Vulg has oryx in both passages. While we admit that both re'ō mand to may be the oryx, it is perhaps best to follow RVm, rendering re'ōm "wild-ox." The rendering of "antelope" (RV) for to to is defensible, but "oryx" would be better, because the oryx is the

only antelope that could possibly be meant, it and the gazelle $(g^*bh\bar{\imath})$, already mentioned in Dt 14 5, being the only antelopes known to occur in Pal and Arabia. In Isa 34 7 it seems to be implied that the $r^{e'}\bar{e}m$ might be used in sacrifice.

Figurative: The wild-ox is used as a symbol of the strength of Israel: "He hath as it were the strength of the wild-ox" (Nu 23 22; 24 8). In the blessing of the children of Israel by Moses it is said of Joseph:

And his horns are the horns of the wild-ox: With them he shall push the peoples all of them, even the ends of the earth" (Dt 33 17).

The Psalmist (29 5.6) in describing the power of Jeh says:

"Yea, Jeh breaketh in pieces the cedars of Lebanon. He maketh them also to skip like a calf; Lebanon and Sirion like a young wild-ox."

Again, in praise for Jeh's goodness (92 10): "But my horn hast thou exalted like the horn of the wildox."

In Job 39 9-12 the subduing and training of the wild-ox are cited among the things beyond man's power and understanding. See ANTELOPE; CATTLE.

ALFRED ELY DAY WILDERNESS, wil'der-nes. See Desert; JUDAEA, WILDERNESS OF; WANDERINGS OF ISRAEL.

WILL. See TESTAMENT.

WILL, VOLITION, vö-lish'un (つうない, 'ābhāh, γ יַלין, $rar{a}car{o}n$; $\theta\epsilon\lambda\omega$, $th\epsilon lar{o}$, etaούλομαι, boulomai, $\theta\epsilon\lambda$ ημα, thélèma): "Will" as noun and vb., trans and intrans, carries in it the idea of "wish," "purpose," "volition." "Will" is also used as an auxiliary of the future tense of other words, but the independent vb. is frequent, and it is often important to distinguish between it and the mere auxiliary, esp. in the NT.

In the OT the word chiefly rendered "to will" is 'ābhāh, "to breathe after," "to long for." With the exception of Job 39 9; Isa 1 19, it is accompanied by a negation, and is used of both man and God. Several other words are employed, but only sparsely. "Will" as noun is the tr chiefly of rāçōn, "good-will," will as noun is the cremeny of rayon, good-will, "wilfulness" (Gen 49 6), with emphasis on the voluntariness of action (Lev 1 3; 19 5; 22 19.29, etc); also of nephesh, and a few other words. In the NT "will" is chiefly the tr of thelo and boulomar, the difference between the two being that thelo expresses an active choice or purpose, boulomai, "passive inclination or willingness, or the inward predisposition from which the active choice proceeds" (cf Mk 15 9.12 with ver 15). "Will," noun, is thelema. With the exception of a few passages, it is used of the will of God (over all, Mt 18 sages, it is used of the will of God (over all, Mt 10, 14; in all things to be done, Mt 6 10; 26 42 || , etc; ordering all things, Eph 1 11, etc); human will, however, may oppose itself to the will of God (Lk 23 25; Jn 1 13; Rom 7 18; here the capacity to will is distinguished from the power to do, etc). Boulēma is properly counsel or purpose. While it Boulema is properly counsel or purpose. While it is possible to oppose the will of God, His counsel or purpose cannot be frustrated (Acts 2 23; 4 28; Rom 9 19; Eph 1 11; He 6 17); it may, however, be resisted for a time (Lk 7 30).

In Apoc, for "will" we have thelema (1 Esd 9 9 [of God]; Ecclus 43 16; 1 Macc 3 60; Ecclus 8 15, "his own will"); boulē (Wisd 9 13, RV "counsel); boulēma (2 Macc 15 5, "wicked will." RV "cruel purpose"); "wilful" (Ecclus 30 8) is proalês, RV "headstrong"; "willing" (Wisd 14 19), bouloma; RV "wishing"; thelō (Ecclus 6 35); "wilt" (Wisd 12 18), thelō, RV "hast the will" (cf 2 Macc 7 16).

RV has many changes, several of them of note as bringing out the distinction between the auxiliary and the independent vb. Thus, Mt 11 27, "willeth to"; Jn 7 17, "if any man willeth to do his will"; 1 Tim 6 9, ARV "they that are minded to be rich," ERV "desire," etc.

The words employed and passages cited show clearly that man is always regarded as a responclearly that man is always regarded as a responsible being, free to will in harmony with the Divine will or contrary to it. This is further shown by the various words denoting refusal. "Ye will not come to me, that ye may have life" (Jn 5 40). So with respect to temptation. We may even choose and act deliberately in opposition to the will of God. Yet God's counsel, His will in its completeness, ever prevails, and man, in resisting it, deprives himself of the good it seeks to confer upon him.

In modern psychology the tendency is to make

will primary and distinctive of personality.

W. L. Walker

WILL-WORSHIP: In Col 2 23, "a show of wisdom in will-worship," for ἐθελοθρησκία, ethelothrēskia, a word found nowhere else but formed exactly like "will-worship": worship originating in the human will as opposed to the Divine, arbitrary religious acts, worthless despite their difficulty of performance.

WILLOW TREE, wil'ō-trē (אַלְּצָלְּבָּ , çaphçāphāh): Comparison with the Arab. صَفْصَاف, ṣafṣāf, "the willow," makes it very probable that the tr of Ezk 17 5 is correct.

WILLOWS, wil'ōz (בְּרֶבֶּל אָלֶבֶּל אַ 'αναδόνπ'; tréa, itéa [Lev 23 40; Job 40 22; Ps 137 2; Isa 15 7; 44 4]): In all references this tree is mentioned as beside running water. They may all refer to the willow, two varieties of which, Salix fragilis and S. alba, occur commonly in Pal, or to the closely allied Populus euphratus (also N.O. Salicaceae), which is even more plentiful, esp. on the Jordan and its tributaries. The Brook of the Willows (Isa 15 7) must have been some stream running from Moab to the Jordan or Dead Sea. Popular fancy has associated the willows of Ps 137 2 with the so-called "weeping willows" (Salix babylonica), but though this tree is found today in Pal, it is an introduction from Japan and cannot have existed "by the waters of Babylon" at the time of the captivity.

E. W. G. MASTERMAN
WILLOWS, THE BROOK OF THE: Evidently
mentioned as the boundary of Moab (Isa 15 7) and generally identified with the brook Zered. See Brook; Zered.

WIMPLE, wim'p'l: RV substitutes "shawls" for AV "wimples" in Isa 3 22. The precise article of dress intended is unknown. See Dress.

WIND, wind (הַלְּחַ), rūaḥ; ανεμος, ánemos): Unequal distribution of heat in the atmosphere causes currents of air or wind. The heated air rises and the air from around rushes 1. Causes in. The direction from which a current comes determines its name, as west wind coming from the W. but blowing toward the E. When two currents of air of different directions meet, a spiral motion sometimes results. See Whirl-WIND.

In Pal the west wind is the most common. comes from the sea and carries the moisture which condenses to form clouds, as it is turned 2. West upward by the mountains, to the cooler layers of the atmosphere. If the temperature reached is cool enough the Wind cloud condenses and rain falls. Elijah looked toward the W. for the "small cloud," and soon "the heavens grew black with clouds and wind" (1 K 18 44 f). "When ye see a cloud rising in the west,

straightway ye say, There cometh a shower; and so it cometh to pass" (Lk 12 54).

The south wind is frequent in Pal. If it is slightly S.W., it may bring rain, but if it is due S. or S.E. there is no rain. It is a warm wind bringing good weather. "When ye

3. South see a south wind blowing, ye say, There will be a scorching heat; and it Wind cometh to pass" (Lk 12 55). In the cooler months it is a gentle, balmy wind, so that the "earth is still by reason of the south wind" (Job 37 17; cf Cant

4 16).

The north wind is usually a strong, continuous

Wind

wind blowing down from the northern hills, and while it is cool it always "drives away rain," 4. North rain," as correctly stated in Prov 25 23 AV; yet it is a disagreeable wind, Wind

and often causes headache and fever. The east wind or sirocco (from Arab. shark= "east") is the "scorching wind" (Jas 1 11) from
the desert. It is a hot, gusty wind

5. East laden with sand and dust and occurs

most frequently in May and October.

The temperature in a given place often rises 15 or 20 degrees within a few hours, bringing the thermometer to the highest readings of the year. It is customary for the people to close up the houses tightly to keep out the dust and heat. The heat and dryness wither all vegetation (Gen 41 6). Happily the wind seldom lasts for more than three days at a time. It is the destructive "wind of the days at a time. It is the destructive "wind of the wilderness" (Job 1 19; Jer 4 11; 13 24): "Jeh caused the sea to go back by a strong east wind all the night" (Ex 14 21) for the children of Israel to pass; the "rough blast in the day of the east wind" (Isa 27 8). The strength of the wind makes it dangerous for ships at sea: "With the east wind thou breakest the ships of Tarshish" (Ps 48 7). Euraquilo or Euroclydon (Acts 27 14 AV), which caused Paul's shipwreck, was an E.N.E. wind, which

was esp. dangerous in that region. The wind is directly of great use to the farmer in Pal in winnowing the grain after it is threshed by treading out (Ps 1 4; 35 5; Isa

6. Practical 17 13). It was used as a sign of the weather (Eccl 11 4). It was a necessity for traveling on the sea in ancient Use times (Acts 28 13; Jas 3 4), but too strong a wind caused shipwreck (Jon 1 4; Mt 8 24; Lk 8 23).

The Scriptural references to wind show many

illustrative and figurative uses: (1) Power of God
(1 K 19 11; Job 27 21; 38 24; Ps 107
7. Scripture 25; 135 7; 147 18; 148 8; Prov 30 4;
References Jer 10 13; Hos 4 19; Lk 8 25): "He
caused the east wind to blow in the caused the east wind to blow in the heavens; and by his power he guided the south wind" (Ps 78 26). (2) Scattering and destruction: "A stormy wind shall rend it" (Ezk 13 11; cf 5 2; 12 14; 17 21; Hos 4 19; 8 7; Jer 49 36; Mt 7 25). (3) Uncertainty: "tossed to and fro and carried about with every wind of doctrine" (Eph 4 14; cf Prov 27 16; Eccl 1 6; Jn 3 8; Jas 1 6). (4) Various directions: "toward the four

winds of heaven" (Dnl 11 4; cf 8 8; Zec 2 6; Mt 24 31; Mk 13 27). (5) Brevity: "a wind that passeth away" (Ps 78 39; cf 1 4; 35 5; 103 16). (6) Nothingness: "Molten images are wind" (Isa **41** 29; cf Jer **5** 13). ALFRED H. JOY

WINDOW, win'do. See House, II, 1, (9).

WINDOWS OF HEAVEN. See ASTRONOMY, III, 4.

WINE, win, WINE PRESS, win'pres:

I. Terms.—(1) יוֹדְי, yayin, apparently from a non-Sem root allied to Gr (w)otnos, Lat vinum, etc.

This is the usual word for "wine" and is found 141 t in MT. (2) אָרֶלֶד, hemer, perhaps "foaming" (Dt 32 14 and MT Isa 27 2 [but 1. Wine see ERVm]); Aram. אַבְּקָּה, kāmar (Ezr 6 9; 7 22; Dnl 5 1.2.4.23). (3) לְּיִלְהָּיִה, tīrōsh. Properly this is the fresh grape juice (called also מְשֶׁרֶה, mishreh, Nu 6 3), even when still in the grape (Isa 65 8). But unfermented grape juice is a very difficult thing to keep without the aid of modern antiseptic precautions, and its preservation in the warm and not overcleanly conditions of ancient Pal was impossible. Consequently, tīrōsh came to mean wine that was not fully aged (although with full intoxicating properties [Jgs 9 13; Hos 4 11; cf Acts 2 13]) or wine when considered specifically as the product of grapes (Dt 12 17; 18 4, etc). LXX always (except Isa 65 8; Hos 4 11) translates by oinos and the Tgs by hāmar. AV has "wine" 26 t, "new wine" 11 t, "sweet wine" in Mic 6 15; RV "vintage" in Nu 18 12; Mic 6 15 (with the same change in Neh 10 37.39 RVm; Isa 62 8 ERVm). Otherwise ERV has left AV unchanged, while ARV uses "new wine" throughout. (4) Two apparently poetic words are DOP, 'āṣīṣ (RV "sweet wine," Isa 49 26; Am 9 13; Joel 1 5; 3 18, "juice"; Cant 8 2). and \$D, sōbhe' ("wine," Isa 1 22; Consequently, trosh came to mean wine that was Cant **8** 2), and **8** 5, sōbhe' ("wine," Isa **1** 22; "drink," Hos **4** 18 [m "carouse"]; Nah **1** 10). (5) For spiced wine three words occur: 100, meşekh, Ps 75 8 (EV "mixture"); 1000, mimşākh, Prov 23 30 ("mixed wine"); Isa 65 11 (RV "mingled wine"); W, mezegh, Cant 7 2 (RV "(mingled wine"); cf also הַרֶּבֶּל , yayın hā-rekah, Cant 8 2 ("spiced wine"). (6) מַמְרָבֶּל , mam²thakkīm, lit. "sweet," Neh 8 10.

(7) אָׁטֶׁבֶּר, shēkhār (22 t), trd "strong drink" in EV. (7) ""> shēkhār (22 t), trd "strong drink" in EV. Shēkhār appears to mean "intoxicating drink" of any sort and in Nu 28 7 is certainly simply "wine" (cf also its use in parallelism to "wine" in Isa 5 11.22, etc). In certain passages (Lev 10 9; Nu 6 3; 1 8 1 15, etc), however, it is distinguished from "wine," and the meaning is not quite certain. But it would seem to mean "drink not made from grapes." Of such only pomegranate wine is named in the Bible (Cant 8 2), but a variety of such preparations (made from appea, quinces, dates, barley, etc) were known to the ancients and must have been used in Pal also. The tr "strong drink" is unfortunate, for it suggests "distilled liquor," "brandy," which is hardly in point. See Drink, Strong.

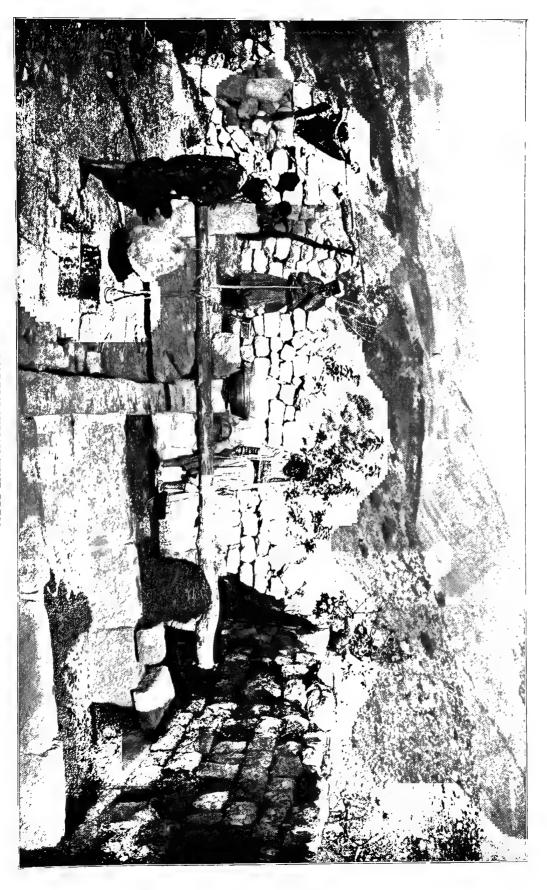
(8) In the Apoc and NT "wine" represents olivos, oinos, with certain compounds, except in Acts 2 13, where the Gr is γλεῦκος, gleûkos, "sweet," EV "new wine."

See also Blood; Drink; Flagon; Fruit; Honey. (1) Properly speaking, the actual wine press was called \(\mathbb{P}_2\), gath (Jgs \(6\) 11, etc.), and the receiving vat ("fat") \(\mathbb{P}_2\), yekebh (Nu \(18\) 27,

2. Wine etc), but the names were interchange-2. Whe etc), but the hames were interchangeable to some degree (Isa 16 10; Job 24 11; cf Isa 5 2, RV text and m) and either could be used for the whole apparatus (see GATH and cf Jgs 7 25; Zec 14 10). In Isa 63 3 the Heb has Tip , pūrāh, "winetrough," a word found also in Hag 2 16 where it seems to be a close (see construction of the country of the a gloss (so, apparently, ARV).

(2) In the Apoc (Sir 33 16) and in the NT (Mt 21 33; Rev 14 19.20 [bis]; 19 15) "winepress" is ληνός, ζεπός; in Mk 12 1 ὑπολήνιον, hupolénion, by which only the receiving vat seems to be meant (RV "a pit for a winepress").

II. Wine-Making. For the care of the vine, its distribution, different varieties, etc, see Vine. The ripening of the grapes took place as early as June in the Jordan valley, but on the coast not until August, while in the hills it was delayed until September. In whatever month, however, the



coming of the vintage was the signal for the villagers to leave their homes in a body and to encamp in booths erected in the vineyards, 1. The so that the work might be carried on without interruption (see TABER-NACLES, FEAST OF). It was the great Vintage

holiday season of the year and the joy of the vintage was proverbial (Isa 16 10; Jer 25 30; 48 33; cf Jgs 9 27), and fragments of vintage songs seem to be preserved in Isa 27 2; 65 8. The grapes were gathered usually by cutting off the clusters (see Sickle), and were carried to the press in baskets.

Many of the ancient wine presses remain to the present day. Ordinarily they consisted of two rectangular or circular excavations, hewn (Isa 5 2) in the solid rock to a depth of 2 or 3 feet. Where possible 2. Wine Presses one was always higher than the other and they were connected by a pipe or channel. Their size, of course, varied greatly, but the upper



Large Foot Press (Egyptian).

vat was always wider and shallower than the lower and was the press proper, into which the grapes were thrown, to be crushed by the feet of the treaders (Isa 63 1-3, etc). The juice flowed down through the pipe into the lower vat, from which it was removed into jars (Hag 2 16) or where it was allowed to remain during the first fermentation.

Many modifications of this form of the press are

Where there was no rock close to the surface, the vats were dug in the earth and lined with stonework or cement, covered with pitch. Or the pressyat might be built up out of any material (wood was much used in Egypt), and from it the juice could be conducted into a sunken receptacle or into jars. Not infrequently a third (rarely a fourth) vat might be added between the other two, in which a partial settling and straining could take place. Wooden beams are often used either to finish the pressing or to perform the whole operation, and holes into which the ends of these beams fitted can still be seen. A square of wood attached to the beam bore down on the pile of grapes, while the free end of the beam was heavily weighted. In the simpler presses the final result was obtained by piling stones on the mass that remained after the treaders had finished their work.

It is a general principle of wine-making (cf OIL) that "the less the pressure the better the product'

therefore the liquid that flowed at the 3. Grading beginning of the process, esp. that produced by the mere weight of the grapes themselves when piled in heaps, was carefully kept separate from that which was obtained only under heavy pressure. A still lower grade was made by adding water to the final refuse and allowing the mixture to ferment. Possibly this last con-coction is sometimes meant by the word "vinegar" $(h\bar{o}mec)$.

In the climate of Pal fermentation begins almost immediately, frequently on the same day for juice pressed out in the morning, but never later than the next day. At first a slight foam appears on the surface of the liquid, and from that moment, according to Jewish tradition, it is liable to the wine-tithe ($Ma'\check{a}s\check{e}r\bar{o}th$ 1 7). The ac-

4. Fermen- tion rapidly becomes more violent, and tation while it is in progress the liquid must be kept in jars or in a vat, for it would burst even the newest and strongest of wine-skins (Job 32 19). Within about a week this violent fermentation subsides, and the wine is transferred to other jars or strong wine-skins (Mk 2 22 and "s), in which it undergoes the secondary fermentation. At the bottom of the receptacles collects the heavier matter or "lees" (שְּׁמֶלְרָים , shemārīm, Ps
75 8 ["dregs"]; Jer 48 11; Zeph 1 12; in Isa 25
6 the word is used for the wine as well), from which
the "wines on the lees" gather strength and flavor.

At the end of 40 days it are strength and flavor.

At the end of 40 days it was regarded as properly "wine" and could be offered as a drink offering (Edhuyyōth 6 1). The practice after this point seems to have varied, no doubt depending on the sort of wine that was being made. Certain kinds were left undisturbed to age "on their lees" and were thought to be all the better for so doing, but before they were used it was necessary to strain them very carefully. So Isa 25 6, 'A feast of wine aged on the less, thoroughly strained.' But usually leaving the wine in the fermentation vessels interfered with its improvement or caused it to degenerate. So at the end of 40 days it was drawn off into other jars (for storage, 1 Ch 27 27, etc) or wine-skins (for transportation, Josh 9 4, etc). So 'Moab has been undisturbed from his Jer 48 11: youth, and he has rested on his lees and has not been emptied from vessel to vessel. . . . Therefore his flavor remains unchanged [or "becomes insipid"] and his scent is unimproved [or "lacks freshness"]'; cf Zeph 1 12.

Jars were tightly sealed with caps covered with

pitch. The very close sealing needed to preserve sparkling wines, however, was un
5. Storage known to the Hebrews, and in consequence (and for other reasons) such wines were not used. Hence in Ps 75 8, "The wine foameth," the allusion must be to

very new wine whose fermentation had not yet subsided, if, indeed, the tr is not wrong (RVm "The wine is red"). The superiority of old wine to new was acknowledged by the Hebrews, in common with the rest of the world (Sir 9 10; Lk 5 39), but in the wines of Pal acetous fermentation, changing the wine into vinegar, was likely to occur at any time. Three years was about the longest time for which such wines could be kept, and "old wine" meant only wines that had been stored for a year or more (Bab. Bath. 6 3). See also Crafts, II, 19.

III. Use of Wine.—In OT times wine was drunk

undiluted, and wine mixed with water was thought

to be ruined (Isa 1 22). The "mixed" or "mingled wines" (see I, I, (5), above) were prepared with aromatic herbs 1. Mixed Wine of various sorts and some of these compounds, used throughout the ancient world, were highly intoxicating (Isa 5 22). Wine mixed with myrrh was stupefying and an anaesthetic (Mk 15 23). At a later period, however, the Gr use of diluted wines had attained such sway that the writer of 2 Macc speaks (15 39) of undiluted wine as "distasteful" (polémion). This dilution is so normal in the following centuries that the Mish can take it for granted and, indeed, R. Eliezer even forbade saying the table-blessing over undiluted wine (Berākhōth 7 5). The proportion of water was large, only one-third or one-fourth of the total mixture being wine (Niddāh 2 7; Poṣāḥīm 108b).

Note.—The wine of the Last Supper, accordingly, may be described in modern terms as a sweet, red, fermented wine, rather highly diluted. As it was no doubt

the ordinary wine of commerce, there is no reason to suppose that it was particularly "pure."

Throughout the OT, wine is regarded as a necessity of life and in no way as a mere luxury. It was a necessary part of even the sim-2. Wineplest meal (Gen 14 18; Jgs 19 19; 1 S 16 20; Isa 55 1, etc), was an indispensable provision for a fortress Drinking (2 Ch 11 11), and was drunk by all classes and all ages, even by the very young (Lam 2 12; Zec 9 17). "Wine" is bracketed with "grain" as a basic staple (Gen 27 28, etc), and the failure of the winecrop or its destruction by foreigners was a terrible calamity (Dt 28 30.39; Isa 62 8; 65 21; Mic 6 15; Zeph 1 13, etc). On the other hand, abundance of wine was a special token of God's blessing (Gen 27 28; Dt 7 13; Am 9 14, etc), and extraordinary abundance would be a token of the Messianic age (Am 9 13; Joel 3 18; Zec 9 17). A moderate "gladdening of the heart" through wine was not looked upon as at all reprehensible (2 S 13 28; Est 1 10; Ps 104 15; Eccl 9 7; 10 19; Zec 9 15; 10 7), and while Jgs 9 13 represented a mere verbal remnant of a long-obsolete concept, yet the idea contained in the verse was not thought shocking. "Drink offerthe verse was not thought shocking. ings," indeed, were of course a part of the prescribed ritual (Lev 23 13, etc; see Sacrifice), and a store of wine was kept in the temple (tabernacle) to insure their performance (1 Ch 9 29). Even in later and much more moderate times, Sir writes the laudation of wine in 31 27, and the writer of 2 Macc (see above) objects as strongly to pure water as he does to pure wine. Christ adapted Himself to Jewish customs (Mt 11 19 || Lk 7 34; Lk 22 18), and exegetes usually suppose that the celebrated verse 1 Tim 5 23 is meant as a safeguard against ascetic (gnostic?) dualism, as well as to give medical advice.

On the temporal conditioning of the Bib. customs, the uncompromising opposition of the Bible to excess, and the non-applicability of the ancient attitude to the totally different modern conditions, see Drunkenness.

The figurative uses of wine are very numerous, but are for the most part fairly obvious. offering difficulty have been discussed in the course of the article. For wine in its commercial aspect see Trade. BURTON SCOTT EASTON

WINEBIBBER, win'bib-er: In Prov 23 20, ַרַרְּךְ, s̄ōbhē' yayin; in Mt 11 19=Lk 7 34, olvoπότηs, oinopótēs, of habitual wine-drinkers. The accusation was falsely brought against Jesus of being "a gluttonous man and a winebibber," because, unlike John, He ate and drank with others.

WINEFAT, win'fat, WINE PRESS, win'pres, WINEVAT, win'vat. See Crafts, II, 19; Vine;

WINE-SKINS (תְּבֶּת, hēmeth [Gen 21 14 m], ראב, n'ōdh [Jgs **4** 19, "bottle"], כאב, nēbhel, כָּבֶּל, nebhel [1 S 10 3 m], אוא , 'öbh [Job 32 19]; ἀσκός, askós [Mt 9 17; Mk 2 22; Ik 5 37; cf ἀσκοπυτίνη, askoputínē, Jth 10 5, RV "leathern bottle"]): These words are all used to designate skins for the containing of liquids, nebhel, however, being the most common in the case of wine. The Israelite, like the modern Arab and Syrian, used mainly the skin of the goat and the sheep, but the skins of the ox and the camel have also been put to this purpose. The skin is removed from the animal by drawing it over the body from the neck downward, half the skin on each of the limbs being also retained. It is then tanned, the hair cut close, turned inside out, and has all the openings save one closed with cords, when it is ready for use. The reference to "a wine-

skin in the smoke" in Ps 119 83 is generally explained on the supposition of its being hung there for mellowing purposes, but this can scarcely be accepted, for wine is never left for any length of time in the skin on account of its imparting a disagreeable flavor to the contents. The explanation of the NT passages is that the new wine, still liable to continue fermenting to a small extent at least, was put into new, still expansible skins, a condition that had ceased in the older ones. See WINE.
W. M. CHRISTIE

WINEVAT. See WINEFAT, WINEVAT.

WINGS, wingz (Τ϶϶϶, kānāph; πτέρυξ, ptérux): Bib. references to the wings of birds are common, esp. in Pss, many of them exquisitely poetical. Often the wings of an eagle are mentioned because they are from 7 to 9 ft. in sweep, of untiring flight, and have strength to carry heavy burdens: so they became the symbol of strength and endurance. Ancient monuments and obelisks are covered with the heads of bulls, lions, different animals, and men even, to which the wings of an eagle were added to symbolize strength. Sometimes the wings of a stork are used to portray strong flight, as in the vision of Zechariah: "Then lifted I up mine eyes, and saw, and, behold, there came forth two women, and the wind was in their wings; now they had wings like the wings of a stork; and they lifted up the ephah between earth and heaven" (5 9). The wings of a dove symbolized love. Wings in the abstract typified shelter, strength or speed, as a rule, while in some instances their use was ingenious and extremely poetical, as when Job records that the Almighty used wings to indicate migration: "And stretcheth her wings toward the south" (39 26). In Ps 17 8 there is a wonderful poetical imagery in the plea, "Hide me under the shadow of thy wings." In Ps 18 10 there is a reference to "the wings of the wind." And in 55 6 the Psalmist cries, "Oh that I had wings like a dove!" The brightness and peace of prosperous times are beautifully described in Ps 68 13, 'the wings of a dove covered with silver, and her pinions with pale green gold.' The first rays of dawn are compared to "the wings of the morning" (139 9). Solomon was thinking of the swiftness of wings when he said, "For riches certainly make themselves wings, like an eagle that flieth toward heaven" (Prov 23 5). So also was Isaiah in 40 31, "They that wait for Jeh shall renew their strength; they shall mount up with wings as eagles; they shall run, and not be weary; they shall walk, and not faint." In Mal 4 2 AV, there is a beautiful reference, "But unto you that fear my name shall the Sun of right-eousness arise with healing in his wings." RV changes "his" to "its." Wings as an emblem of love were used by Jesus in the cry, "O Jerusalem how often would I have gathered thy children as a hen gathereth her chickens under her wings" (Mt 23 37). Gene Stratton-Porter

WINK, wink ($\Box \underline{\uparrow}$), $r\bar{a}zam$, lit. "to roll the eyes"): The act or habit of winking was evidently considered to be evil both in its motives and in its results. idea of its facetiousness, prevalent in our day, is nowhere apparent in the Scriptures. It is mentioned frequently, but is always associated with sin. in the OT esp. in the sense of conceit, pride, and rebellion against God: "Why doth thine heart carry thee away? and what do thy eyes wink at, that thou turnest thy spirit against God" (Job 15 12.13 AV). So also Ps 35 19: "Neither let them wink with the eye that hate me without a cause.' "A naughty person, a wicked man, walketh with a froward mouth. He winketh with his eyes," etc (Prov 6 12.13 AV). "He that winketh with the

eye causeth sorrow" (10 10). See Watkinson, Education of the Heart, "Ethics of Gesture," 194 ff.

In the NT the word is used to express the long-suffering patience and forgiveness of God toward erring Israel: "And the times of this ignorance God winked at" (Acts 17 30 AV, "brepeilov, hupereidon, "overlooked," and so trd in RV; cf Wisd 11 23; Ecclus 30 11). The use of "winked" in this connection would in our day, of course, be considered in bad taste, if not actually irreverent, but it is an excellent example of the colloquialism of AV.

ARTHUR WALWYN EVANS
WINNOWING, win'o-ing. See AGRICULTURE;
FAN: THRESHING.

WINTER, win'tēr (Τ)Π, hōreph, from Τ)Π, hāraph, "to inundate," "overflow"): The rainy season, also the autumn harvest season (Gen 8 22; Ps 74 17; Zec 14 8). It is also the time of cold (Jer 36 22; Am 3 15). The vb. "to winter" occurs in Isa 18 6. Sthāw (Τ) has the same meaning as hōreph (Cant 2 11). χειμών, cheimōn, corresponds to hōreph as the rainy season, and the vb. παραχειμάζω, paracheimāzō, signifies "to pass the winter" (Acts 27 12), the noun from which is παραχειμασία paracheimasīa (ib). See Seasons.

WINTER-HOUSE (בּרֹח־הַהוֹּ, bēth ha-hōreph [Jer 36 22; Am 3 15]): See under Summer-House. The "winter-house" in Jer is that of King Jehoiakim; mention is made of the fire burning in the brazier.

WISDOM, wiz'dum:

1. Linguistic 6. Remainder of the NT (2. History (1) James (2) Paul 4. Ideals 7. Hypostasis 5. Teaching of Christ LITERATURE

In RV the noun "wisdom" and its corresponding adj. and vb. ("be wise," "act wisely," etc) represent

adj. and vb. ("be wise," "act wisely," etc) represent a variety of Heb words: בְּרְבָּה, b̄n̄n̄ 1. Linguistic (בְּרְבָּה, b̄n̄nāh, and in ERV בְּרְבָּה, sākhal (בְּרָבָה, sēkhel, בָּרַ , sēkhel, בָּרַ , lēbh (and in ERV

לְבֵב , lābhabh), הוּשָׁרָה , tūshīyāh (and in ERV טָעָם , $t^{e^*}(\bar{e}m)$, ערטָה, 'ormāh, פֿקּק, $pikk\bar{e}^ah$. None of these, however, is of very frequent occurrence and by far the most common group is the vb. DDD, hakham, with the adj. בְּלְכָּת , ḥākhām, and the nouns הְלְכָּת , hokhmāh, הַּכְּמֵּוֹת , hokhmōth, with something over 300 occurrences in the OT (of which rather more than half are in Job, Prov, and Eccl). $Hokhm\bar{a}h$. and nam are in Jod, Frov, and Eccil. Hokmah, accordingly, may be treated as the Heb equivalent for the Eng. "wisdom," but none the less the two words do not quite correspond. For hokhmāh may be used of simple technical skill (Ex 28 3; 35 25, etc; cf Wisd 14 2; Sir 38 31; note that the EV gives a false impression in such passages), of military ability (Isa 10 13), of the intelligence of the lower animals (Prov 30 24), of shrewdness applied to vicious (2 S 13 3) or cruel (1 K 2 9 Heb) ends, etc. Obviously no one Eng. word will cover all these different uses, but the general meaning is clear enough—"the art of reaching one's end by the use of the right means" (Smend). Predominantly the "wisdom" thought of is that which comes through experience, and the "wise man" is at his best in old age (Job 12 12; 15 10; Prov 16 31; Sir 6 34; 8 9; 25 3-6, etc; contrast Job 32 9; Eccl 4 13; Wisd 4 9; Sir 25 2). And in religion the "wise man" is he who gives to the things of God the same acuteness that other men give to worldly affairs (Lk 16 8). He is distinguished from the prophets as not having personal inspiration, from the priestly school as not laying primary stress on the cultus, and from the scribes as not devoted simply to the study of the sacred writings. But, in the word by itself, a "wise man" need not in any way be a religious man.

(1) In the prophetic period, indeed, "wise" generally has an irreligious connotation. Israel was fully sensible that her culture was 2. History beneath that of the surrounding nations, but thought of this as the reverse of a defect. Intellectual power without moral control was the very fruit of the forbidden tree (Gen 3 5), and "wisdom" was essentially a heathen quality (Isa 10 13; 19 12; 47 10; Ezk 28 3-5; Zec 9 2; specifically Edomite in Jer 49 7; Ob ver 8; consciling the second only denunciation. trast Bar 3 22.23) that deserved only denunciation (Isa 5 21; 29 14; Jer 4 22; 9 23; 18 18, etc). Certainly at this time Israel was endeavoring to acquire a culture of her own, and there is no reason to question that Solomon had given it a powerful stimulus (1 K 4 29-34). But the times were too distracted and the moral problems too imperative to allow the more spiritually-minded any oppor-tunity to cultivate secular learning, so that "wis-dom" in Israel took on the unpleasant connotation of the quality of the shrewd court counselors, with their half-heathen advice (Isa 28 14-22, etc). And the associations of the word with true religion are very few (Dt 4 6; Jer 8 8), while Dt 32 6; Jer 4 22; 8 9 have a satirical sound—'what men call "wisdom" is really folly! So, no matter how much material may have gathered during this period (see Proverbs), it is to the post-exilic community that we are to look for the formation of a body of Wisdom literature really associated with Israel's religion.

(2) The factors that produced it were partly the same as those that produced scribism (see SCRIBE). Life in Pal was lived only on the sufferance of foreigners and must have been dreary in the extreme. Under the firm hand of Persia there were no political questions, and in later times the nation was too weak to play any part in the conflicts between Antioch and Alexandria. Prophecy had about disappeared, fulfilment of the Messianic hope seemed too far off to affect thought deeply, and the conditions were not yet ripe that produced the later flame of apocalyptic enthusiasm. Nor were there vital religious problems within the nation, now that the fight against idolatry had been won and the ritual reforms established. Artistic pursuits were forbidden (cf esp. Wisd 15 4-6), and the Jewish temperament was not of a kind that could produce a speculative philosophy (note the sharp polemic against metaphysics, etc, in Sir 3 21-24). It was in this period, to be sure, that Jewish commercial genius began to assert itself, but there was no satisfaction in this for the more spiritually-minded (Sir 26 29). So, on the one hand, men were thrown back on the records of the past (scribism), while on the other the problems of religion and life were studied through sharp observation of Nature and of mankind. And the recorded results of the latter method form the Wisdom literature.

(3) In this are included Job, Prov, and Eccl, with certain Pss (notably 19, 37, 104, 107, 147, 148); in the Apoc must be added Sir and Wisd, with part of Bar; while of the other writings of the period parts of Philo, 4 Macc, and the Ahikar legend belong here also. How far foreign influence was at work it is hard to say. Egypt had a Wisdom literature of her own (see Egypt) that must have been known to

some degree in Pal, while Babylonia and Persia could not have been entirely without effect—but no specific dependence can be shown in any of these cases. For Greece the case is clearer, and Gr influence is obvious in Wisd, despite the particularistic smugness of the author. But there was vitality enough in Judaism to explain the whole movement without recourse to outside influences, and, in any case, it is most arbitrary and untrue to attribute all the Wisdom speculation to Gr forces (as, e.g., does Siegfried, HDB).

The following characteristics are typical of the group: (1) The premises are universal. The writers draw from life wherever found, ad3. Religious mitting that in some things Israel may Basis learn from other nations. The Proverbs of Lemuel are referred explicitly to a non-Jewish author (Prov 31 1 RVm), and Sir recommends foreign travel to his students (34 10.11; 39 4). Indeed, all the princes of the earth rule through wisdom (Prov 8 16; cf Eccl 9 15). And even some real knowledge of God can be obtained by all men through the study of natural phenomena (Ps 19 1; Sir 16 29—17 14; 42 15—43 33; Wisd 13 2.9; cf Rom 1 20).

(2) But some of the writers dissent here (Job 28 28; 11 7; Eccl 2 11; 8 16.17; 11 5; Wisd 9 13[?]). And in any case this wisdom needs God's explicit grace for its cultivation (Sir 51 13-22; Wisd 7 7; 8 21), and when man trusts simply to his own attainments he is bound to go wrong (Prov 3 5-7; 19 21; 21 30; 28 11; Sir 3 24; 5 2.3; 6 2; 10 12; Bar 3 15-28). True wisdom must center about God (Prov 15 33; 19 20 f), starting from Him (Prov 1 7; 9 10; Ps 111 10; Sir 21 11; Job 28 28) and ending in Him (Prov 2 5); cf esp. the beautiful passage Sir 1 14-20. But the religious attitude is far from being the whole of Wisdom. The course is very difficult (Prov 2 4 f; 4 7; Sir 4 17; 14 22.23; Wisd 1 5; 17 1); continual attention must be given every department of life, and man is never done learning (Prov 9 9; Sir 6 18; Eccl 4 13).

(3) The attitude toward the written Law varies. In Eccl, Joh and Provitis hardly mentioned (Prov 28 7-9[?]; 29 18[?]). Wisd, as a special pamphlet against idolatry, has little occasion for specific reference, but its high estimate of the Law is clear enough (2 12-15; 18 9). Sir, esp., can find no terms high enough for the praise of the Law (esp. chs 24, 36; cf 9 15; 21 11, etc.), and he identifies the Law with Wisdom (24 23-25) and claims the prophets as Wisdom teachers (44 3.4). Yet this perverse identification betrays the fact that Sir's interest is not derived from a real study of the Law; the Wisdom that was so precious to him must be in the sacred books! Cf Bar 4 1 (rather more sincere).

(4) The attitude toward the temple-worship is much

(rather more sincere).

(4) The attitude toward the temple-worship is much the same. The rites are approved (Prov 3 9; Sir 35 4–8; 38 11; Sir seems to have an especial interest in the priesthood, 7 29–33; 50 5–21), but the writers clearly have no theory of sacrifice that they can utilize for practical purposes. And for sacrifice (and even prayer, Prov 28 9) as a substitute for righteousness no condemnation is too strong (Prov 7 14; 15 8; 20 25; 21 3.27; Sir 34 18–26; 35 1–3.12; Eccl 5 1).

(5) An outlook on life beyond the grave is notably absent in the Wisdom literature. Wisd is the only exception (3 1, etc), but Gr influence in Wisd is perfectly certain. In Job there are expressions of confidence (14 13-15; 19 25-29), but these do not determine the main argument of the book. Prov does not raise the question, while Eccl and Sir categorically deny immortality (Eccl 9 2-10; Sir 14 16; 17 27.28; 30 4; note that RV in Sir 7 17; 48 11 is based on a glossed text; cf the Heb). Even the Messianic hope of the nation is in the background in Prov (2 21.22 [?]), and it is altogether absent in Job and Eccl. To Sir (35 19; 36 11-14; 47 22) and Wisd (3 8; 5 16-23) it is important, however, but not even these works have anything to say of a personal Messiah (Sir 47 22 [?]).

(6) That in all the literature the individual is

the center of interest need not be said. But this individualism, when combined with the weak eschatology, brought dire confusion into the doctrine of retribution (see Sin). Sir stands squarely by the old doctrine of retribution in this life: if at no other time, a man's sins will be punished on his deathbed (1 13; 11 26). Neither Job nor Eccl, however, are content with this solution. The latter leaves the problem entirely unsolved (8 14, etc.), while the former commends it to God's unsearchable ways.

The basis of the Wisdom method may be described then as that of a "natural" religion respecting revelation, but not making much

ing revelation, but not making much

4. Ideals use of it. So the ideal is a man who
believes in God and who endeavors to
live according to a prudence taught by observation
of this world's laws, with due respect, however, to
Israel's traditional observances.

(1) From many standpoints the resulting character is worthy of admiration. The man was intelligent, earnest, and hard-working (Prov has a particular contempt for the "sluggard"; and of Eccl 9 10). Lying and injustice are denounced on almost every page of the literature, and unceasing emphasis is laid on the necessity for benevolence (Ps 37 21; 112 5.9; Job 22 7; 31 16-20; Prov 3 27.28; 14 31; 21 13; 22 9; Eccl 11 1; Sir 4 1-6; 7 34.35; 29 11-13; 40 24, etc). All of the writers feel that life is worth the living—at their most pessimistic moments the writers of Job and Eccl find attraction in the contemplation of the world. In Prov and Sir the outlook is even buoyant, Sir in especial being far from indifferent to the good things of life (30 23-25; 31 27; cf Eccl 2 24 and contrast Wied 2 6-9)

of life (30 23-25; 31 27; cf Eccl 2 24 and contrast Wisd 2 6-9).

(2) The faults of the Wisdom ideal are the faults of the postulates. The man is always self-conscious and self-centered. All intense enthusiasms are repressed, as likely to prove entangling (Eccl 7 16. 17 is the most extreme case), and the individual is always calculating (Sir 33 17), even among his friends (Sir 6 13; Prov 25 17) and in his family (Sir 33 19-23). Benevolence itself is to be exercised circumspectly (Prov 6 1-5; 20 16; Sir 12 5-7; 29 18), and Sir, in particular, is very far from feeling an obligation to love all men (25 7; 27 24; 30 6; 50 25.26). So "right" and "wrong" become confused with "advantage" and "disadvantage." Not only is adultery wrong (Prov 2 17; Sir 23 23), but the injured husband is a dangerous enemy (Prov 5 9-11.14; 6 34.35; Sir 23 21). As a result the "moral perspective" is affected. With some of the finest moral observations in Prov and Sir are combined instructions as to table manners (Prov 23 1-3; Sir 31 12-18) and merely humorous observations (Prov 20 14), while such passages as Prov 22 22-28 and Sir 41 17-24 contain extraordinary conglomerations of disparate motives.

(3) So hope of earthly recompense becomes a very explicit motive (Prov 3 10; 11 25, etc; Wisd 7 8-12 is the best statement on the other side). Even though riches are nothing in themselves (Prov 10 2; 11 28; 23 4.5; 28 11; Eccl 5 13; Sir 11 19; 31 5-7; all the literature denounces the unrighteous rich), yet Wisdom is to be desired as bringing not only righteousness but riches also (Prov 8 21; 11 25; 13 18; Sir 4 15; 20 27.28; Wisd 6 21). This same desire for advantage gives an unpleasant turn to many of the precepts which otherwise would touch the highest point; perhaps Prov 24 17.18 is the most extreme case: "Rejoice not when thine enemy falleth, lest Jeh turn away his wrath from him" (!)

(4) But probably the most serious fault was that the Wisdom method tended to produce a religious aristocracy (Sir 6 22, etc). It was not enough that the heart and will should be right, for a long course of almost technical training was needed (the "house of instruction" in Sir **51** 23 is probably the school; cf Prov **9** 4). The uninstructed or "simple" (Prov 1 22, etc) were grouped quite simply with the "sinners"; knowledge was virtue and ignorance was vice. Doubtless Wisdom cried in the streets (Prov 1 20.21; 8 1-13; 9 1-6, almost certainly a reference to the canvassing efforts of the teachers for pupils), but only men of ability and leisure could obey the call to learn. And despite all that is said in praise of manual labor (Prov 12 11; 24 27; 28 19; Sir 7 15; 38 31.32.34), Sirach is merely frank when he says explicitly (38 25-34) that Wisdom cannot be for artisans (a carpenter as Messiah evidently would have been unthinkable to Sir; Mk 6 3). Scribism was at work along the same lines of development, and the final union of the Wisdom method with the scribal produced a class who called the common people accursed (Jn 7 49)

The statement of the methods and ideals of the Wisdom school is also virtually a statement of Our

Lord's attitude toward it and an ex-5. Teaching planation of why much of His teaching took the form it did. As to the uniof Christ versality of the premises He was at

one with the Wisdom writers, one great reason for the universality of the appeal of His teaching. Almost everything in the life of the time, from the lily of the field to the king on his throne, contributed its quota to His illustrations. And from the Wisdom method also the form of His teaching—the concise, antithetical saying that sticks in the memorywas derived to some degree. (Of all the sayings of Christ, perhaps Lk 14 8-10—a quotation of Prov -comes nearest to the pure Wisdom type.) In common with the Wisdom writers, also, is the cheerful outlook, despite the continual prospect of the Passion, and we must never forget that all morbid asceticism was entirely foreign to Him (Lk 7 34 | Mt 11 19). With the self-conscious, calculating product of the Wisdom method, however, He had no patience. Give freely, give as the Father giveth, without regard to self, in no way seeking a reward, is the burden of His teaching and guals a reward, is the burden of His teaching, and such a passage as Lk 6 27-38 seems to have been aimed at the head of such writers as The attack on the religious aristocracy is too familiar to need recapitulation. Men by continual exercise of worldly prudence could make themselves as impervious to His teaching as by obstinate adherence to a scribal tradition, while His message was for all men on the sole basis of a desire for righteousness on their part. This was the true Wisdom, fully justified of her children (Lk 7 35; cf Mt 11 19), while, as touching the other "Wisdom," Christ could give thanks that God had seen fit to hide His

mysteries from the wise and prudent and reveal them unto "babes" (Lk 10 21 || Mt 11 25).

(1) The remainder of the NT, despite many occurrences of the words "wise," "wisdom," etc, contains very little that is really rele vant to the technical sense of the words. 6. Re-The one notable exception is Jas, which has even been classed as "Wisdom literature," and with some justice. mainder of the NT

For Jas has the same appeal to observation of Nature (1 11; 3 3-6.11.12; 5 7, etc.), the same observation of human life (2 2.3.15.16; 4 13, etc.), the same antithetical form, and even the same technical use of the word "wisdom" (1 5; 3 15-17). The fiery moral zeal, however, is far above that of the other Wisdom books, even above that of Job.

(2) St. Paul, on the other hand, belongs to an entirely different class, that of intense religious experience, seeking its premises in revelation. So the Wisdom method is foreign to him and the

absence of Nature illustrations from his pages is notorious (even Rom 11 17 is an artificially constructed figure). Only one passage calls for special comment. The "wisdom" against which he inveighs in 1 Cor 1-3 is not Jewish but Gr speculation in philosophy, with studied elegance in rhetoric. Still, Jewish or Gr, the moral difficulty was the same. God's message was obscured through an overvaluation of human attainments, and so St. Paul's use of such OT passages as Isa 29 14; Job 5 13; Ps 94 11 (in 1 Cor 1 19; 3 19.20) is entirely just. Against this "wisdom" St. Paul sets the doctrine of the Cross, something that outraged every human system but which, all the more, taught man his entire dependence on God.

(3) Yet St. Paul had a "wisdom" of his own (1 Cor 2 6), that he taught to Christians of mature moral (not intellectual: 3 1-3) progress. Some commentators would treat this wisdom as doctrinal and find it in (say) Rom; more probably it is to be connected with the mystical experiences of the Christian whose life has become fully controlled by the Spirit (1 Cor 2 10-13). For religious progress is always accompanied by a higher insight that can never be described satisfactorily to persons without

the same experience (2 14).

(1) One characteristic of the Wisdom writers that proved of immense significance for later (esp.

Christian) theology was a love of rhetorical personification of Wisdom (Prov 7. Hypos-

tasis

1 20-33; 8 1—9 6; Sir 4 11-19; 6 23-31; 14 20—15 10; 24; 51 13-21; Wisd
6 12—9 18; Bar 3 29-32). Such personifications in themselves are not, of course, remarkable (cf e.g. the treatment of "love" in 1 Cor 13), but the studied, somewhat artificial style of the Wisdom writers carries out the personification with a curious elaboration of details: Wisdom builds her house, marries her disciple, mingles wine, etc. The most famous passage is Prov 8 22-31, however. The Wisdom that is so useful to man was created before man, before, indeed, the creation of the world. When the world was formed she was in her childhood, and while God formed the world she engaged in childish play, under His shelter and to His delight. So ver 30 should be rendered, as the context makes clear that 'mum should be pointed 'āmun, "sheltered," and not 'āmōn, "as a master-workman." And "Wisdom" is a quality of man (8 31-36), not a quality of God.

(2) Indeed, "Wisdom" is an attribute rarely predicated of God in the OT (1 K 3 28; Isa 10 13; 31 2; Jer 10 12; 51 15; cf Dnl 5 11), even in the Wisdom writers (Job 5 12 ff; 9 4; Ps 104 24; Prov 3 19). Partly this reticence seems to be due to a feeling that God's knowledge is hardly to be compared in kind to man's, partly to the fact that to the earlier writers "Wisdom" had a profane sound. Later works, however, have less hesitation in this regard (e.g., Sir 42 21; Bar 3 32, the MT pointing and LXX of Prov 8 30), so that the personifications became personifications of a quality of God. The result was one of the factors that operated to produce the doctrine of the "Word" as it appeared in the Palestinian form (see Logos).

(3) In the Apoc, however, the most advanced step is

the Palestinian form (see Logos).

(3) In the Apoc, however, the most advanced step is taken in Wisd. Wisdom is the only-begotten of God (7 22), the effulgence of eternal light (7 26; cf He 1 3), living with God (8 3) and sharing (?) His throne (9 4). She is the origin (or "mother") of all creatures (7 12; cf 8 6), continually active in penetrating (7 24), ordering (18 1), and renewing (7 27) all things, while carrying inspiration to all holy souls (7 23), esp. to Israel (10 17. 18). Here there is no doubt that the personification has ceased to be rhetorical and has become real. Wisdom is thought of as a heavenly being, not so distinctively personal, perhaps, as an angel, but none the less far more than a mere rhetorical term; i.e. she is a "hypostasis."

tasis."

(4) Most of Wisd's description is simply an expansion of earlier Palestinian concepts, but it is evident that other influence has been at work also and that that influence was Greek. The writer of Wisd was touched genuinely by the Gr philosophy, and in 7 24, at any rate, his "Wisdom" is the lógos spermatikós of the Stoics, with more than suspicions of Gr influence elsewhere in the descriptions. This combination of Jewish

and Gr thought was still further elaborated by Philo—and still further confused. For Philo endeavored to operate with the Wisdom doctrine in its Palestinian form, the Wisdom doctrine in twisd had already infused some Logos doctrine, and the Logos doctrine by itself, without thoroughly understanding the discordant character of his terms. The result is one of the most obscure passages in Philo's system. Sometimes, as in De Fug. \$109, ch xx, Wisdom is the mother of the Logos, as God is its Father (cf Cherub., §\$49, 50, ch xiv), while again, the relation can be inverted almost in the same context and the Logos appears as the source of Wisdom (De Fug. \$97, ch xviii). See Logos.

(5) Philo's influence was incalculable, and Wisdom, as a heavenly power, plays an almost incredible rôle in the gnostic speculations of the 2d and 3d cents, the gnostic work Pistis Sophia probably attaining the climax of unreality. The orthodox Fathers, however, naturally sought Wisdom within the Trinity, and Irenaeus made an identification with the Holy Spirit (iv. 20, 3). Tertullian, on the other hand, identified Wisdom with Son (probably following earlier precedent) in Adv. Prax., 7, and this identification attained general acceptation. So Prov 8 22–30 became a locus classicus in the Christological controversies (an elaborate exposition in Athanasius, Orat. ii.16–22), and persisted as a dogmatic proof-text until a very modern period.

LITERATURE.—The OT Theologies, particularly those of Smend, ed 2 (1899), and Bertholet (1911). For the intermediate period, GJV, III, ed 4 (1909), and Bousset, Die Religion des Judentums, ed 2 (1906). Special works: Toy, "Wisdom Literature," EB, IV (1903); Meinhold, Die Weisheit Israels (1908); Friedländer, Griechische Philosophie im AT (1904, to be used cautiously). On Philo, cf esp. Drummond, Philo Judaeus, II, 201–13 (1888). See also the arts. on the various books and ct Logos; Philo Judzeus.

BURTON SCOTT EASTON WISDOM LITERATURE, lit'ér-a-ţtir. See pre-

Burton Scott Easton WISDOM LITERATURE, lit'er-a-tur. See preceding article.

WISDOM OF GOD (σοφία, sophia): Lk 11 49 reads: "Therefore also said the wisdom of God, I will send unto them prophets and apostles; and some of them they shall kill and persecute." The patristic and many later commentators, on the basis of the parallel in Mt 23 34, took "wisdom of God" here to be a self-designation of Christ—an interpretation, however, that is obviously impossible. Somewhat similar is the view (Meyer) that treats the words as a Lukan designation of Christ, with the assumption that Luke here reintroduces Christ as the speaker in order to give solemnity to the judgment pronounced. But this is incredibly awkward and has no parallel in the Lukan use for even more solemn passages. Much simpler is the interpretation (Hofmann, B. Weiss, Plummer) that regards Christ as announcing here a decree formed by God in the past. But it is the behavior of the present generation that is in point (cf Lk 13 8.9; 20 13; altogether different is Lk 10 21). And the circumstantial wording of what follows is inappropriate for such a decree, is without parallel appropriate for such a decree, is whout parallel in Christ's teaching, and implies rather a written source. In the OT, however, no passage exists that resembles this (Prov 1 20–31 [so Godet] is quite out of the question). So many exegetes (Holtzmann, J. Weiss, Loisy, Harnack) find here a quotation from some lost source that Our Lord approved and that was familiar to His hearers. This is certainly the most natural explanation. Nor can it be said to be impossible that Christ recognized genuine prophetic inspiration in some writing that was meant to have transitory value only and not to be preserved for future generations. Perhaps this bore the title "Wisdom of God" or represented "Wisdom" as speaking, as in Prov 1 22-33.

BURTON SCOTT EASTON WISDOM OF JESUS. See SIRACH.

WISDOM OF SOLOMON, THE:

I. NAME II. CANONICITY III. Contents
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2. The Historical Section
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AUTHER

LITERATURE

I. Name.—In the Gr MSS (B A \aleph , etc) the book is called "The Wisdom of Solomon" ($\Sigma o \phi \iota a \Sigma a \lambda \omega$ word varying in the best MSS). In the Syr (Pesh) its title is "The Book of the Great Wisdom of its title is Solomon." Solomon was among the Jews and the early Christians the patron of didactic, as David was of lyrical, and Moses of religious-legal, literature, was of tyrical, and Moses of rengious-legal, Interature, and their names came to be associated with literary compositions with which they had nothing to do. We read in the OT of the wisdom of Solomon (1 K 3 7-14; cf Sir 47 12-18 [14-19]), and the whole of the Book of Prov is called by his name, though he is at most the author of but a part. Solomon speaks in the first person in this book (chs 6-9), as he does in Eccl (1 12 ff), for that he is made the speaker until the close of ch 9 is made certain by 7 1 ff; 9 2 ff. As long as he was thought to be the composer of this book it continued to be called "The Wisdom of Solomon" among the Jews and the early Christians.

Influenced by the Gr thought and style of the book, Jerome came to the conclusion that Solomon was not its author and he accordingly altered its title to "The Book of Wisdom" (Liber sapientiae), and it is this designation that the book bears in the Vulg and the VSS made from it, though in the Protestant tre (Ger., Eng., Welsh, etc) the title "The Wisdom of Solomon" is continued, as these follow the Gr VS and not the Lat. Luther's title is "The Wisdom of Solomon to Tyrants" (Die Weisheit Salomos an die Tyrannen). Epiphanius and Athanasius quote the book under the name "All-Virtuous Wisdom" (Hawderos Sooja, Pandretos Sophta), a title by which Prov and Sir are also known in the writings of some of the Fathers.

II. Canonicity.—In the MSS and edd of the Gr Bible and in the Vulg, EV, etc, Wisd follows Prov, Eccl and Cant, and is followed by Sir. Some of the Fathers, believing the book to be by Solomon, thought it Divinely inspired and therefore canonical; so Hippolytus, Cyprian, Ambrose, etc. Other Fathers, though denying the Solomonian authorship of the book, yet accorded it canonical rank; so Origen, Eusebius, Augustine, etc. On the other hand there were some in the early church who refused to acknowledge the book as in any way authoritative in matters of doctrine. The Council of Trent included it with the rest of the Protestant Apoc (except 1 and 2 Esd and Pr Man) in the Canon, so that the Romanist Bible includes, but the Protestant Bible excludes, it.

III. Contents.—The book is made up of two main

parts so different as to suggest difference of authorship. (1) The wisdom section (1 1—11 4): In this part the writer describes and commends Wisdom, warning his readers against neglecting it. (2) The historical section (11 5—19 22).

(1) Righteousness (i.e. Wisdom in operation) leads

to immortality, unrighteousness to death (ch 1).

(2) Contrasted fortunes of the wise (righteous) and unwise (ungodly) (2 1—6 21).—(a) Sensual pleasures issue in death while God intended all men to live spiritually (ch 2); (b) the lot of the wise (righteous) is a happy one. Their sufferings are disciplinary and remedial; they shall live forever and reign hereafter over the nations (Gentiles)

(3 1-9); (c) but the lot of the wicked and of their children is a miserable

Wisdom one; the wise (righteous) shall be happy Section. though childless (3 10-19); (d) virtu-1:1--11:4 ous childlessness secures immortality

before guilty parenthood (4 1-6); (e) though the wise (righteous) die early, yet they have rest in their death, and accomplish their life mission in the allotted time (cf Enoch) (4 7-14); (f) the ungodly (unwise) shall come to a wretched end: then they shall see and envy the prosperity of the righteous. Though they shall pass tracelessly away, the righteous shall rejoice in a life that is endless (4 15—5 23); (g) kings ought therefore to rule according to Wisdom and thus attain to immortality (6 1-21).

(3) Wisdom.—Speaking in the name of Solomon, the writer praises Wisdom and commends it to kings ("judges" = "rulers" in 6 1, is but a synonym) (6 1—11 4). (a) All men come into the world with the same universal need of Wisdom which leads to true kingship and immortality (6 1-25); (b) I (Solomon) sought Wisdom as the main thing and in obtaining it had along with it every good thing, including knowledge of every kind (7 1—8 21); (c) the prayer which Solomon offered for Wisdom 1-18); (d) how Wisdom defended the heroes of Heb history, from the first man, Adam, to the Israelites at the Red Sea and in the wilderness (10 1-11 4).

In this second part of the book Solomon no longer speaks in the first person (as in chs 6-9), nor is Wisdom once mentioned or for certain referred to, though most writers see in this part the attempt of the author of 1 1—11 4 to exemplify in concrete instances the works 11:5—19:22 (1) Contrasted treatment by God (not Wisdom) of the Israelites and their foes (11 5—12). By what things their foes were punished they were benefited (11 5). (a) The Egyptians (11 5—12): Water a boon to Israel, a bane to Egypt (11 6—14). The Egyptians punished by the animals they worshipped (11 15–20), though there was a relenting on God's part that sinners might repent (11 21—12 2). (b) The Canaanites (12 3–27): The abominations of the worship and the Divine punishment with the lessons this last teaches.

worship and the Divine punishment with the lessons this last teaches.

(2) Idolatry described and condemned (chs 13-15). These chapters form a unity in themselves, a digression from the historical survey closed with 12 27 and continued in 16 1-19. The digression may of course be due to the allusion in 11 5-12 to the sins of the Egyptians and Canaanites. Kinds of idolatry: (a) Natureworship (fire, wind, air, water, heavenly bodies), due often to sincere desire to find out God (13 1-9); (b) worship of idols in animal form, a much grosser sin (13 10-19); (c) God's indignation against all forms of idolatry (14 1-11); (d) origin of image-worship (14 15-21); the father mourning for his deceased son makes an image of him and then worships it (14 15); rulers are often flattered and then deified (14 16 f); artists often make images so attractive as to tempt men to regard them as gods (14 18-21); (e) immoral results of idolatry: "The worship of idols... a beginning and cause and end of every evi!" (ver 27) (14 22-31); (f) Israel was free from idolatry and in consequence enjoyed the Divine flavor (15 1-5); (g) the folly of idolatry: the image man made less capable than man its maker and worshipper; the Egyptians the worst offenders (15 6-19).

(3) In five different respects the fortunes of Egypt and Israel in the past are contrasted, Nature using similar means to punish the Egyptians and to reward the Israelites (16-19 22), viz. in respect of the following: (a) animals, quail (vs 1-4) and flery serpents (vs 5-14) (16 1-14); (b) fire and water, heat and cold (16 15-29); (c) light and darkness (17 1-18 4); (d) death (18 5-25); (e) passage of the Red Sea (19 1-22).

IV. Literary Form. - There is not so much manifest poetry in this book as in Sir, though there is a large amount of genuine poetry characterized by parallelism, but not by meter in the ordinary sense of the term. In parts of the book, which must be pronounced prose, parallelism is nevertheless often found (see 10 1 ff). There are far fewer epigram-

matic sentences in Wisd than in Sir, but on the other hand there is a far greater number of other rhetorical devices, assonances (1 10; 4 2; 5 15; 7 13), alliterations (2 23; 5 12.18; 6 11; 12 15), antitheses (13 18 f), etc. See for details Speaker's

Apoc (Farrar), I, 404 ff.

V. Unity and Integrity.—Nearly all writers on the book believe it to be one homogeneous whole, the work of one mind. They point for proof to the fact that the whole book is a consistent whole directed against the two evils, apostasy and idolatry; that the language is from beginning to end uniform, such as one writer would be likely to employ.

such as one writer would be likely to employ.

For a statement of contrary views and a reply to them see the Comm. of Grimm, pp. 9-15. Until about the middle of the 18th cent. no doubt had been expressed as regards the unity of the book. (1) Houbigant (Notae criticae in universos NT libros, 1777, 169) divided the book into two parts: chs 1-9 written by Solomon in Heb, chs 10-19 composed in Gr at a later time, perhaps by the trinto Gr of chs 1-9. Against the Solomonian authorship see VIII, below, and against a Heb original see X, below. Doederlein adopted Houbigant's division of the book, denying, however, the Solomonian authorship. (2) Eichhorn (Einleitung in das NT, 142 ff) divided the book also into two parts: chs 1-11 and 11 2-19. He held that the whole was composed in Gr by two different writers or by the same writer at different times. (3) Nachtigal (Das Buch der Weisheit, 1799) went much farther, holding that the book is nothing more than an anthology, but he has had no followers in this. (4) Bretschneider (De lib. Sap., 1804) ascribes the book to three principal authors and to a final editor. 1-6 8 was composed in Heb in the time of Antiochus Epiphanes (d. 164 BC) by a Palestinian Jew, though it is an excerpt from a larger work; 6 9-10 is the work of an Alexandrian Jew, a contemporary of Our Lord; ch 11 was inserted by the final editor as seemingly necessary to connect parts 2 and 3; chs 12-19 were written about the same time by a Jewish partisan of slender education and narrow sympathies. narrow sympathies

Summary.—Perhaps, on the whole, the arguments in favor of the unity of the book outweigh those against it. But the evidence is by no means decisive. The Wisdom section (1 1—11 4) is a much finer bit of writing than the rest of the book, and it bears the general characteristics of the Wisdom Yet even within this larger unity chs literature. 6-9 stand out from the rest, since only in them is Solomon made to speak in the first person (cf Eccl 1 12 ff); but these four chapters agree with the rest of the Wisdom section in other respects. Within the historical section (11 5—19 22) chs 13-15 stand together as if a separate treatise on idolatry (see III, above), though if originally independent an editor has logically joined ch 15 to ch 12; cf "for" $(\gamma a_{\rho}, g ar)$, "etc" (13 1). Indeed the book in its present form is made at least externally one, though it is not absolutely certain whether or not this external unity is due to editorial revision. Some scholars have maintained that the book as it stands is a torso (so Eichhorn, etc). Calmet infers this from the fact that the historical sketch closes with the entrance of the Israelites into Canaan. Others say that the writer's sketch was cut short by some unforeseen event (Grotius, Eichhorn), or that the remainder of the once complete work has been lost in transmission (Heydenreich). But on the other hand it must be remembered that the writer's record is limited by his purpose, and that the history of the Egyptians supplies an admirable and adequate illustration of the wickedness and calamitous results of unfaithfulness to God and His law.

VI. Teaching.—In the treatment of this section it is assumed with some hesitation that the book is throughout the work of one man. The following is a brief statement of the teaching of this book concerning theology, anthropology, deontology, ha-martiology, soteriology, and eschatology

Theology in the strict sense, i.e. the doctrine about God: God is incomparably powerful (11 21 f), omnipresent (1 7; 12 l) and all-loving (11 24). He made the world out of formless matter (11 17, the doctrine of the Alexandrian Judaism). He did not create the world out of nothing as the OT (Gen 1 1 ff) and even Sir teach (see Sirach, 1. Theology

1. Theology

Conception of creation is the conversion of chaos into cosmos. It is the order

of chaos into cosmos. It is the order and beauty of the universe that amaze the writer, not the stupendous power required to make such a universe out of nothing (11 20; 13 3). Though God is said to be just (12 15), kind (1 13; 11 17-26; 12 13-16; 15 1; 16 7), and is even addressed as Father (14 3), yet He is in a unique sense the Favorer and Protector of Israel (16 2; 18 8; 19 22); yet according to 12 2-20 even the calamities He heaps up upon the foes of Israel were designed to lead them to repentance (12 2-20), though in chs 11 f we are clearly taught that while the sufferings of the Israelites were remedial, those of their enemies were purely penal. The conception of God in Wisd agrees on the whole with that of Alexandrian Judaism (c 100 BC); i.e. it lays principal stress on this transcendence, His infinite aloofness from man and the material world. We have therefore in this book the beginning of the doctrine of intermediaries which issued in Philo's Powers, the media through which the Absolute One comes into definite relation with men.

(1) Spirit of the Lord.—In Wisd as in the later books of the OT (exilic and post-exilic), the expression "the Spirit of the Lord" denotes the person of God. What God does is done by the Spirit. Thus it is His Spirit that fills and sustains the world, that observes all human actions (1 7 f), that is present everywhere (12 1). Wisdom does not hypostatize "the Spirit of the Lord," making it an intermediary between God and His creatures, but the way is

prepared for this step.

(2) Wisdom.—Much that is said of the Spirit of the Lord in this book is said of Wisdom, but much more, and there is a much closer approach to hypostatization in the case of Wisdom. At the creation of the world Wisdom was with God (cf Prov 8 22-31), sat by His throne, knew His thoughts and was His associate (8 3; 9 4.9), made all things, taught Solomon the Wisdom for which he prayed (7 22); all powerful, seeing all things (7 23), pervading all things (7 24), an effluence of the glory of the Almighty (7 25); she teaches sobriety, understanding, righteousness and courage (8 7, the four cardinal virtues of the Stoic philosophy). For detailed account of the conception

of Wisdom in this book see Wisdom.

(3) The Logos.—In Philo the Logos is the intermediary power next to Deity, but in Wisd the term keeps to the OT sense, "word," that by which God addresses men. It never means more, though some hold (Gfrörer, Philo, etc, I, 225 ff) that in Wisd 9 1 f; 12 9; 16 12; 18 22, Logos has the technical sense which it bears in Philo; but a careful examination of the passages shows that nothing more than "word" is meant (see Logos). The only other superhuman beings mentioned in the book are the gods of the Gentiles which are distinctly declared to be nonentities, the product of man's folly (14 13 f), and the devil who is, however, but once referred to as identical with the serpent of Gen 3. The book does not once speak of a Canon of Scripture or of any Divine revelation to man in written form, though it often quotes from the Pent and occasionally from Isa and Pss, never, however, Wisd is thus much more universalnaming them. istic and in harmony with Wisdom literature than Sir, which identifies Wisd with the Law and the Prophets and has other distinctly Jewish features.

In its psychology Wisd follows the dichotomy of Platonism. Man has but two parts, soul and body (1 4; 8 19 f; 9 15), the word soul (ψυχή, psuchž)

including the reason ($\nu o \hat{v}s$, $no \hat{u}s$) and the spirit ($\pi \nu e \hat{v} \mu a$, $pne \hat{u}ma$). Wisd 15 11 is the only passage which seems to teach the doctrine of the trichotomy of man, but in reality 2. Anthropology it does nothing of the kind, for the parallelism shows that by "soul" and "spirit" the same thing is meant. Philo teaches the same doctrine (see Drummond, Philo, etc., I, 316 ff). Man's soul is breathed into the body (15 11; cf Gen 2 7) and taken back again by God (15 8). The writer adopts the Platonic theory of the preexistence of souls (8 20; cf 15 8.11.16), which involves the belief in a kind of predestination, for the previous doings of the soul determine the kind of body into which it enters. Solomon's soul, being good, entered an undefiled body (8 20). R. H. Charles (*Eschatology*, etc, 254 f) is hardly correct when he says that according to Wisd (1 4; 9 15, etc) matter is inherently sinful. This doctrine was definitely taught by Philo, who accepted Heraclitus' epigram, σῶμα σῆμα, sōma sḗma, "The body is a epigram, σῶμα σῆμα, sōma sẽma, "The body is a tomb." So it is said (12 10; 13 1) that man is by nature evil, his wickedness being inborn. But if he sins it is his own affair, for he is free (1 16; 5 6.13). The writer borrows two words from Gr poetry and philosophy which appear to involve a negation of human freedom, viz. ἀνάγκη, anάgkē, "necessity," and δίκη, dikē, "justice," "avenging justice." The first blinds the eyes of the ungodly (17 17), but the blindness is judicial, the result of a course of evil (see 19 1-5). The second term is used in Gr philosophy in the sense of nemesis, and it has that sense in Wisd 1 8, etc. But throughout this book it is assumed that punishment for sin is deserved, since man is free. The author of Wisd believes in a twofold division into good (wise) and bad (ungodly), and, unlike the writers of the later parts of the OT, he holds it possible for a person to pass from one class into another. But does not God, according to parts of Wisd, as of the OT, appear to show undue favoritism to Israel and neglect of other people? Thus Israel is "God's Son" (18 13), His children (sons, 12 19.21; 16 10.26), His sons and daughters (9 7). They are His holy and elect ones (3 9; 4 15; and esp. 10 17; 18 1.5). But the Israelites were treated as they were, not because they were Israelites, but because they were morally better than the nations around (see Drummond, op. cit., II, 207 ff).

(see Drummond, op. cit., II, 207 ff).

Under the term "deontology" here, religious and ethical practice is included. (1) As might be expected in a Wisdom book, little importance is attached to the Law of Moses and its requirements. Though historical allusions are made to the offering of sacrifices, the singing of psalms and the taking upon themselves of the obligation of the covenant of the Law (18 9); though, moreover, reference is made to the offering of incense by Aaron (18 21), and Solomon is made to utter the words "temple," "altar," "tabernacle" (9 8), yet in other respects nothing is said of the temple and its feasts, of the priesthood, of sacrifice, or of the laws of clean and unclean. Yet the duty of worshipping the one true God and Him only and the evil results of worshipping idols are strongly and constantly insisted upon, esp. in the second or historical part of the book (11 5 to end). (2) The cardinal virtues inculcated are those of the Stoic philosophy, viz. prudence (σωφροσύνη, σύρhνος πρίπο), common-sense (φρόνησις, phrónēsis), justice (δικαιοσύνη, δίλαιοσίπο) and courage (ανδρεία, andreta), showing that the writer was influenced by the philosophy of the Greeks.

As a historical fact, the writer adopts the account in Gen 3 of the entrance of sin into the world. "By the envy of the devil death [i.e. as the 4. Hamar-tiology entered into the world" (2 24). In 14 27, however, sin is made to have its root in idolatry, meaning perhaps that all sin consists in not giving proper heed to the one true God, and that the moral monstrosities of his time were outgrowths of idolatrous worship. The free-

dom of the will is taught explicitly or implicitly throughout the book (see above VI, 2)

The book is silent as to a Messiah who shall deliver His people. It is Wisdom that saves man:
"Because of her I shall have immor-

tality" (8 13); immortality lies in kinship to Wisdom (8 17); all who give 5. Soteriology heed to the commands of Wisdom have the assurance of incorruption, and incorruption brings men near to God (6 18 f). The knowledge of God's power is the root of immortality (15 2).

The doctrine of individual immortality is explicitly taught in this book. Man (=all men) was created

for incorruption (2 23; 6 19; 12 1). The righteous have the full hope of 6. Eschatology immortality (3 4) and shall live for-ever (5 15). When the wicked die they have no hope (3 18), since they suffer for their sins in this present world as well as in that which is to come (3 16.18). The doctrine of a resurrection of the body is not taught. If the author accepted Philo's doctrine of the inherent sinfulness of matter (see above VI, 2), as R. H. Charles holds, he could not believe in a bodily resurrection. After death there believe in a bodily resurrection. After death there is to be a day of decision ($\delta\iota d\gamma\nu\omega\sigma\iota s$, $d\iota dgn\bar{\sigma}s\iota s$, the word used in Acts 25 21; see 3 18); there will be an examination ($\epsilon\xi\ell\tau\alpha\sigma\iota s$, exétasis) into the counsels of the ungodly. The sins of the wicked shall be reckoned up (4 20), but the righteous man shall stand in great boldness before the face of them that afflicted him (5 1). The teaching of the book as to the future of the righteous does not seem to be consistent. According to 3 1 ff. the righteous per consistent. According to 3 1 ff, the righteous pass at death immediately into the bliss of God; but the teaching of 4 20 f is that the wicked and the righteous shall be assembled in one place to receive

their sentence.

VII. Aim.—The writer's purpose appears to have been to recommend to his fellow-countrymen in Alexandria the claims of religion under the names of Wisdom, Righteousness, etc, and to warn them against falling into the idolatry of the Egyptians. In addition to glorifying Wisdom, he gives an ironical account of the rise of idolatry, and he uses strong language in pointing out the disastrous consequences in this world and the next of a life away from the true God (see above, III). The book is ostensibly addressed to rulers, but they are mentioned only in 6 1-11.20-25, and the appeal of the book is to men as such. In addressing rulers the author uses a rhetorical device. It might be argued that if rulers with their superior advantages need such exhortations and warnings, how much more

ordinary men! Plumptre (Ecclesiastes, 70) and Siegfried (HDB, IV, 928) contend that the Solomon of this book is made to answer the Solomon of Eccl. But the author does not show any acquaintance with Eccl, and it is hardly likely that this last book was known at the time in Alexandria, for though composed about 200 BC, it was not put into Gr for a long time afterward. Besides, there is nothing about idolatry in Eccl. The conclusion reached in the genuine parts of this last book is a counsel of despair: "All is vanity." A reply to that book would seek to show that life is worth living for the sake of the present and the future. The Book of Wisd denounces idolatry in the most scathing language; how can this and the like be a polemic against Eccl?

VIII. Author.—The author was an Alexandrian Jew, well read in the LXX whose phrases he often uses, fairly acquainted with Gr philosophy as taught at Alexandria and also with physical science as known at the time (see 7 17-20; 8 8). He was beyond all doubt a Jew, for the views he advocates are those of an enlightened but strong Judaism; his interests are even narrowly Jewish (note the fiercely anti-gentile sentiments of 11 10-13.17-23) and his style is largely tinged by the vocabulary and the phraseology of the Gr VS of the Heb Scriptures. That he was an Alexandrian or at least an Egyp Jew is equally probable. No Palestinian could have written the language of this work with its rhetorical devices (see above, IV), or have dis-played the acquaintance which the book reveals with Gr philosophy as modified by Jewish-Alexandrian thought.

with Gr philosophy as modified by Jewish-Alexandrian thought.

Other views.—These include: (1) that Solomon is the author: see above, II. No modern scholar takes this view seriously, though singularly enough it has been revived by D. S. Margoliouth; (2) that Zerubbabel is the author (I. M. Faber); (3) that the author was one of the translators of the LXX; (4) that the author belonged to the Therapeutae: so Gfrörer (Philo, II, 265). Dähne (Philo, II, 270); cf Jost (Geschichte des Judaismus, I, 378). This has been inferred from 16 28, the Therapeutae being, it is said, a Jewish sect which, like the Zarathustrians, worshipped toward the rising sun. But we know very little about this sect, and there is no decisive evidence that it ever existed. If, however, Eusebius (HE, II, 17) is right in saying that Philo's Therapeutae were Christians (the earliest Christian sect of Alexandria), it is clear that no member of this sect wrote Wisd, for the book is wholly free from Christian influence; (5) that Ben Sira is the author (Augustine); (6) that Apollos is the author: so Noack (Der Ursprung des Christenthums, I, 222); Plumptre (Ezpos, I, 329 ff, 409 ff); see summary of grounds in Speaker's Apoc (Farrar), I, 413 ff; but the author must have been a Jew and he wrote too early to allow of this hypothesis; (7) that Philo is the author: thus Jerome writes (Praef. in lib. Sol.): Nonnull's scriptorum hunc esse Judae' Philonis afirmant. This view was supported by Luther and other scholars; cf the Muratorian Fragment (in Zahn's text) in XI, below. But the teaching of this book represents an earlier stage of Alexandrian Jewish speculation than that found in Philo's works, and the allegorical method of interpretation so rampant in the latter is almost wholly absent from Wisd. (8) It has been held by some (Kirschbaum, Weisse, etc) that whoever the author was he must have been a Christian, but the whole trend and spirit of the book prove the contrary.

IX. Date.—The book was probably composed about 120–100 RC.

IX. Date.—The book was probably composed about 120-100 BC. The evidence is literary, historical and philosophical.

The book must have been written after the LXX VS of the Pent and Isa had been made, since the author has evidently used this VS of 1. Literary both books and perhaps of the Pss as

well (cf 3 1 and Ps 31 5[6]; and also 15 15 f and Ps 115 4-7 [=Ps 135 15-18]). Now we know from Sir (Prol.) that the LXX of the Pent, the Prophets and of at least a portion of the Writings (Hagiographa) was completed by 132 BC, when the younger Siracide finished his tr of Sir (see SIRACH, BOOK OF, VIII). It may therefore be inferred that Wisd was written after 132 BC. Moreover, in 4 1 the author shows an acquaintance with Sir 16 1-4 in Gr, for the pseudo-Solomon does not seem to have known Heb, or he would sometimes at least have quoted from the Heb text. This confirms the conclusion drawn from the use of the LXX that this book is at least as late as, say, 130 BC, and almost certainly later. The book was composed earlier than any of the NT writings, or some of the latter would have been quoted or referred to. Moreover, it may be assumed that the Gr Canon was com-plete in the time of Our Lord, and thus included Wisd as well as the rest of the OT Apoc. But see International Journal of Apocrypha, October, 1913, p. 77, art. by the present writer. It must have taken a long time after writing for the book to gain the respect which secured its canonization. A date 100 BC agrees with all the facts.

Wisd 3 1; 5 1; 6 5-9 imply that at the time of writing the Jews addressed were suffering under the

lash of persecution, and we have the resulting feeling of animosity against 2. Histhe Egyptians, the persecuting power, expressed in 11 16-19. Now we know torical that the early Ptolemies treated the Jews with consideration, and Ptolemy VII (Physcon, 145-117 BC)

was the first to adopt a contrary policy toward the Jews of Egypt, owing to the support they had given to Cleopatra. Jos (CAp, II, 5) gives an account of the vengeance which this king wreaked upon the Jews of Alexandria at this time. Nevertheless, the literary manner and the restrained spirit with which these matters are referred to show that the writer is describing a state of things which belongs to the past, though to a recent past. A date about 100 BC would admirably suit the situation of the author at the time of composition.

The teaching of the book (see above, VI) belongs to that stage in the development of Alexandrian

Judaism which existed about 100 BC. 3. Philo-We have not in this book the allegorisophical zation characteristic of Philo (b. 20 BC, d. 40 AD), nor had his Logos-doctrine as yet become a part of the creed of Alexandrian Jews.

X. Original Language. - Scholars are practically agreed that the book was composed in Gr. D. S. Margoliouth attempted to prove a Heb original (JRAS, 1890, 263-97; see reply by Freudenthal, JQR, III, 722-53), but the evidence he offers has convinced nobody.

convinced nobody.

(1) The Gr of Wisd is free, spontaneous and idiomatic. There are a few Hebraisms, but only such as characterize Hel Gr in general; Wisd is very different in this from Sir which abounds with Hebraisms, due no doubt to tr from a Heb original. (2) The rhetorical devices so common in the Gr of the book can be due only to the original text; they could hardly occur in such profusion in a tr. In addition to those mentioned above in IV, note the Gr rhetorical figures chiasmus (1 1—4 8; 3 15) and sorties (6 7–20). (3) The tr of Sir into Heb before the discovery of the Heb fragments had been often attempted and found comparatively easy; but it is very difficult to put Wisd into Heb because the style is so thoroughly Greek. (4) No trace of a Heb original has thus far been found. What Nachmanides saw was not the original Heb, but a tr in Heb from the original text. Jerome (Praef. in lib. Sol.) says that though he had himself seen Sir in Heb, a Heb text of Wisd was not to be found.

XI. Use of Wisd by Christian Writers.—It has been influenced by Wisd: Lk 27 (cf Wisd 7 4); Lk 12 20 (cf Wisd 15 8); Lk 9 31 (cf Wisd 3 2); Lk 19 44 (cf Wisd 3 7). The "Logos" doctrine of John (see Jn 1 1, etc) has certainly a connection with the doctrine of Wisdoms in Wisd (see Gregg, Comm., 15 ff). Grafe (Theologische Abhandlungen, Freiburg in B., 1892) endeavors to prove that Paul made large use of Wisd (see also Sanday and Headlam, Romans, 51f, 267-69); but this has been denied; see further Deane (Comm., 15 ff). The book was certainly known to Clement of Rome, Tatian, Irenaeus, Tertullian, Clement of Alexandria and Hippolytus. The Muratorian Fragment states the work to have been "composed by the friends of Solomon in his honor" (Il. 69-71). Zahn (Gesch. Kan., III, 101, following a suggestion of Tregelles) prefers to read "composed by Philo in Solomon's honor"—an easy change in the Gr (philônos for philôn). Origen (Con. Cel., v. 29) calls it "the work entitled Wisdom of Solomon," so intimating doubt as to the authorship.

XII. Text and Versions.—The text in B, pointed with collations in Swete's OT in Gr, is on the whole the best, though both & and C (which is incomplete) have good texts, A being fairly trustworthy. text is found also in fair preservation in many cursives

The Vulg is identical with, but has slight variations from, the Old Lat. Lagarde (Mitheilungen, 243-86) gives the Lat VS of Sir and

This last Wisd found in Cod. Amiaut. 1. Latin is a literal rendering from the Greek.

The Syr (Pesh) VS found in the London Polyglot and in Lagarde (Lib. Apoc Syr) was made immediately from the Gr, but apparently from the text in A, or in one 2. Syriac like it.

LITERATURE.—Besides the works cited in the course of the foregoing article and the general works (comms., etc) on the Apoc mentioned under Apochypha (q.v.), the following are to be noted:

(1) Comms.: Bauermeister, Comm. in Sap. Sol. libr., 1828; Grimm, Komm. über das Buch der Weisheit, 1857, also his excellent comm. in the Kurzpefasstes exegetisches Handbuch, series 1860; J. H. Schmid, Das Buch der

Weisheit: Uebersetzt und erklärt, 1857; Gutberlet, Das Buch der Weisheit, 1874; W. J. Deane, The Book of Wisd. Gr Vulg and AV with "Comm." (1881, full and fairly scholarly); Speaker's Apoc (Farrar) is interesting and often helpful; Siegfried's "Intro" and "Comm." in Kautzsch's Die Apoc is slight, but also often helpful; The Wisd of Solomon by J. A. E. Gregg (RV with "Intro" and "Comm.." Cambridge Bible) is brief and popular, but trustworthy; A. T. S. Goodrick, The Book of Wisdom, 1913 (admirable); S. Holmes (in the Oxford Apoc, with Intro and Comm.).

(2) Of the dict arts. that in ER (by C. H. Toy) is

(2) Of the dict. arts., that in EB (by C. H. Toy) is perhaps the best; that in HDB (Siegfried) is fair but de-

(3) In addition to the works by Gfrörer and Dähne discussing the philosophy of the book, the following works may be mentioned: Bruch, Weisheits-Lehre der Hebrder, 1851 (322-78); Zeller, Die Philosophie der Hebrder, 1851 (322-78); Zeller, Die Philosophie der Keisheit, 1111, pt. 2, 271-74, 4th ed. 272-96; Kübel, "Die ethischen Grundanschauungen der Weisheit Salomos," in Theologische Studien und Kritiken, 1865, 690-722; Menzel, Der griechische Einfluss auf Prediger und Weisheit Salomos, 1889, 39-70; Bois, Essai sur les origines de la philosophie judéo-alexandrine, 1890, 211-309, 337-412. The work by Drummond, often quoted, has been carefully done and is interestingly written (Philo Judaeus, 1888, 2 vols; see I, 177-229).

For detailed bibliography see Schürer, GJV⁴, 1909, III, 508 ff; HJP, 1886, II, 3, pp. 236 f, is necessarily very defective.

defective.

T. WITTON DAVIES

WISE, wiz, MAN. See Wisdom.

WISE-MEN, wiz'men: In addition to the uses of "wise" specified in the art. WISDOM, the adj. is employed occasionally as the technical description of men who are adepts in magic, divination, etc (e.g. in Gen 41 8; Ex 7 11; Est 1 13; Dnl 2 27; 5 15). Naturally, however, in the ancient world the boundary between genuine knowledge and astrology, etc, was exceedingly vague, and it was never denied that real knowledge could be gained along lines that we know to be futile. So the initiation of Moses into all the wisdom of the Egyptians (Acts 7 22) or of Daniel into all the learning of the Chaldaeans (Dnl 1 4) met with no disapproval. These great men could be trusted to avoid the moral and religious pitfalls of such pursuits. For the ordinary Israelites, however, the uncompromising prohibition of idolatry closed the door definitely to all studies of this kind. See Astrology; Divi-NATION, etc. And for the Wise-men of Mt 2 see BURTON SCOTT EASTON Magi.

WISH, wish: The word appears both as a substantive and as a vb. in the OT, having a variety of meanings: (1) The subst., 元章, peh, means "mouth" and also "speech." In this form it occurs in Job 33 6 m: "Behold, I am according to thy wish in God's stead." Elihu here refers to Job's expressed desire for an umpire (9 33), and one who would maintain his right with God (16 21). (2) The verb: (a) アラブ, hāphēc, "willing," or "desirous" (Ps 40 14 AV); (b) 文章, shā'al, "to ask," "petition," "supplicate" (Job 31 30 AV); (c) another variation of massing in found in Ps 73 7 where アラブロン, maskūth. meanings: (1) The subst., To, peh, means "mouth" meaning is found in Ps 73 7 where מְשְׁכֵּר , maskīth, "to imagine," is tra "wish": "They have more than heart could wish"; (d) ϵ δ χ o μ a ι , e ι choma ι , "to solicit," "to implore" (Rom 9 3).

ARTHUR WALWYN EVANS
WIST, wist, WITTY, wit'i, WOT, wot: The vb.
"to wit" in AV is interchangeable with "to know,"
and is conjugated with a present "wot," and a past
"wist." This inflection is derived from more complicated forms in the older Eng., and in post-Elizabethan times has become quite obsolete. (But cf the roots in "wisdom," "witness.") "Wit," then, is simply "knowledge," and "witty" is "having knowledge," although the noun and the adj. have become narrowly specialized in modern Eng. (cf the similar evolution of "knowing," in its use as an adj.). Even in Elizabethan Eng., however, the indicative of "to wit" was becoming displaced by

"know," and "wot" and "wist" together occur only 24 t in AV (not at all in Apoc). ERV has retained all the NT examples, but in the OT has altered about half the occurrences to "know," but has followed no discoverable rule in so doing ("wot" retained only in Josh 2 5). ARV has changed to "know" throughout (OT and NT). The inf. "to wit" is still in use (chiefly in legal formulas) before an apposition, and AV has introduced it rather frequently to clarify a construction (Josh 17 1; 1 K 2 32, etc.), and RV has usually retained it (omitted in Josh 17 1; 2 Ch 4 12). In the other uses of this inf. (Gen 24 21; Ex 2 4) it is replaced by "to know," while the very obsolete expression in 2 Cor 8 1, AV "We do you to wit" (i.e. "We cause you to know"; see Do), has become in RV "We make known unto

you."

The noun "wit" is found in Ps 107 27, "at their wits' [AV "wit's"] end," for ΤΊΡΡΠ, hokhmāh, "wisdom," "technical skill"; cf RVm "All their wisdom is swallowed up." The meaning is "their skilled seamanship cannot cope with the danger" (the phrase is very commonly misapplied). "Wit" occurs also 1 Esd 4 26 (διάνοια, diánoia, "mind"); 2 Esd 5 9 (sensus, here "intelligence"); Sir 31 20 (ψυχή, psuchē, "soul," with the force of "reason").

With is found in AV RVm Prov 8 12 "witty

Witty is found in AV, RVm Prov 8 12, "witty inventions" (מְשְׁרֵים, mºzimmāh, "discretion" [so RV]; mventions (**\text{if"}, m*zzmman, "discretion" [so RV]; if "and" is not read in this verse, translate "discrete knowledge"). In Jth 11 23 occurs "witty in thy words" (άγαθός, agathós, "good," here probably = "thou hast spoken sound sense"). Wisd 8 19 AV has "a witty child," RV "a child of parts," m "goodly" (εὐφνής, euphués, "well grown," "of a good disposition," "clever"). "Wittingly" occurs in Gen 48 14 (\$\frac{1}{2}\text{if } = \frac{1}{2}\text{if the lignostly!"} 48 14 (ラヴ, sākhal, "act intelligently").

BURTON SCOTT EASTON WITCH, wich, WITCHCRAFT, wich'kraft:

1. The Words, Their Meaning and Use

2. Biblical Usage
3. Common Elements in Witchcraft and Ancient Oriental Magic
4. Rise, Spread and Persecution of Witchcraft

The word "witch" seems to denote etymologically "one that knows." It is historically both masculine and feminine; indeed the AS 1. Meaning form wicca, to which the Eng. word is and Use of to be traced, is masc. alone. "Wizthe Words and" is given as masc. for witch, but it has in reality no connection with it. Wright (English Dialect Dict., VII, 521) says he never heard an uneducated person speak of wizard. When this word is used by the people it denotes, he says, a person who undoes the work of a witch. says, a person who undoes the work of a which. Shakespeare often uses "witch" of a male (cf Cymbeline, I, 6, 1, 166: "He is . . . a witch"). In Wyclif's tr of Acts 8 9 Simon Magus is called "a witch" ("wicche"). Since the 13th cent. the word "witch" has come more and more to denote a woman who has formed a compact with the devil or with evil spirits, by whose aid she is able to cause all sorts of injury to living beings and to things. The term "witchcraft" means in modern Eng. the arts and practices of such women.

Since the ideas we attach to "witch" and "witchcraft" were unknown in Bible times, the words have no right place in our Eng. Bible, and this has been recognized to some ex-2. Biblical Usage

tins has been recognized to some extent but not completely by the Revisers of 1884. The word "witch" occurs twice in AV, viz. (1) in Ex 22 18, "Thou shalt not suffer a witch [RV "a sorceress"] to live"; (2) in Dt 18 10, "or a witch" (RV "or a sorcerer").

The Hab word is in beth cases the participle of the The Heb word is in both cases the participle of the vb. (בְּשֵׁב, kishshēph), denoting "to practice the

magical art." See Magic, V, 2. In the first passage, however, the fem. ending $(-\bar{a}h)$ is attached, but this ending denotes also one of a class and (on the contrary) a collection of units; see Kautzsch, Heb Gram.²⁸, § 122, s, t.

The phrase "the witch of Endor" occurs frequently in literature, and esp. in common parlance, but it is not found in the Eng. Bible. The expression has come from the heading and summary of the AV, both often so misleading. In 1 S 28, where alone the character is spoken of, EV translates the Heb' zeheth ba' dtath 'bbh by "a woman that hath a familiar spirit." A literal rendering would be "a woman who is mistress of an 'bbh or ghost," i.e. one able to compel the departed spirit to return and to answer certain questions. This woman was therefore a necromancer, a species of diviner (see Divination, IV; Endor, Witch of; Familiar Spirit), and not what the term "witch" imports.

The word "witchcraft" occurs thrice in AV. In 1 S 15 23, "the sin of witchcraft" should be as in RVm, "the sin of divination," the latter representing the Heb word DDD, kesem, generally trd

"divination"; see DIVINATION, VII, 1.

The phrase "used witchcraft" (of Manasseh, 2 Ch
33 16) is properly rendered in RV "practised sorcery," the Heb vb. (知道, kishshēph) being that whence the participles in Ex 22 18 and Dt 18 10. trd in AV "witch," are derived (see above). The word tr^d in AV "witchcraft" in Gal 5 20 (φαρμακεία, pharmakeía) is the ordinary Gr one for "sorcery," and is so rendered in RV, though it means literally the act of administering drugs and then of giving magical potions. It naturally comes then to stand for the magician's art, as in the present passage and also in Wisd 12 4; 18 13; and in the LXX of Isa 47 9, where it represents the Heb noun כְּשֶׁפִּרם, keshāphīm, trd "sorceries"; cf the Heb vb. בָּשֶׁבּ, kishshēph; see above.

The pl. "witchcrafts" (in AV and RV) stands for the Heb noun just noticed (k°shāphīm) in 2 K 9
22; Mic 5 12; Nah 3 4, but in all three passages a
proper rendering would be "sorceries" or "magical
arts." "Witchcrafts" is inaccurate and misleading.
The vb. "bewitch" occurs in Acts 8 9.11 AV (of

Simon Magus bewitching the people) and in Gal 3 1 ("O foolish Galatians, who hath bewitched you?"). In the first context the Gr vb. is εξίστημ, existēmi, which is properly rendered by the Revisers "amazed"; in ver 13 the passive of the same vb. is tr^d "He was amazed" (AV "He wondered"). In Gal 3 1, the vb. is βασκαίνω, baskaínō, which is used of a blinding effect of the evil eye and has perhaps an occult reference, but it has nothing whatever to do with "witch" or "witchcraft."

Though the conceptions conveyed by the Eng. word "witch" and its cognates were unknown to the

Hebrews of Bible times, yet the funda-3. Common mental thought involved in such terms Elements in was familiar enough to the ancient Witchcraft Hebrews and to other nations of antiqand Ancient uity (Babylonians, Egyptians, etc.), Oriental viz. that there exists a class of persons Magic called by us magicians, sorcerers, etc, who have superhuman power over living creatures including man, and also over Nature and natural objects. This power is of two kinds: (1) cosmic, (2) personal. For an explanation see Magic, II. It is in Assyr-Bab literature that we have the completest account of magical doctrine and practice. The words used in that literature for the male and female magician are ashipu and ashiptu, which correspond to the Heb mekhashshēph and mekhashshēphāh in Dt 18 10 and Ex 22 18 (see 2, above) and are cognate to コット, 'ashshāph (see Dnl 1 20; 2 2.10, etc.), which means a magician (RV "enchanter"). Other Bab words are

kashshapu and kashshaptu, which in etymology and

in sense agree with the Heb terms mekhashshēph and mekhashshēphāh mentioned above. But neither in the Bab or Heb words is there the peculiar idea of a witch, viz. one who traffics with malicious spirits for malicious ends. Indeed the magician was a source of good (male and female) as conceived by the Babylonians, esp. the ashipu and ashiptu, to the state and to individuals, as well as of evil, and he was often therefore in the service of the state as the guide of its policy. And the same applies to the magician as the Hebrews regarded him, though the true teachers and leaders in Israel condemned magic and divination of every sort as being radically opposed to the religion of Jeh (Dt 18 10 f). Of course, if a Bab magician used his art to the injury of others he was punished as other criminals, and in case of the death of the victim he was executed as a murderer. It is, how-ever, noteworthy in its bearing on "witchcraft" that the female magician or sorceress played a larger part in ancient Babylonia than her male counterpart, and the same is true of the Greeks and other ancient people. This arose perhaps from the fact that in primitive times men spent their time in fighting and hunting; the cooking of the food and the healing of the sick, wounded, etc, by magical potions and otherwise, falling to the lot of the woman who stayed at home. In the early history of the Hebrews inspired women played a greater rôle than in later time; cf Miriam (Ex 15 20 f; Nu 12); Deborah (Jgs 5 12); Huldah (2 K 22 14 ff). Note also the אָלָהְ , 'ishshāh ḥǎkhā-māh, or ''wise woman'' of 2 S 14 2 ff; 20 16.

The first two sections of the CH are as follows: "1. If a man has laid a curse [$kispu=\Box^\dagger\Box^\dagger\Box^\dagger$], $k^esh\bar{a}ph\bar{i}m$] upon a man has laid a curse [kispu=DTD], k*shāphīm] upon [another] man and it is not justified, he that laid the curse shall be put to death. 2. If a man has put a spell upon [another] man and it is not justified, he upon whom the spell is laid shall go to the holy river; into the holy river shall he plunge. If the holy river overcome him [and he is drowned], the man who put the spell upon him shall take possession of his house. If the holy river declares him innocent and he remains unharmed the man who laid the spell shall be put to death. He that plunged into the river shall take possession of the house of him who laid the spell upon him." Not a word is said here of a female that weaves a spell, but probably the word "man" in the Bab is to be taken as including male and female (so Canon C. H. W. Johns in a private letter, dated December 22, 1912).

In the early and esp. in the mediaeval church, the conception of the devil occupied a very important

place, and human beings were thought 4. Rise, to be under his dominion until he was Spread and exorcised in baptism. It is to this be-Persecution lief that we owe the rise and spread of infant baptism. The unbaptized were thought to be devil-possessed. The of Witchcraft belief in the existence of women magi-

cians had come down from hoary antiquity. It was but a short step to ascribe the evil those women wrought to the devil and his hosts. Then it was natural to think that the devil would not grant such extraordinary powers without some quid pro quo; hence the witch (or wizard) was supposed to have sold her (or his) soul to the devil, a proceeding that would delight the heart of the great enemy of good always on the alert to hinder the salvation of men; of the Faust legend. For the conditions believed to be imposed by the devil upon all who would be in league with him see A. Lehmann, Aberglaube und Zauberei² (1908), 110 ff.

This idea of a covenant with the devil is wholly absent from the early heathen conception of magic; nor do we in the latter read of meetings at night between the magicians and the demons with whom they dealt, such as took place on the Witches' Sabbath. The witches were believed to have sexual commerce with devils and to be capable only of inflicting evil, both thoughts alien to oriental and therefore to Bib. magic.

inflicting evil, both thoughts alien to oriental and therefore to Bib. magic.

The history and persecution and execution of women, generally ignorant and innocent, supposed to have been guilty of witchcraft, do not fall within the scope of this article, but may be perused in innumerable works: see "Literature" below. In Europe alone, not to mention America (Salem, etc.), Sprenger says that over nine million suspected witches were put to death on the filmsiest evidence; even if this estimate be too high the actual number must have been enormous. The present writer in his booklet, The Survival of the Evangelical Faith ("Essays for the Times," 1909), gives a brief account of the defence of the reality of witch power by nearly all the Christian theologians of the 17th cent. and by most of those living in the early 18th cent. (see pp. 23 ff). See also Magic, and Expos T, IX, 157 ff.

LITERATURE.—In addition to the literature cited under arts. Divination and Magic (q.v.), the following works may be mentioned (the books on witcheraft proper are simply innumerable): Reginald Scot, The Discovery of Witcheraft (aimed at proventing the persecution of witches, 1584; republished London, 1886); reply to the last work by James I of England: Daemonologie, 1597; Casaubon, On Credulity and Incredulity...

A Treatise Proving Spirits, Witches and Supernatural Operations, 1668; Joseph Glanrill, Saducismus Trium-phatus: Full and Plain Evidences concerning Witches and Apparitions (the last two books are by theologians who class with "atheists"—a vague word in those times for unbelief—all such as doubt the power of witches and Apparitions (the last two books are by theologians who class with "atheists"—a vague word in those times for unbelief—all such as doubt the power of witches and Apparitions (2 vols, 1551, 101-91). See also Sir W. Scott, Demonology and Witcheraft, 1830; W. R. Halliday, Gr Divination: A Study of Its Methods and Principles, London, Macmillan (important); and art. by the present writer in Expos, January, 1914, on "T

T. WITTON DAVIES WITHERED, with'erd (בָּבֶּל, κᾱbhēl, "to fade away," "to be dried up"): (1) Used figuratively to express leanness of soul, spiritual impotence, a low condition of spiritual life, a lack of moral nourishment: "My heart is smitten like grass, and withereth" (Ps 102 4). The contrasting figure emphasizes this idea: "All my fountains are in thee" (87 7). Also Ps 1 3, where the freshness and beauty of the righteous man's life are thus described: "And he shall be like a tree planted by the streams of water, whose leaf also doth not wither." In the NT ξηραίνω, xērainō, "to wither," is used to carry out the same idea of moral decay, or malnutrition of soul (Mt 13 6; 21 19). (2) "Wither" also had a physiological meaning, expressing both in the OT and in the NT the idea of bodily impotence, esp., though not exclusively, of the limbs. Jeroboam was struck suddenly with paralysis of the arm, which is said to have "dried up" (1 K 13 4-6); "probably due to sudden hemorrhage affecting some part of the brain, which may under certain circumstances be only temporary" (HDB, 1-vol, 599). "Their skin cleaveth to their bones; it is withered" (Lam

In the NT (Mt 12 10; Mk 3 1; Lk 6 6) "withered hand" was probably our modern "in-"withered hand" was probably our modern "infantile paralysis," which may leave one or more limbs shrunken and powerless without detriment to the general health. ARTHUR WALWYN EVANS

WITHES, withs, withs, WITHS, withs, GREEN (יְתַּרִים לַחִים, yethārīm laḥīm, m "new bowstrings," לאני (אין, yether, looks) אין, yether, looks (צור אין, yether, mew fanish, mew foots) [Jgs 16 7]; LXX vevpá vypá, neurá hugrá): The material with which Samson was bound by Delilah (ver 8) was probably some moist "gut" such as was used for bowstrings. Cf מיקרים, mēlhārīm, "bowstrings" (Ps 21 12; אַרָּרִים, yether, Job 30 11; Ps 11 2); laḥīm, tra "green," means "fresh," "sappy" or "moist."

WITNESS, wit'nes (nouns ΤΣ, 'ēdh, and ΤΤΣ, 'ēdhāh, and vb. ΤΤΣ, 'ānāh; μάρτυς, mārtus, with all derivative words and their compounds): The word "witness" is used of inanimate things, e.g. the heap of stones testifying to the covenant between Jacob and Laban (Gen 31 44-54), and the Song of Moses (Dt 31 19.21). The main use of the word is forensic, and from this use all other applications are naturally derived. Important legal agreements required the attestation of witnesses, as in the case of the purchase of property, or a betrothal (Ruth 4 1-11, where we are told that the ancient form of attestation was by a man drawing off his shoe and giving it to his neighbor).

The Mosaic Law insisted on the absolute necessity of witnesses in all cases which came before a judge, esp. in criminal cases. Not only in criminal cases, but in all cases, it was necessary to have at least two witnesses to make good an accusation against a person (Dt 17 6; 19 15; cf Nu 35 30; Mt 18 16; Jn 8 17; 2 Cor 13 1; 1 Tim 5 19). According to the Talm (P*sāhīm 113b), if in a case of immorality only one witness came forward to accuse anyone, it was regarded as sinful on the part of that witness.

On the other hand, anyone who, being present at the adjuration (Lev 5 1 RV), refused to come forward as a witness when he had testimony to bear, was considered to have sinned (Prov 29 24). Among those not qualified to be witnesses were the near relations of the accuser or the accused, friends and enemies, gamesters, usurers, tax-gatherers, heathen, slaves, women and those not of age (Sanhedhrīn 3 3, 4; Rō'sh Ha-shānāh 1 7; Bābhā' Kammā' 88a; cf Ant, IV, viii, 15). No one could be a witness who had been paid to render this service (B*khōrōth 4 6). In cases of capital punishment there was an elaborate system of warning and cautioning witnesses. Each witness had to be heard separately (Sanhedhrīn 5; cf 3 5). If they contradicted one another on important points their witness was invalidated (Sanhedhrīn 5).

No oath was required from witnesses. The meaning of Lev 5 1 was not that witnesses had to take an oath, as some think; it describes the solemn adjuration of the judge to all those with knowledge of the case to come forward as witnesses (see OATH). When a criminal was to be put to death, the witnesses against him were to take the foremost share in bringing about his death (Dt 17 7; cf Acts 7 58), in order to prove their own belief in their testimony In the case of a person condemned to be stoned, all the witnesses had to lay their hands on the head of the condemned (Lev 24 14). "False witnessing" was prohibited in the Decalogue (Ex 20 16); against it the lex talionis was enforced, i.e. it was done to the witness as he meant to do to the accused (Dt 19 16-21). The Sadducees held that only when the falsely accused had been executed, the false witnesses should be put to death; the Pharisees, that false witnesses were liable to be executed the moment the death sentence had been passed on the falsely accused (Makkōth 17). In spite of prohibitions, false witnessing was a very common crime among the people (Ps 27 12; 35 11; Prov 6 19; 12 17; 14 5; 19 5; 24 28; Mt 26 60; Acts 6 13).

In Acts 6 13).

In Acts 22 20; Rev 2 13; 17 6 the word martus, "witness," seems to be beginning to acquire the meaning of "martyr," as in AV, although RV translates "witness" in the first two passages, retaining "martyr" only in the third with "witness" in the m. For "Tabernacle of Witness" see Tabernacle.

PAUL LEVERTOFF

WITNESS OF THE SPIRIT: This phrase arises from the words of Rom 8 16: "The Spirit himself beareth witness with our spirit, that we are

children of God." With this may be grouped, as illustrative, 1 Jn 5 10: "He that believeth on the Son of God hath the witness in him." In interpreting, we may approach the former passage through the latter. To the man who "believeth on the Son of God," so as to prove Him by reliance, He becomes self-evidential in experience, verifying Himself to the believer as the Divine response to his whole spiritual need. Thus believed on as the Son, He awakens in the soul which He embraces the filial attitude toward God, the cry, "Abba, Father." On the other side the Spirit, both in the written Word (e.g. Jn 1 12) and in His secret converse with the believer in the life of faith, assures him of the paternal love toward him, as toward a "dear child," (Eph 5 1) of the Father of his Lord. There is thus a concurrent "witnessing." The believer's spirit says, "Thou art my Father"; the Spirit says to the believer's spirit, "Thou art His child." We may compare Rom 5 5: "The love of God hath been shed abroad in our hearts through the Holy Spirit."

WITTY. See WIST, WITTY, WOT.

WIZARD, wiz'ard. See Astrology, 1; DIVINA-TION; FAMILIAR SPIRIT; MAGIC; WITCH, WITCH-CRAFT.

WOLF, woolf ([1] كَالَاَّمْ , ze²ēbh [Gen 49 27; Isa 11 6; 65 25; Jer 5 6; Ezk 22 27; Hab 1 8; Zeph 3 3; also as proper name, Zeeb, prince of Midian, Jgs 7 25; 8 3; Ps 83 11]; cf Arab. دُيْب , dhî'b, colloquial دُيْب , dhî'b, or دُيْب , dhî'b; [2] λύκος, lúkos [Mt 7 15; 10 16; Lk 10 3;



Wolf (Canis lupus).

Jn 10 12; Acts 20 29; Ecclus 13 17; cf 2 Esd 5 18, lupus]; [3] מְּלֵּים [15a 13 22; 34 14; Jer 50 39]):

While the wolf is surpassed in size by some dogs, it is the fiercest member of the dog family (Canidae), which includes among others the jackal and the fox. Dogs, wolves and jackals are closely allied and will breed together. There is no doubt that the first dogs were domesticated wolves. While there are local varieties which some consider to be distinct species, it is allowable to regard all the wolves of both North America, Europe, and Northern Asia (except the American coyote) as members of one species, Canis lupus. The wolf of Syria and Pal is large, light colored, and does not seem to hunt in packs. Like other wolves it is nocturnal. In Pal it is the special enemy of the sheep and goats. This fact comes out in two of the seven passages cited from the OT, in all from the NT, and in the two from Apoc. In Gen 49 27 Benjamin is likened to a ravening wolf. In Ezk 22 27, and in the similar Zeph 3 3, the elders of Jerus are compared to wolves. In Jer 5 6 it is a wolf that shall destroy

the people of Jerus, and in Hab 1 8 the horses of the Chaldaeans "are swifter than leopards, and are more fierce than the evening wolves." Babylon and Edom (Isa 13 22; 34 14; Jer 50 39) are to be the haunts of 'īyīm (RV ''wolves'') and other wild

The name of Zeeb, prince of Midian (Jgs 7 25; 8 3), has its parallel in the Arab. Dîb or Dhîb, which is a common name today. Such animal names are frequently given to ward off the evil eye. See also TOTEMISM. ALFRED ELY DAY

WOMAN, woom'an (市境家, 'ishshāh, "a woman" [fem. of Δλ, 'īsh, "a man"]; γυνή, gunέ, "a woman," "wife"):

I. IN THE CREATIVE PLAN

II. IN OT TIMES

1. Prominence of Women
2. Social Equality
3. Marriage Laws
4. Inheritance
5. Domestic Duties
6. Dress and Ornaments
7. Religious Devotion and Service
(1) In Idolatry and False Religion
(2) In Spiritual Religion

III. INTER-TESTAMENT ERA

IV. IN NT TIMES
1. Mary and Elisabeth
2. Jesus and Women
3. In the Early Church
4. Official Service
5. Widows

Widows

5. Widows
6. Deaconesses
LATER TIMES
1. Changes in Character and Condition
2. Notable Examples of Christian Womanhood
3. Woman in the 20th Century

The generic term "man" includes woman. In the narrative of the creation (Gen 1 26.27) Adam is a collective term for mankind. It may signify a human being, male or female, or humanity entire. "God said, Let us make man . . . and let them" (ver 26), the latter word "them" defining "man" in the former clause. So in ver 27, "In the image of God created he him; male and female created he them," "them" being synonymous with "him" (see also Adam; Anthropology).

I. In the Creative Plan. - Whatever interpretation the latest scholarship may give to the story of woman's formation from the rib of man (Gen 2 21-24), the passage indicates, most profoundly, the inseparable unity and fellowship of her life with his. Far more than being a mere assistant, "helper" Far more than being a mere assistant, "helper" (ג"ד, 'ezer, "help," "helper," Gen 2 18), she is man's complement, essential to the perfection of his Without her he is not man in the generic fulness of that term. Priority of creation may indicate headship, but not, as theologians have so uniformly affirmed, superiority. Dependence indicates difference of function, not inferiority. Human values are estimated in terms of the mental and spiritual. Man and woman are endowed for equalify, and are mutually interdependent. Physical strength and prowess cannot be rated in the same category with moral courage and the capacity to endure ill-treatment, sorrow and pain; and in these latter qualities woman has always proved herself the superior. Man's historic treatment of woman, due to his conceit, ignorance or moral perversion, has taken her inferiority for granted, and has thus necessitated it by her enslavement and degradation. The narrative of the Fall (Gen 3) ascribes to woman supremacy of influence, for through her stronger personality man was led to disobedience of God's command. Her penalty for such ill-fated leadership was that her husband should "rule over" her (Gen 3 16), not because of any inherent superiority on his part, but because of her loss of prestige and power through sin. In that act she forfeited the respect and confidence which entitled her to equality of influence in family affairs. Her recovery from the curse of subjection was to come through the afflictive suffering of maternity, for, as St. Paul puts it, "she shall be saved [from the penalty of her transgression] through her child-bearing" (1 Tim 2 15).

Sin, both in man and woman, has been universally the cause of woman's degradation. All history must be interpreted in the light of man's consequent mistaken estimate of her endowments, worth and rightful place. The ancient Hebrews never entirely lost the light of their original revelation, and, more than any other oriental race, held woman in high esteem, honor and affection. Christianity completed the work of her restoration to equality of opportunity and place. Wherever its teachings and spirit prevail, she is made the loved companion, confidante and adviser of her husband.

II. In OT Times.—Under the Heb system the position of woman was in marked contrast with

1. Prominence of Women

her status in surrounding heathen nations. Her liberties were greater, her employments more varied and important, her social standing more respect-ful and commanding. The Divine law

ful and commanding. given on Sinai (Ex 20 12) required children to honor the mother equally with the father. A similar esteem was accorded her in patriarchal times. Sarah held a position of favor and authority in Abraham's household. Rebekah was not less influential than Isaac, and was evidently the stronger personality. The "beautiful" Rachel (Gen 29 17) won from Jacob a love that accepted her as an equal in the companionship and counsels of family life. Many Heb women rose to eminence and national leadership. Miriam and Deborah were each a prophetess and a The former led bands of women in triumphant song and procession, celebrating the over-throw of enemies (Ex 15 20); the latter, through her dominating personality and prophetic power, be-came the virtual judge of the nation and led armies to victory. Her military general, Barak, refused to advance against Sisera without her presence and commanding influence (Jgs 48). Her ode of victory indicates the intellectual endowment and culture of her sex in that unsettled and formative era (Jgs 5). No person in Israel surpassed Hannah, the mother of Samuel, in intelligence, beauty and fervor of religious devotion. Her spiritual exaltation and poetic gift found expression in one of the choicest specimens of early Heb lyric poetry (1 S 2 1-10). Other women eminent as prophetesses were: Huldah, whose counsel was sought by high priest and king (2 Ch 34 22; cf 2 K 22 14); Noadiah (Neh 6 14); Anna (Lk 2 36). The power to which woman could attain in Israel is illustrated in the career of the wicked, merciless, murderous idolatrous Jezebel, self-styled prophetess (Rev 2 20). Evidence of woman's eminence in the kingdoms of Judah and Israel is seen in the influence she exercised as queen mother (1 K 15 13) and queen (2 K 8 18); in the beautiful honor shown by King Solomon to his mother, Bath-sheba (1 K 2 19); in the filial devotion of the prophet Elisha (1 K 19 20); in the constant mention of the mother's name in the biographies of successive kings, making it evident that she was considered the important and determining factor in the life of her royal sons. teaching and authority were sufficiently eminent to find recognition in the proverbs of the nation: "the law of thy mother" (Prov 1 8; 6 20) was not to be forsaken, while contempt for the same merited the curse of God (Prov 19 26; 20 20; 30 11.17).

Additional evidence of woman's social equality comes from the fact that men and women feasted together without restriction. Women shared in the sacred meals and great annual feasts (Dt 16 11.14); in wedding festivities (Jn 2 1-3); in the fellowship of the family meal (12 3). They could appear, as Sarah did in the court of Egypt, unveiled (Gen 12 11.14). Re-

bekah (Gen 24 16; cf ver 65), Rachel (29 11), Hannah (1 S 1 13) appeared in public and before suitors with uncovered faces. The secluding veil was introduced into Mohammedan and other oriental lands through the influence of the Koran. The custom was non-Jewish in origin, and the monuments make it evident that it did not prevail, in early times, in Assyria and Egypt. Even Greece and Rome, at the time of their supreme culture, fell far below the Heb conception of woman's preëminent worth. The greatest Hellenic philosophers declared that it would radically disorganize the state for wives to claim equality with their husbands. Aristotle considered women inferior beings, intermediate between freemen and slaves. Socrates and Demosthenes held them in like depreciation. Plato advocated community of wives. Substantially the same views prevailed in Rome. Distinguished men, like Metullus and Cato, advocated marriage only as a public duty. More honor was shown the courtesan than the wife. Chastity and modesty, the choice inheritance of Heb womanhood, were foreign to the Gr conception of morality, and disappeared from Rome when Gr culture and frivolity entered. The Greeks made the shameless Phryne the model of the goddess Aphrodite, and lifted their hands to public prostitutes when they prayed in their temples. Under pagan culture and heathen darkness woman was universally subject to inferior and degrading conditions. Every decline in her status in the Heb commonwealth was due to the incursion of foreign influence. The lapses of Heb morality, esp. in the court of Solomon and of subsequent kings, occurred through the borrowing of idolatrous and heathen customs from surrounding nations (1 K 11 1-8).

The Bible gives no sanction to dual or plural arriages. The narrative in Gen 2 18-24 indimarriages. cates that monogamy was the Divine ideal for man. The moral decline of 3. Marriage ideal for man. the generations antedating the Flood seems to have been due, chiefly, to the growing disregard of the sanctity of marriage. Lamech's taking of two wives (Gen 4 19) is the first recorded infraction of the Divine ideal. By Noah's time polygamy had degenerated into promiscuous inter-racial marriages of the most incestuous and illicit kind (Gen 6 1-4; see Sons of Gop). The subsequent record ascribes marital infidelity and corruption to sin, and affirms that the destruction of the race by the Flood and the overthrow of Sodom and Gomorrah were God's specific judgment on man's immorality. The dual marriages of the Patriarchs were due, chiefly, to the desire for children, and are not to be traced to Divine consent or approval. The laws of Moses regarding chastity protected the sanctity of marriage (see Marriage), and indicated a higher regard frage (see MARRIAGE), and indicated a light regard for woman than prevailed in gentile or other Sem races (Lev 18 6–20). They sought to safeguard her from the sensual abominations prevalent among the Egyptians and Canaanites (Lev 18). Kings were forbidden to "multiply wives" (Dt 17 17). Concubinage in Israel was an importation from heathenism.

Divorce was originally intended to protect the sanctity of wedlock by outlawing the offender and his moral offence. Its free extension to include any marital infelicity met the stern rebuke of Jesus, who declared that at the best it was a concession to human infirmity and hardness of heart, and should be granted only in case of adultery (Mt 5 32). See Divorce.

Heb women were granted a freedom in choosing a husband not known elsewhere in the East (Gen 24 58). Jewish tradition declares that a girl over 12½ years of age had the right to give herself in marriage. Vows made by a daughter, while under age, could be annulled by the father (Nu 30 3-5) or by the husband (vs 6-16). Whenever civil law made a concession to the customs of surrounding nations, as in granting the father power to sell a daughter into bondage, it sought to surround her with all possible protection (Dt 22 16 ff).

The Mosaic Law prescribed that the father's estate, in case there were no sons, should pass to the daughters (Nu 27 1-8). They were not permitted, however, to alienate the family inheritance by marrying ance outside their own tribe (36 6-9). Such alien marriages were permissible only when the husband took the wife's family name (Neh 7 63). Unmarried daughters, not provided for in the

father's will, were to be cared for by the eldest son (Gen 31 14.15). The bride's dowry, at marriage, was intended as a substitute for her share in the family estate. In rabbinical law, a century or more before Christ, it took the form of a settlement upon the wife and was considered obligatory. Provision for woman under the ancient Mosaic Law was not inferior to her status under Eng. law regarding landed estates.

Among the Hebrews, woman administered the affairs of the home with a liberty and leadership unknown to other oriental peoples. 5. Domestic Her domestic duties were more inde-Duties pendent, varied and honorable. She was not the slave or menial of her huswas not the slave or menial of her husband. Her outdoor occupations were congenial, healthful, extensive. She often tended the flocks (Gen 29 6; Ex 2 16); spun the wool, and made the clothing of the family (Ex 35 26; Prov 31 19; 1 S 2 19); contributed by her weaving and needlework to its income and support (Prov 31 14.24), and to charity (Acts 9 39). Women ground the grain (Mt 24 41); prepared the meals (Gen 18 6; 2 S 13 8; Jn 12 2); invited and received guests (Jgs 4 18; 1 S 25 18 ff; 2 K 4 8-10); drew water for household use (1 S 9 11; Jn 4 7), for guests and even for their camels (Gen 24 15-20). Heb women enjoyed a freedom that corresponds favorwomen enjoyed a freedom that corresponds favorably with the larger liberties granted them in the Christian era.

That women were fond of decorations and display in ancient as in modern times is clear from the reproof administered by the prophet for their administered by the prophet for their haughtiness and excessive ornamentation (Isa 3 16). He bids them "remove [the] veil, strip off the train," that they may be better able to "grind meal" and attend to the other womanly duties of the home (47 2). These prophetic reproofs do not necessarily indicate general conditions, but exceptional tendencies to extravagance and excess. The ordinary dress of women was modest and simple, consisting of loose flowing robes, similar to those worn by men, and still in vogue among Orientals, chiefly the mantle, shawl and veil (Ruth 3 15; Isa 3 22.23). The veil, however, was not worn for seclusion, as among the Moslems. The extensive wardrobe and jewelry of Heb women is suggested by the catalogue given in Isa 3 18–24: anklets, cauls, crescents, pendants, bracelets, mufflers, headtires, ankle chains, sashes, perfume-boxes, amulets, rings, nosejewels, festival robes, mantles, shawls, satchels, handmirrors, fine linen, turbans, veils. The elaborateness of this ornamentation throws light on the apostle Peter's counsel to Christian women not to make their adornment external, e.g. the braiding of the hair, the wearing of jewels of gold, the putting on of showy apparel, but rather the apparel of a meek and quiet spirit (1 Pet 3 3.4). That women were fond of decorations and display in

The reflections cast upon woman for her leadership in the first transgression (Gen 3 6.13.16; 2 Cor 11 3; 1 Tim 2 14) do not indicate her 7. Religious rightful and subsequent place in the Devotion religious life of mankind. As wife, Devotion and Service mother, sister, she has been preëminently devout and spiritual. History records, however, sad and striking exceptions to this rule.

(1) Often woman's religious intensity found expression in idolatry and the gross cults of heathenism. That she everywhere participated freely in the religious rites and customs of her people is evident from the fact that women were often priestesses, and were often deified. The other Sem religions had female deities corresponding to the goddesses of Greece and Rome. In the cult of Ishtar of Babylon women were connected with the immoral rites of temple-worship. The women of heathen nations in the harem of Solomon (1 K 11 1) turned the heart of the wise king to unaccountable folly in the worship of the Sidonian goddess Ashtoreth, and of Chemosh and Molech, in turn the "abomination" of Moab and Ammon (11 5-8). The fatal spell of Maacah morally blighted the reigns of her husband,

son and grandson, until Asa the latter deposed her as queen and destroyed the obscene image of Asherah which she had set up (1 K 15 13). As "queen mother" (g*bhīrāh, "leader") she was equivalent to

the Turkish Sultana Valide.

Baal-worship was introduced into Israel by Jezebel (1 K 16 31.32; 18 19; 2 K 9 22), and into Judah by her daughter Athaliah (2 Ch 22 3; The prominence of women in idolatry and in the abominations of foreign religions is indicated in the writings of the prophets (Jer 7 18; Ezk 8 14). Their malign influence appeared in the sor-ceress and witch, condemned to death by the Mosaic Law (Ex 22 18); yet continuing through the nation's entire history. Even kings consulted them (1 S 28 7-14). The decline and overthrow of Judah and Israel must be attributed, in large measure, to the deleterious effect of wicked, worldly, idolatrous women upon their religious life.

(2) The bright side of Heb history is an inspiring contrast to this dark picture. Prior to the Christian era no more luminous names adorn the pages of history than those of the devout and eminent Heb women. Jochebed, the mother of Moses, left upon him a religious impress so vital and enduring as to safeguard him through youth and early manhood from the fascinating corruptions of Pharaoh's Egyp court (Ex 2 1-10; He 11 23-26). In Ruth, the converted Moabitess, the royal ancestress of David and of Jesus, we have an unrivaled example of filial piety, moral beauty and self-sacrificing religious devotion (Ruth 1 15-18). The prayers and piety of Hannah, taking effect in the spiritual power of her son Samuel, penetrated, purified and vitalized the religious life of the entire nation. Literature contains no finer tribute to the domestic virtues and spiritual qualities of woman than in the beautiful poem dedicated to his gifted mother by King Lemuel (Prov 31).

Women, as well as men, took upon themselves the self-renouncing vow of the Nazirite (Nu 6 2), and shared in offering sacrifices, as in the vow and sacrifice of Manoah's wife (Jgs 13 13.14); were granted thephanies, e.g. Hagar (Gen 16 7; 21 17), Sarah (18 9.10), Manoah's wife (Jgs 13 3-5.9); were even permitted to "minister" at the door of the sanctuary (Ex 38 8; 1 8 2 22); rendered conspicuous service in national religious songs and dances (Ex 15 20; Jgs 11 34; 1 S 18 6.7); in the great choirs and choruses and processionals of the Temple (Ps 68 25; Ezr 2 65; Neh 7 67); in religious mourning (Jer 9 17-20; Mk 5 38). They shared equally with men in the great religious feasts, as is indicated by the law requiring their attendance (Dt 12 18).

HI. Inter-Testament Era.—The women portrayed in the apocryphal literature of the Jews reveal all the varied characteristics of their sex so conspicuous in OT history: devout piety, ardent patriotism, poetic fervor, political intrigue, worldly ambition, and sometimes a strange combination of these contradictory moral qualities. Whether fictitious, or founded on fact, or historical, these portrayals are true to the feminine life of that era.

Anna is a beautiful example of wifely devotion. By the ratiful and hard toil she supported her husband Tobit.

Anna is a beautiful example of wifely devotion. By her faith and hard toil she supported her husband Tobit, after the loss of his property and in his blindness, until sight and prosperity were both restored (Tob 1 9; 21–14).

21-14).

Edna, wife of Raguel of Ecbatana and mother of Sarah, made her maternal love and piety conspicuous in the blessing bestowed on Tobias on the occasion of his marriage to her daughter, who had hitherto been cursed on the night of wedlock by the death of seven successive husbands (7; 10 12).

Sarah, innocent of their death, which had been compassed by the evil spirit Asmodeus, at last had the reward of her faith in the joys of a happy marriage (Tob 10 10; 14 13).

Indith a rich young widow, celebrated in Heb lore

10 10; 14 13).

Judith, a rich young widow, celebrated in Heb lore as the savior of her nation, was devoutly and ardently patriotic. When Nebuchadnezzar sent his general Holofernes with an army of 132,000 men to subjugate the Jews, she felt called of God to be their deliverer. Visiting Holofernes, she so captivated him with her beauty and gifts that he made a banquet in her honor. While he was excessively drunk with the wine of his own bounty, she beheaded him in his tent. The Assyrians, paralyzed by the loss of their leader, easily fell a prey to the armies of Israel. Judith celebrates her triumph in a song, akin in its triumphant joy, patriotic fervor

and religious zeal, to the ancient songs of Miriam and Deborah (Jth 16 1-17).

Susana typifics the ideal of womanly virtue. The daughter of righteous parents, well instructed in the sacred Law, the wife of a rich and honorable man, Joachim by name, she was richly blossed in position and person. Exceptionally modest, devout and withal very beautiful, she attracted the notice of two elders, who were also judges, and who took occasion frequently to visit Joachim's house. She spurned their advances and when falsely charged by them with the sin which she so successfully resisted, she escapes the judgment brought against her, by the subtle skill of Daniel. As a result, his fame and her innocence became widely known. See Susanna, History or.

Cleopatra, full of inhesited intrigue, is influential in the counsels of kings. She married successively for political power; murdered her eldest son Seleucus, by Demetrius, and at last dies by the poison which she intended for her younger son, Antiochus VIII. Her fatal influence is a striking example of the perverted use of woman's power (1 Macc 10 58; Jos, Ant, XIII, iv, 1; ix, 3).

IV. In NT Times.—A new era dawned for

IV. In NT Times.—A new era dawned for woman with the advent of Christianity. The

honor conferred upon Mary, as mother of Jesus, lifted her from her "low es- Mary tate," made after-generations call her and blessed (Lk 1 48), and carried its benediction to the women of all sub-Elisabeth

St. Luke's narrative of the Nasequent times. tivity (Lk 1, 2) has thrown about motherhood the halo of a new sanctity, given mankind a more exalted conception of woman's character and mission, and made the world's literature the vehicle of the same lofty reverence and regard. The two dispensations were brought together in the persons of Elisabeth and Mary: the former the mother of John the Baptist, the last of the old order of prophets; the latter the mother of the long-expected Messiah. Both are illustrious examples of Spirit-guided and Spirit-filled womanhood. The story of Mary's intellectual gifts, spiritual exaltation, purity and beauty of character, and her training of her Divine child, has been an inestimable contribution to woman's world-wide emancipation, and to the uplift and ennoblement of family life. To her poetic inspiration, spiritual fervor and exalted thankfulness as expectant mother of the Messiah, the church universal is indebted for its earliest and most majestic hymn, the Magnificat. In her the religious teachings, prophetic hopes, and noblest ideals of her race were epitomized. Jesus' reverence for woman and the new respect for her begotten by His teaching were well grounded, on their human side, in the qualities of His own mother. The fact that He Himself was born of woman has been cited to her praise in the ecumenical creeds of Christendom.

From the first, women were responsive to His teachings and devoted to His person. The sisters of

Lazarus, Mary and Martha, made their home at Bethany, His dearest earthly 2. Tesus and Women refuge and resting-place. Women of all ranks in society found in Him a benefactor and friend, before unknown in all the history of their sex. They accompanied Him, with the Twelve, in His preaching tours from city to city, some, like Mary Magdalene, grateful because healed of their moral infirmities (Lk 8 2); others, like Joanna the wife of Chuzas, and Susanna, to minister to His needs (8 3). Even those who were ostracized by society were recognized by Him, on the basis of immortal values, and restored to a womanhood of virtue and Christian devotion (Lk 7 37-50). Mothers had occasion to rejoice in His blessing their children (Mk 10 13-16); and in His raising their children (Mk 10 13-16); and in His raising their dead (Lk 7 12-15). Women followed Him on His last journey from Galilee to Jerus; ministered to Him on the way to Calvary (Mt 27 55.56); witnessed His crucifixion (Lk 23 49); accompanied His body to the sepulcher (Mt 27 61; Lk 23 55); pregred spinors and contracts for His hard [1] 192 pared spices and ointments for His burial (Lk 23

56); were first at the tomb on the morning of His resurrection (Mt 28 1; Mk 16 1; Lk 24 1; Jn 20 1); and were the first to whom the risen Lord appeared (Mt 28 9; Mk 16 9; Jn 20 14). Among those thus faithful and favored were Mary Magdalene, Mary the mother of James and Joses, Salome (Mt 27 56), Joanna and other unnamed women (Lk 24 10). Women had the honor of being the first (Lk 24 10). to announce the fact of the resurrection to the chosen disciples (Lk **24** 9.10.22). They, including the mother of Jesus, were among the 120 who continued in prayer in the upper room and received the Pentecostal enduement (Acts 1 14); they were among the first Christian converts (8 12); suffered equally with men in the early persecutions of the church The Jewish enemies of the new faith sought their aid and influence in the persecutions raised against Paul and Barnabas (13 50); while women of equal rank among the Greeks became ardent and intelligent believers (17 12). The fidelity of women to Jesus during His three years' ministry, and at the cross and sepulcher, typifies their spiritual devotion in the activities and enterprises of the church of the 20th century.

Women were prominent, from the first, in the tivities of the early church. Their faith and activities of the early church. Their faith and prayers helped to make Pentecost possible (Acts 1 14). They were eminent, as in the case of Dorcas, in charity and good deeds (9 36); fore-3. In the Early Church

most in prayer, like Mary the mother of John, who assembled the disciples at her home to pray for Peter's deliverance (12 12). Priscilla is pray for reters deliverance (12 12). Priscilla is equally gifted with her husband as an expounder of "the way of God," and instructor of Apollos (18 26), and as Paul's "fellow-worker in Christ" (Rom 16 3). The daughters of Philip were prophetesses (Acts 21 8.9). The first convert in Europe was a woman, Lydia of Thyatira, whose hospitality made a home for Paul and a most ing place for the made a home for Paul and a meeting-place for the infant church (16 14). Women, as truly as men, were recipients of the charismatic gifts of Christianity. The apostolic greetings in the Epp. give them a place of honor. The church at Rome seems to have been blessed with a goodly number of gifted and consecrated women, inasmuch as Paul in the closing salutations of his Epp. sends greetings to at least eight prominent in Christian activity: Phoebe, Prisca, Mary "who bestowed much labor on you," Tryphena and Tryphosa, Persis, Julia, and the sister of Nereus (Rom 16 1.3.6.12.15). To no women did the great apostle feel himself more deeply indebted than to Lois and Eunice, grandmother and mother of Timothy, whose "faith unfeigned" and ceaseless instructions from the holy Scriptures (2 Tim 1 5; 3 14.15) gave him the most "beloved child" and assistant in his ministry. names have been conspicuous in Christian history for maternal love, spiritual devotion and fidelity in

teaching the Word of God. See also CLAUDIA.

From the first, women held official positions of influence in the church. Phoebe (Rom 16 1) was evidently a deaconess, whom Paul

4. Official terms "a servant of the church," "a helper of many" and of himself also. Those women who "labored with me Service

in the gospel" (Phil 4 3) undoubtedly participated with him in preaching. Later on, the apostle used his authority to revoke this privilege, possibly because some women had been offensively forward in "usurping authority over the man" (1 Tim 2 12 AV). Even though he bases his argument for woman's keeping silence in public worship on Adam's priority of creation and her priority in transgression (2 13.14), modern scholarship unhesitatingly affirms that his prohibition was applicationable to the possible conditions of his own time. cable only to the peculiar conditions of his own time.

Her culture, grace, scholarship, ability, religious devotion and spiritual enduement make it evident that she is often as truly called of God to public address and instruction as man. It is evident in the NT and in the writings of the Apostolic Fathers that women, through the agency of two ecclesias-tical orders, were assigned official duties in the conduct and ministrations of the early church.

duct and ministrations of the early church.

Their existence as a distinct order is indicated in 1 Tim 5 9.10, where Paul directs Timothy as to the conditions of their enrolment. No widow should be 5. Widows "enrolled" (καταλέγω, katalέμα, "catalega, "

Other special duties, mentioned by the Church Fathers, Included prayer and fasting, visiting the sick, instruction of women, preparing them for baptism, assisting in the administration of this sacrament, and taking them the communion. The spiritual nature of the office is indicated by its occupant being variously termed "the intercessor of the church"; "the keeper of the door," at public service; "the altar of God." See Widows.

More of these duties went transformed by the 3d cent

cased by its occupant being variously ethical criterions of the church; "the keeper of the door," at public service; "the altar of God." See Windows.

Many of these duties were transferred, by the 3d cent., to the deaconesses, an order which in recent history has been restored to its original importance and fectiveness. The women already referred to in Rom 16 1.6.12 were evidently of this specifically applied to Phoebe, a deaconess of the church at Cenchreac. The women of 1 Tim 11, who were to serve "in like manner" as the "deacons" of ver 10, presumably held this office, as also the "aged women" of Tit 2 3 (="presbyters" [fem.], \$\pi\text{presbyters}\$, \$\presbyters\$, \$\pr

V. Later Times.—Tertullian mentions the modest garb worn by Christian women (De Cult. Fem.,

ii.11) as indicating their conscious-1. Changes ness of their new spiritual wealth and in Character worthiness. They no longer needed and the former splendor of outward adornment, because clothed with the beauty Condition and simplicity of Christlike character. They exchanged the temples, theaters, and festivals of paganism for the home, labored with their hands, cared for their husbands and children, graciously dispensed Christian hospitality, nourished their spiritual life in the worship, service and sacraments of the church and in leaving ministric the their spiritual state. of the church, and in loving ministries to the sick. Their modesty and simplicity were a rebuke to and reaction from the shameless extravagances and immoralities of heathenism. That they were among the most conspicuous examples of the transforming power of Christianity is manifest from the admiration and astonishment of the pagan Libanius who exclaimed, "What women these Christians have!"

The social and legal status of woman instantly improved when Christianity gained recognition in the Empire. Her property rights as wife were es-

tablished by law, and her husband made subject to accusation for marital infidelity. Her inferiority, subjection and servitude among all non-Jewish and non-Christian races, ancient and modern, are the severest possible arraignment of man's intelligence and virtue. Natural prudence should have discovered the necessity of a cultured and noble motherhood in order to a fine grade of manhood. Races that put blighting restrictions upon woman consign themselves to perpetual inferiority, impotence and final overthrow. The decline of Islam and the collapse of Turkey as a world-power are late striking illustrations of this fundamental truth.

and the collapse of Turkey as a world-power are late striking illustrations of this fundamental truth.

Woman's activity in the early church came to its zenith in the 4th cent. The type of feminine character produced by Christianity in that era is indicated by such notable examples as Emmelia and Macrina, the mother and sister Examples of Basii; Anthusa, Nonna, Monica, re-Christian spectively the mothers of Chrysostom, Womanhood the mothers of Jerome and Amprose they gave luster to the womanhood of the early Christian centuries by their accomplishments and eminent piety. As defenders of the faith women stand side by side with Ignatius and Polycarp in their capacity to face death and endure the agonies of persecution. The roll of martyrs is made luminous by the unrivaled purity, undaunted heroism, unconquerable faith of such Christian maidens as Blandina. Potamiaena, Perpetua and Felicitas, who, in their loyalty to Christ, shrank not from the most fiendish tortures invented by the diabolical cruelties and hatred of pagan Rome.

In the growing darkness of subsequent centuries women, as mothers, teachers, abbesses, kept the light of Christian faith and intelligence burning in mediaeval Europe. The mothers of St. Bernard and Peter the Venerable witness to the conserving and creative power of their devotion and faith. The apotheosis of the Virgin Mother, though a grave mistake and a perversion of Christianity by substituting her for the true object of worship, nevertheless served, in opposition to pagan culture, to make the highest type of womanhood the ideal of mediaeval greatness. The full glory of humanity was represented in her. She became universally dominant in religion. The best royalty of Europe was converted through her influence. Poland and Russia were added to European Christiann princess of France, to Ethelbert introduced Roman Christianity into England, which became the established religion when Edwin, in turn, was converted through the influence of his Christian wive. The opening decades of the 20th ce

tian wife. The process culminated, in the 19th cent., in the long, prosperous, peaceful, Christian reign of Victoria, England's noblest sovereign.

The opening decades of the 20th cent. are witnessing a movement among women that is one of the most remarkable phenomena in the history of mankind. It is world-wide and spontaneous, and aims at nothing less than woman's universal education and enfranchisement.

Century

This new ideal, taking its rise in the teaching of Jesus regarding the value of the human soul, is permeating every layer of society and all races and religions. Woman's desire for development and self-expression, and better still for service, has given birth to educational, social, eleemosynary, missionary organizations and institutions, international in scope and influence. In 75 years after Mary Lyon inaugurated the higher education of woman at Mt. Holyoke College, in 1837, 60,000 women were students in the universities and colleges of the United States; nearly 40,000 in the universities of Russia; and increasingly proportionate numbers in every higher institution of learning for women in the world; 30,000 were giving instruction in the primary and secondary schools of Japan. Even Moslem leaders confessed that the historic subjection of woman to ignorance, inferiority, and servitude was the fatal mistake of their religion and social system. The striking miracle occurred when Turkey and China opened to her the here-tofore permanently closed doors of education and social opportunity.

This universal movement for woman's enlightenment and emancipation is significantly synchronous with the world-wide extension and success of Christian missions. The freedom wherewith Christ did set us free includes her complete liberation to equality of opportunity with man. In mental endowment, in practical ability, in all the higher ministries of life and even in statecraft, she has proved herself the equal of man. Christianity always tends to place woman side by side with man in all the great achievements of educati

the teaching of Jesus. The growing desire of woman for the right of suffrage, whether mistaken or not, is the incidental outcome of this new emancipation. The initial stages of this evolutionary process are attended by many abnormal desires, crudities of experiment and conduct, but ultimately, under the guidance of the Spirit of God and the Christian ideal, woman will intelligently adjust herself to her new opportunity and environment, recognizing every God-ordained difference of function, and every complementary and cooperative relation between the sexes. The result of this latest evolution of Christianity will not only be a new womanhood for the race but, through her enlightenment, culture and spiritual leadership, a new humanity.

DWIGHT M. PRATT

DWIGHT M. PRATT WONDER, wun'der, WONDERFUL, wun'derful: The vb. "wonder" occurs only a few times in the OT; "wonder" as noun is much more frequent, and is chiefly the tr of the word מוֹפֶת . mopheth. a splendid or conspicuous work, a "miracle' (Ex 4 21; 11 9, etc), often conjoined with 'ōthōth, "signs" (Ex 7 3; Dt 6 22; 13 1.2; 34 11; Neh 9 10, etc). Other frequent words are \(\mathbb{N}\), \(p\alpha\), \(p\alpha\), \(\mathbb{N}\), \(p\alpha\), \(\mathbb{N}\), \(p\alpha\), \(\mathbb{N}\), \(\mathbb{ the most frequent noun is τέραs, téras, a "marvel," "portent," answering in its meaning to Heb pālā'. As in the OT the "wonder" is chiefly a miraculous work, so in the Gospels the feeling of wonder is chiefly drawn out by the marvelous displays of Christ's power and wisdom (Mt 15 31; Mk 6 51; Lk 4 22, etc).

Wonderful, that which excites or calls forth wonder, is in the OT chiefly the tr of pālā' or pele' (2 S 1 26; Ps 40 3; Isa 28 29, etc); in the NT of thaumásios (once, Mt 21 15).

For "wondered" in Lk 8 25; 11 14, RV has "marvelled" (cf 9 43); in the OT also "marvellous" frequently for "wondrous," etc (1 Ch 16 9; Job 9 10; Ps 96 3; 105 2). W. L. WALKER

WOOD, wood. See BOTANY; FOREST; TREES.

WOOD OF EPHRAIM (2 S 18 6). See Eph-RAIM, FOREST OF.

WOOF, woof (בְּרֵבֶּע, 'ērebh, "mixture," "woof" [Lev 13 48 ff]). See WARP.

WOOL, wool (תְּבֶּיׁבְ, çemer; ἔριον, érion): Wool and flax were the fibers most used by the ancient weavers. Wool was used principally for the outside garments (Lev 13 48 ff; Prov 31 13; Ezk 34 3; Hos 2 5.9). Syrian wool is found on the world's markets today, but it is not rated as first quality, partly because it is so contaminated with thorns, straw and other foreign matter which become entangled with the wool while the sheep are wandering over the barren, rocky mountain sides in search of food. Extensive pastures are almost unknown.

Two kinds of wool are sold: (1) That obtained by shearing. This is removed from the animal as far as possible in one piece or fleece usually without previous washing. The fleeces are gathered in bales and carried to a washing-place, which is usually one of the stony river beds, with but a small stream flowing through it during the summer. The river bed is chosen because the rocks are clean and free from little sticks or straw which would cling to the washed wool. The purchaser of this washed wool submits it to a further washing with soap, ishnan (alkali plant), "soapwort," or other cleansing agent (see Fuller), and then cards it before spinning and weaving. The wool thus obtained is nearly snow white. (2) The second supply of wool is from the tanneries where the wool is removed from the skins with slaked lime (see Tanning).

This is washed in many changes of water and used for stuffing mattresses, quilts, etc, but not for weaving

Gideon used a fleece of wool to seek an omen from God (Jgs 6 37). Mesha, king of Moab, sent a large quantity of wool as a tribute to the king of Israel (2 K 3 4).

Wool was forbidden to be woven with linen (Dt 22 11; cf Lev 19 19). Priests could not wear woolen garments (Ezk 44 17). Wool dyed scarlet with the kermes was used in the blood-covenant ceremony (He 9 19; cf Lev 14; Nu 19 6).

The whiteness of wool was used for comparison (1) with snow (Ps 147 16); (2) with sins forgiven (Isa 1 18); (3) with hair (Dnl 7 9; Rev 1 14). JAMES A. PATCH

WORD, wird: The commonest term in the OT for "word" is ¬¬¬, dābhār (also "matter," "thing"); in the NT λόγος, lógos ("reason," "discourse," "speech"); but also frequently βημα, rhēma. Rhēma is a "word" in itself considered; logos is a spoken word, with reference generally to that which is in the speaker's mind. Some of the chief applications of the terms may thus be exhibited:

(1) We have the word of Jeh (or God; see below) (a) as the revelation to the patriarch, prophet, or inspired person (Gen 15 1; Ex 20 1; Nu 22 38, etc); (b) as spoken forth by the prophet (Ex 4 30; 34 1; 2 K 7 1; Isa 1 10, etc). (2) The word is often a commandment, sometimes equivalent to "the Law" (Ex 32 28; Nu 20 24; Dt 6 6; Ps 105 8; 119 11.17; Isa 66 2, etc). (3) As a promise and ground of hope (Ps 119 25.28. 38, etc.: 130 5, etc). (4) As greative unhading (1) We have the word of Jeh (or God; see (3) As a promise and ground of nope (Ps. 119, 25.25. 38, etc.; 130, 5, etc.). (4) As creative, upholding, and preserving (Ps. 33, 6; cf. Gen. 1, 3 ff; Ps. 147, 15.18; He. 1, 3; 11, 3; 2. Pet. 3, 5.7). (5) As personified (in Apoc, Wisd. 18, 15; Ecclus. 1, 5, RVm "omitted by the best authorities"). (6) As personal (Jn. 1, 1). Logos in Philo and Gr-Jewish philosophy meant both reason or thought and its utterance, "the whole contents of the Divine world of thought resting in the Nous of God, synonymous with the inner life of God Himself and corresponding to the logos endiathetos of the human soul; on the other hand, it is the externalizing of this as revelation corresponding to the *Wgos prophorikos* in which man's thought finds expression' (Schultz). Cf also the references to Creation by "the word of God" and its personifications; see Logos; incarnated in Jesus Christ (Jn 1 14; 1 Jn 1 1.2; Rev nated in Jesus Christ (Jn 1 14; I Jn 1 1.2; Rev 19 13, "His name is called, The Word of God," Ho Lógos toù Theoù). See Person of Christ. (7) Cannot be broken, endureth forever (2 K 10 10; Ps 119 89; Isa 40 8, etc). (8) A designation of the gospel of Christ: sometimes simply "the word"; with Jesus "the word of the Kingdom" (Mt 13 19; Jesus frequently speaks of His "word" and "works" as containing the Divine revelation and requirements made through Him, which men are asked to ments made through Him, which men are asked to believe in, cherish and obey (Jn 5 24; 6 63.68, etc.); "the words of God" (Jn 3 34; 8 47; 14 10; 17 8.14, etc.); His "word" (logos and rhēma) is to be distinguished from laliá, speech (ef Mt 26 73; Mk 14 70), trd "saying," Jn 4 42 (ver 41, "Many more believed because of his own word" [logos]; ver 42, "not because of thy saying" [lalia], RV "speaking"); in the only other occurrence of lalia in this Gospel (8 43) Jesus uses it to distinguish the outward expression from the inner meaning, "Why do ye not understand my speech?" (lalia), "Even because ye cannot hear my word" (logos). (9) "Words" are distinguished from "power" (1 Cor 4 20; 1 Thess 1 5); are contrasted with "deed" (Mal 2 17; 1 Cor 4 20; 1 Jn 3 18). (10) Paul refers to "unspeakable words" (árrhēta rhēmata) which he heard in

Paradise (2 Cor 12 4), and to "words [logoi] which the Spirit teacheth" (1 Cor 2 13).

For "word" RV has "commandment" (Nu 4 45, etc); or "words," "things" (Jn 7 9; 8 30; 9 22.40; 17 1); sayings" (Jn 10 21; 12 47.48); for "enticing words," persuasiveness of speech" (Col 2 4); conversely, word" for "commandment" (Nu 24 13; 27 14; Josh **Word" for "commandment" (Nu & ** 1.7)

8 8, etc), with numerous other changes.

W. L. WALKER

WORK, wûrk, WORKS, wûrks: "To work" in the OT is usually the tr of לָּעָה, 'āsāh, or of פָּצַל, pā'al (of the works both of God and of man), and "work" (noun) is most frequently the tr of מַצְשֶׁה, ma'ăseh, or Τζάς, $m^e l\bar{a}'kh\bar{a}h$; in the NT of $\dot{\epsilon}\nu\epsilon\rho\gamma\dot{\epsilon}\omega$, energéō, ἐργάζομαι, ergázomai (and compound), with ἔργον, érgon (noun). The word "works" (érga) is a favorite designation in Jn for the wonderful works of Jesus (5 36; 10 38; 15 24, etc; "miracles" to us, "works" to Him). "Works" is used by Paul and James, in a special sense, as denoting (with Paul) those legal performances by means of which men sought to be accepted of God, in contradismen sought to be accepted of God, in contradis-tinction to that faith in Christ through which the sinner is justified apart from all legal works (Rom 3 27; 4 2.6, etc; Gal 2 16; 3 2.5.10), "work-ing through love" (Gal 5 6; 1 Thess 1 3), and is fruitful in all truly "good works," in which Christian believers are expected to abound (2 Cor 9 8; Eph 2 10; Col 1 10; 2 Thess 2 17, etc). When James speaks of being justified by "works" as well as by "faith" (2 14-26), he has in view those works which show faith to be real and vital. "Dead works" avail nothing (cf He 9 14; 10 24). Judgment is according to "works" (Mt 16 27, RV "deeds," m "Gr 'doing,'" prâxis; Rom 2 6; 1 Pet 1 17, etc), the new life being therein evidenced. A contrast between "faith" and "good works" is never drawn in the NT. See, further, JUSTIFICATION. W. L. WALKER

WORKER, wûr'ker, WORKFELLOW, wûrk'fel-ō, WORKMAN, wûrk'man (២Ͻ៎៝៝៝, ħārāsh, ÞÞ̄, pā'al; ἐργάτης, ergálēs, συνεργός, sunergós): "Worker" tel-0, WORKMAN, wurk man (Ψ), ħārāsh, ΣΣΕ, pā'al; ἐργάτης, ergátēs, συνεργός, sunergós): "Worker" (artificer) is the tr of ħārash, "to cut in" (1 K 7 14, "a worker in brass"), and of ħārāsh, "artificer," etc (1 Ch 22 15); "workers of stone," rendered "workman," "workmen" (Isa 40 20; 44 11; Jer 10 3.9, "artificer"; Hos 8 6); 'āsāħ, "to work," is trd "workers" of iniquity (Ps 37 1, "them that work unrighteousness"); 'āsāħ me'lā'khāħ, "to do work" (2 K 12 14.15, "workmen," "them that did the work"; 1 Ch 22 15; 2 Ch 24 13, etc; Ezr 3 9); 'ane'shē me'lā'khāħ, "men of work" (1 Ch 25 1, "workmen," "them that did the work"); 'āmēl, "working," "toiling" (Jgs 5 26, "put her right hand to the workmen's hammer"); pā'al, "to act," "do," when trd "workers," is joined with "iniquity," "workers of iniquity" (Job 31 3; 34 8.22; Ps 5 5; 6 8; 14 4, etc; Prov 10 29; 21 15); ergatēs, "worker," is trd "workman" (Mt 10 10, "laborer"; 2 Tim 2 15; Acts 19 25), "workers" (of iniquity) (Lk 13 27), "deceitful workers" (2 Cor 11 13), "evil workers" (Phil 3 2); dúnamis, "power," is trd "(workers of) miracles" (1 Cor 12 29 m, RV "powers"); sunergéō, "to work with" (2 Cor 6 1, "working together with him").

Workfellow is the tr of sunergos, "joint or fellowworker" (Rom 16 21: Col 4 11)

Workfellow is the tr of sunergos, "joint or fellow-worker" (Rom 16 21; Col 4 11).

Workmaster occurs in Ecclus 38 27, as the tr of architéktön.

architekton.

For "of ["with"] cunning work" (Ex 26 1.31;
28 6.15; 36 8.35; 39 3.8), ARV has "the work of the skilful workman," ERV "of the cunning workman"; instead of "I was by him as one brought up [with him]" (Prov 8 30), RV has "I work him as a master workman"." "I was by him as a master workman." W. L. WALKER

WORLD, wûrld (COSMOLOGICAL, koz-mō-loj'i-kal):

Terms and General Meaning Hebrew Idea of the World

Its Extent

Its Extent
 Origin of the World—Biblical and Contrasted Views
 The Cosmogony of Gen 1—Comparison with Babylonian and Other Cosmogonies
 Gen 1 and Science

LITERATURE

The Hebrews had no proper word for "world" in its wide sense of "universe." The nearest ap-

proach to such a meaning is in the phrase "the heavens and the earth" 1. Terms (Gen 1 1, etc). Even this, in a physiand cal reference, does not convey the modern idea, for the earth is still the center with which heaven and the General Meaning heavenly bodies are connected as adjuncts. It is

here, however, to be remembered that to the Heb mind the physical world was not the whole. Beyond were the heavens where God's throne was, peopled by innumerable spiritual intelligences, whose hosts worshipped and obeyed Him (Gen 28 12; Ps 103 19-21, etc). Their conception of the universe was thus enlarged, but the heavens, in this sense, would not be included in the "world." For sense, would not be included in the "world." For "world," in its terrestrial meaning, several Heb words are used. The AV thus occasionally renders the word 'ereç, "earth" (the rendering is retained in RV in Isa 23 17; Jer 25 26; in Ps 22 27; Isa 62 11, it is changed to its proper meaning "earth"); 'ōlām, "age," twice rendered "world" in AV (Ps 73 12; Eccl 3 11), is changed in RV—in the latter case into "eternity." The chief word for "world" in the sense of the habitable earth, the abode of man in the sense of the habitable earth, the abode of man, with its fulness of created life, is *tbbhbl*—a poetical term (1 S 2 8; 2 S 22 16; Job 18 18; 34 13; 37 12; Ps 9 8; 18 15, etc)—answering to the Gr oikouménē.

oikouménē.

In the NT a frequent word for "world" is aiōn, "age" (Mt 12 32; 13 22.39.40.49; 24 3; Mk 4 19; Lk 16 8; Rom 12 2; He 1 2, etc). RV notes in these cases "age" in m, and sometimes changes in text into "of old" (thus ARV in Lk 1 70; Acts 3 21), "ages," "times," etc, according to the sense (cf 1 Cor 10 11; He 6 5; 9 26; 2 Tim 1 9; Tit 1 2, etc). Most generally the Gr word used is kósmos, the "ordered world" (e.g. Mt 4 8; 5 14; 26 13; Mk 8 36; Jn 1 9; 8 12; Acts 17 24; Rom 1 8.20, etc). The wider sense of "all creation," or "universe" (see above on the OT), is expressed by such phrases as pānta, "all things" (Jn 1 3), pāsa hē ktīsis, "the whole creation" (Rom 8 22). ktisis, "the whole creation" (Rom 8 22).

Two errors are to be avoided in framing a representation of the Heb conception of the world. (1) The attempt should not be made to

2. Hebrew find in the Bib. statements precise Idea of the anticipations of modern scientific dis-World coveries. The relations of the Bib. teaching to scientific discovery are considered below. Here it is enough to say that the view taken of the world by Bib. writers is not that of modern science, but deals with the world simply as we know it—as it lies spread out to ordinary view—and things are described in popular language as they appear to sense, not as telescope, microscope, and other appliances of modern knowledge reveal their nature, laws and relations to us. The end of the narration or description is throughout religious, not theoretic. (2) On the other hand, the error is to be avoided of forcing the language of popular, often metaphorical and poetic, description into the hard-and-fast forms of a cosmogony which it is by no means intended by the writers to yield. It is true that the Hebrews had no idea of our modern Copernican astronomy, and thought of the

earth as a flat surface, surmounted by a vast ex-

panse of heaven, in which sun, moon and stars were placed, and from whose reservoirs the rain descended. But it is an exaggeration of all this to speak, as is sometimes done, as if the neutron work children who thought of the sky as a solid vault (Gen 1 6-8; Job 37 18), supported on pillars (Job 26 11), and pierced with windows (Gen 7 11; speak, as is sometimes done, as if the Hebrews were Isa 24 18), through which the rains came. world is a solid expanse of earth, surrounded by and resting on a world-ocean, and surmounted by a rigid vault called the 'firmament,' above which the waters of a heavenly ocean are spread'' (Skinner). The matter is carried farther when elaborate resemblances are sought between the Heb and Bab cosmogonies (see below). Such representations, though common, are misleading. Language is not to be pressed in this prosaic, unelastic way. It is forgotten that if the "firmament" or "heaven" is sometimes spoken of as a solid vault, it is at other times compared to a "curtain" stretched out (Ps 104 2; Isa 40 22), or a "scroll" that can be rolled up (Isa 34 4); if "windows" of heaven are once or trice mentioned in many other places them in a twice mentioned, in many other places there is a quite clear recognition that the rain comes from the clouds in the air (Jgs 5 4; Job 36 28; Ps 77 17, etc); if the earth is sometimes spoken of as a "circle" (Isa-40 22), at other times it has "corners" and "ends" (Isa 11 12; Dt 33 17; Job 37 3; Ps 19 6, etc); if sun, moon and stars are figured as if attached to the firmament—"fixed as nails," as one has put it—"from which the mind the stars are figured. has put it—"from which they might be said to drop off" (Isa 14 12, etc.), far more frequently the sun is represented as pursuing his free, rejoicing course around the heavens (Ps 19 5.6, etc.), the moon as "walking" in brightness (Job 31 26), etc. The proper meaning of the word rākīa" is simply "expanse," and the pellucid vault of the heavens, in which the clouds hung, and through which the sun traveled, had probably for the Hebrews associations not very different from what it has to the average mind of today. The earth, itself composed of "dry land" and "seas" (Gen 1 9.10), the former with its mountains, valleys and rivers, may have been con-ceived of as encircled by an ocean—the circular form being naturally suggested by the outline of the A few passages convey the idea of depths within or beneath, as well as around the solid earth (Gen 7 11; Dt 33 13)—a thought again suggested by springs, wells, floods, and similar natural phenomena—but there is no fixity in these representa-tions. One place in Job (26 7) has the bold idea of the earth as hung in free space—a near approach

to the modern conception.

The ideas formed of the extent of the world were naturally limited by the geographical knowledge of the Hebrews, and expanded as that knowledge 3. Its Extent increased. At no time, however, was it so limited as might be supposed. The Table or Nations (q.v.) in Gen 10 shows a wide knowledge of the different peoples of the world, "after their tongues, in their lands, in their nations" (vs 20.31). The outlook to the W. was bounded by the Mediterranean ("great sea," Nu 34 6; Ezk 47 10, etc.), with its "islands" (Gen 10 5; Isa 11 11, etc.), to Tarshish (Spain?) in the extreme W. To the N. was the great empire of the Hittites (Josh 1 4; 1 K 10 29, etc.). N. and E., across the desert, beyond Syria, lay the familiar region of Mesopotamia (Aram-Naharaim, Ps 60, title), with Ararat (Gen 8 4) still farther N.; and, southward, in the Tigris-Euphrates valley, the ancient and powerful empires of Assyria and Babylonia (Gen 2 14; 10 10.11), with Media and Elam (Gen 10 2.22), ata later time Perisa (Est 1 1), farther E. To the S.E., between the Red Sea and the Pers Gulf, lay the great peninsula of Arabia, and to the W. of the Red Sea, S.W. of Canaan, the mighty Egypt, Israel's never-forgotten "land of bondage" (Ex 20 2, etc.). S. of Egypt was Ethiopia. Of more distant peoples, India is first mentioned in Est 1 1; 8 9, but trade with it must have been as early as the days of Solomon. On the dim horizon are such peoples as Gomer (the Cimmerians, N. of the Euxine, Gen 10 2; Ezk 38 6) and Magog (Gen 10 2; Ezk 38 2, the Seythians [7]); probably even China is intended by "the land of Sinim" in Isa 49 12. In the to the modern conception.

apocryphal books and the NT the geographical area is perceptibly widened. Particularly do Asia Minor, Macedonia, Greece and Italy, with their islands, cities, etc, come clearly into view. A list like that in Acts 29-11 of the representatives of peoples present at the day of Pentecost gives a vivid glimpse of the extent of the Jewish religious connection at this period (cf Acts 827 ff)

From the first there has been abundant speculation in religion and philosophy as to how the world came

to be-whether it was eternal, or had 4. Origin a commencement, and, if it began to be, how it originated. Theories were, of World-Biblical and as they are still, numberless and vari-Contrasted ous. Some cosmogonies were purely mythological (Bab, Hesiod); some were materialistic (Democritus, Epicurus-

"concourse of atoms"); some were demiurgic (Plato in Timaeus-an eternal matter formed by a demiurge); some were emanational (Gnostics—result of overflowing of fulness of Divine life in "aeons"); some were dualistic (Parsism, Manicheism—good and evil principles in conflict); some imagined endless "cycles"—alternate production and destruction (Stoics, Buddhist kalpas); many were pantheistic (Spinoza—an eternal "substance," its "attributes" necessarily determined in their "modes"; Hegel, "absolute spirit," evolving by logical necessity); some are pessimistic (Schopenhauer—the world the result of an irrational act of "will"; hence necessarily evil), etc.

In contrast with these conflicting, and often foolish and irrational, theories, the Bib. doctrine of the origin of the world stands alone and unique. It is unique because the view of God on which it rests is unique. According to the teaching of the Bible, from its first page to its last, God is a free, personal Spirit, one, omnipotent, holy, and the world originates in a free act of His almighty will (Gen 1 1; Ps 33 9; He 11 3; Rev 4 11, etc.), is continually upheld by His power, ruled by His providence, and is the sphere of the realization of His purpose. As against theories of the eternity of the world, accordingly, it declares that the world had a beginning (Gen 1 1); as against dualism, it declares that it is the product of one cluichty—" declares that it is the product of one almighty will (Dt 4 35; Isa 45 7; 1 Cor 8 6, etc); as against the supposition of an eternal matter, it declares that matter as well as form takes its origin from God (Gen 1 1; He 11 3); as against pantheism and all theories of necessary development, it affirms the distinction of God from His world, His transcendence over it as well as His immanence in it, and His free action in creation (Eph 4 6; Rev 4 11); as against pessimism, it declares the constitution, aim and end of the world to be good (Gen 1 31; Ps 33 5; Mt 5 45, etc). To the OT doctrine of the origin of the world the NT adds the fuller determination that the world was created through the agency of the "Word" (Logos), or Son (Jn 1 3; Col 1 16, 17; He 1 2.3, etc).

No stronger proof could be afforded of the truth and sublimity of the Bib. account of the origin of

things than is given by the comparison 5. Cosmog- of the narrative of creation in Gen 1ony of Gen 2 4, with the mythological cosmogonies 1—Compar- and theogonies found in other religions. Of these the best known, up ison with Babylonian to the time of recent discoveries, were the Bab account of the creation preand Other served by Berosus, a priest of Babylon in the 3d cent. BC, and the *Theogony* of the Gr Hesiod (9th cent. BC). Hesiod's Cosmogonies

poem is a confused story of how from Chaos came forth Earth, Tartarus (Hell), Eros (Love) and Erebus (Night). Erebus gives birth to Aether (Day). Earth produces the Heaven and the Sea. Earth and Heaven, in turn, become the parents of the

elder gods and the Titans. Cronus, one of these gods, begets Zeus. Zeus makes war on his father Cronus, overthrows him, and thus becomes king of the Olympian gods. The descent of these is then How far this fantastic theory, commencing with Chaos, and from it generating Nature and the gods, has itself an original affinity with Bab conceptions, need not here be discussed. It hardly surpasses in crudeness the late shape of the Bab cosmogony furnished by Berosus. Here, too, Chaos—"darkness and water"—is the beginning, and therefrom are generated strange and peculiar forms. men with wings and with two faces, or with heads and horns of goats, bulls with human heads, dogs with four bodies, etc. Over this welter a woman presides, called Omorka. Belus appears, cuts the woman in twain, of one half of her makes the heavens, and of the other the earth, sets the world in order, finally makes one of the gods cut off his head, and from the blood which flowed forth, mixed with earth, forms intelligent man. That Berosus has not essentially misrepresented the older Bab conceptions is now made apparent through the recovery of the Bab story itself.

sentially misrepresented the older Bab conceptions is now made apparent through the recovery of the Bab story itself.

In 1875 George Smith discovered, among the tablets in the British Museum brought from the great library of the Assyr king Assurbanipal (7th cent. BC), several on which was inscribed the Chaldaean story of creation, and next year published his work, The Chaldean Account of Gen. The tablets, supplemented by other fragments, have since been repeatedly trd by other hands, the most complete tr being that by L. W. King in his Seven Tablets of Creation in the Bubylonian and Assyrian Legends concerning the Creation of the World. The story of these tablets, still in many parts fragmentary, is now familiar (see Babylonian of all things is from Chaos, the presiding description, occupying the first four tablets, of the war of Marduk with Tiamat, the conflict issuing in the woman being cut in two, and heaven being formed of one half and earth of the other. The 5th tablet narrates the appointing of the constellations. The 6th seems to have recorded the creation of man from the blood of Marduk. This mythological epic is supposed by many scholars to be the original of the sublime, orderly, monotheistic account of the creation which stands at the commencement of our Bible. The Bab story is (without proof) supposed to have become naturalized in Israel, and there purified and elevated in accordance with the higher ideas of Israel's religion. We cannot subscribe to this view, which seems to us loaded with internal and historical improbabilities. Points of resemblance are indeed alleged, as in the use of the Heb word thom for "deep" (Gen. 1.2), cognate with Tiamat; the separation of heaven and earth (Gen. 1.6–8); the appointing of the constellations (Gen. 1.14–18), etc. But in the midst of the scanby resemblances, how enormous are the contrasts, which all writers acknowledge! Gunkel, e.g., says, "Anyone who compares this ancient Bab myth with Gen. 1, will perceive at once hardly anything else than the infinite dist

The superiority of the Gen cosmogony to those of other peoples is generally admitted, but objection to it is taken in the name of modern science. The narrative conflicts, it is said, with both modern astronomy and modern geology; with the former, in regarding the earth as the center of the universe, and with the latter in its picture of the order and stages of creation, and the time occupied in the work (for a full statement

6. Gen 1 and Science of these alleged discrepancies, see Dr. Driver's Gen, Intro). On the general Driver's Gen, Intro). On the general question of the harmony of the Bible with science

it is important that a right standpoint be adopted. It has already been stated that it is no part of the aim of the Bib. revelation to anticipate the discoveries of 19th- and 20th-cent, science. The world is taken as it is, and set in its relations to God its Creator, without consideration of what after-light science may throw on its inner constitution, laws and methods of working. As Calvin, with his usual good sense, in his comm. on Gen 1 says, "Moses wrote in the popular style, which, without instruction, all ordinary persons endowed with common sense are able to understand. He does not call us up to heaven; but only proposes things that lie open before our eyes." This of

itself disposes of the objection drawn from astronomy, for everywhere heaven and earth are spoken of according to their natural appearances, and not in the language of modern Copernican science. To this hour we use the same language in speaking of

the sun rising and setting.

The further objection that modern knowledge discredits the Bib. view by showing how small a speck the world is in the infinitude of the universe is really without force. Whatever the extent of the universe, it remains the fact that on this little planet life has effloresced into reason, and we have as yet no ground in science for believing that anywhere else it has ever done so (cf Dr. A. R. Wallace's striking book, Man's Place in the Universe). Even supposing that there are any number of inhabited worlds, this does not detract from the soul's value in this world, or from God's love in the salvation of its sinful race. The objection drawn from geology, though so much is sometimes made of it, is hardly more formidable. It does not follow that, because the Bible does not teach modern science, we are justified in saving that it contradicts it. On the justified in saying that it contradicts it. contrary, it may be affirmed, so true is the stand-point of the author in this first chapter of Gen, so Divine the illumination with which he is endowed, so unerring his insight into the order of Nature, that there is little in his description that even yet, with our advanced knowledge, we need to change. To quote words used elsewhere, "The dark watery waste over which the Spirit broods with vivifying power, the advent of light, the formation of an atmosphere or sky capable of sustaining the clouds above it, the settling of the great outlines of the continents and seas, the clothing of the dry land with abundant vegetation, the adjustment of the earth's relation to sun and moon as the visible rulers of its day and night, the production of the great seamonsters and reptile-like creatures and birds, the peopling of the earth with four-footed beasts and cattle, last of all, the advent of man—is there so much of all this which science requires us to cancel?" (Orr, Christian View of God and the World, 421).

Even in regard to the "days"—the duration of time involved—there is no insuperable difficulty. The writer may well have intended symbolically to represent the creation as a great week of work, ending with the Creator's Sabbath rest. In view, however, of the fact that days of 24 hours do not begin to run till the appointment of the sun on the 4th day (Gen 1 14), it seems more probable that he did not intend to fix a precise length to his creation "days." This is no new speculation. Already Augustine asks, "Of what fashion these days were it is exceeding hard or altogether impossible to think, much more to speak" (De Civ. Dei,

xi.6, 7); and Thomas Aquinas in the Middle Ages leaves the matter an open question. Neither does this narrative, in tracing the origin of all things to the creative word of God, conflict with anything that may be discovered by science as to the actual method of creation, e.g. in evolution. Science itself is gradually coming to see the limits within which the doctrine of evolution must be received, and, kept within these limits, there is nothing in that doctrine which brings it into conflict with the Bib. representations (see Anthropology; Creation; Evolution; also the writer's works, God's Image in Man and Sin as a Problem of Today). Whatever may be said of the outward form of the narrative, one has only to look at the great ideas which the first chapter of Gen is intended to teach to see that it conveys those great truths on the origin and ordering of things which are necessary as the basis of a true religious view of the world, no matter to what stage knowledge or science may attain. chapter, standing at the head of the Bible, lays the foundation for all that follows in the Bib. view of the relation of God to the world, and yields the ground for our confidence that, as all things are created by God and dependent on Him, so everything in Nature and providence is at His disposal for the execution of His purposes and the care and protection of His people. The story of creation, therefore, remains to all time of the highest religious value.

to all time of the highest rengious value.

LITERATURE.—See arts. "Earth" in Smith's DB and in EB. The other works mentioned above may be consulted. A valuable extended discussion of the word "Firmament" may be seen in Essay V of the older work, Aids to Faith (London, Murray), 220-30.

JAMES ORR

WORLD, END OF THE. See Eschatology of THE NT; HEAVENS, NEW.

WORLD (GENERAL): In AV this word represents several originals, as follows: "የጋኝ , 'ereç, "earth"; סְבֶּל, hedhel, "the underworld"; הַבֶּל,

1. Original heledh, "lifetime," "age"; ລະກັງ, tēbhēl,
Words "indefinite time," "age"; ລະກັງ, tēbhēl,
"fertile earth"; ຈຸກີ, gē, "earth"; ລໄຜ່ນ,
aiōn, "age," "indefinite time," with frequent connotation of the contents of time, its influences and powers; olkoupén, oikouménē, "inhabited earth,"
the world of man considered in its error and distributions. the world of man considered in its area and distribution; last, and most frequently, koppos, kosmos, properly "order," with the suggestion of beauty; thence the material universe, as the great example of such order; then the moral universe, the total system of intelligent creatures, perhaps sometimes including angels (1 Cor 4 9), but as a rule human beings only; then, in view of the fact of universal buman failure, humanity in its sinful aspect, the spirit and forces of fallen humanity regarded as antagonistic to God and to good, "all around us which does not love God."

Of the above terms, some need not detain us; 'ereç, as the original to "world," occurs only thrice, hedhel, once, heledh, twice, '\(\bar{o}lam,\) twice

2. Remarks (including Eccl 3 11), $g\bar{e}$, once. The most important of the series, looking at

frequency of occurrence, are tebhel, aion, oikoumene, On these we briefly comment in order.

(1) Tebhel.—This, as the original to "world," occurs in 35 places, of which 15 are found in Pss and 9 in the first half of Isa. By derivation it has to do with produce, fertility, but this cannot be said to come out in usage. The word actually plays nearly the same part as "globe" with us, denoting man's material dwelling-place, as simply as possible, without moral suggestions.

out moral suggestions.
(2) Aiōn.—We have indicated above the speciality of this word. It is a time, with the suggestion always of extension rather than limit (so that it

lends itself to phrases denoting vast if not endless lends itself to phrases denoting vasual not endiess extension, such as "to the aions of aions," rendered "forever and ever," or "world without end"). In He 1 2; 11 13, it denotes the "aeons" of the creative process. In numerous places, notably in Mt, it refers to the "dispensations" of redemption, the present "age" of grace and, in distinction, the "age" which is to succeed it—"that world, and the resurrection" (Lk 20 35). Then, in view of the moral contents of the present state of things, it freely passes into the thought of forces and influences tending against faith and holiness, e.g., "Be not fashioned according to this world" (Rom 12 2). In this connection the Evil Power is said to be "the god of this world" (2 Cor 4 4).

(3) The word oikoumenē occasionally means the Rom empire, regarded as preëminently the region of settled human life. So Lk 2 1; Acts 11 28, and perhaps Rev 3 10, and other apocalyptic passages. In He it is used mystically of the Empire of the

Messiah (1 6; 2 5).

(4) Kosmos.-We have remarked above on this word, with its curious and suggestive history of meanings. It may be enough here to add that that history prepares us to find its reference varying by subtle transitions, even in the same passage. See e.g. Jn 1 10, where "the world" appears first to denote earth and man simply as the creation of "the Word," and then mankind as sinfully alienated from their Creator. We are not surprised accordingly to read on the one hand that "God loved the world" (Jn 3 16), and on the other that the Christian must "not love the world" (1 Jn 2 15). The reader will find the context a sure clue in all cases, and the study will be pregnant of instruction.

HANDLEY DUNELM

WORM, wûrm, SCARLET-WORM, skär'letwarm: (1) חוֹלֶעת, tōlā', הוֹלֶעה, tölē'āh, הוֹלֶע, tōla'ath, תֹלֵעה, tōlā'ath, from עֹלֵלה, tāla'; ef Arab.

تلع, tala, "to stretch the neck"; usually with پر shānī, "bright" (cf Arab. سَنَى, sanā, "a flash of lightning"), the

term תוֹלַעַת שָׁנִי , tōlaʿath shānī being trd "scarlet" in EV; also in the same sense the following: קוני תולעת, shenī tōla'ath (Lev **14** 4), דוֹלֶל, tōlāʿ (Isa **1** 18, EV "crimson"), שָׁנִים, shānīm (Prov 31 21; Isa 1 18, EV "scarlet"), שֶׁלֶּר , shānī (Gen 38 28: Josh 2 18; Cant 4 3); also κόκκος, kókkos, and κόκκινος, kókkinos (Mt 27 mam, "to putrefy" (Ex 16



Scarlet Insect.

20); cf Arab. , ramm, "to become carious" (of bone). (3) DD, \$\bar{a}\$ (only in Isa 51 8); cf Arab. , sûs, "worm"; σήs, sês, "moth" (Mt 6 19). (4) דְחֵלִּים , zoḥālīm (Mic 7 17, AV "worms," RV "crawling things"), from √ חול, zāḥal, "to crawl." (5) σκώληξ, skôlēx (Mk 9 48), σκωληκόβρωτος, skôlē-kóbrōtos, "eaten of worms" (Acts 12 23).

Besides the numerous passages, mostly in Ex, referring to the tabernacle, where tola'ath, with shānī, is trd "scarlet," there are eight passages in

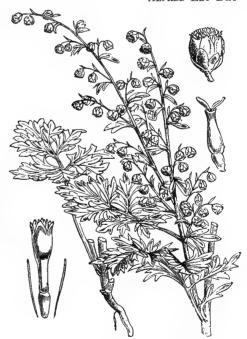
which it is trd "worm." These denote worms which occur in decaying organic matter or in sores (Ex 16 20; Isa 14 11; 66 24); or which are destructive to plants (Dt 28 39; Jon 4 7); or the word is used as a term of contempt or depreciation (Job 25 6; as a term of contempt or depreciation (Job 25 6; Ps 22 6; Isa 41 14). Rimmāh is used in the same senses. It occurs with tōla'ath as a synonym in Ex 16 24; Job 25 6; Isa 14 11. In Job 25 6, EV, rendering both tōla'ath and rimmāh by "worm," 'ĕnōsh and 'ādhām by "man," and introducing twice "that is a," makes a painfully monotonous distich out of the concise and elegant original, in which not one word of the first part is repeated in the second. Sāş (Isa 51 8), EV "worm," is the larva of the clothes-moth. See Мотн. In none of the cases here considered are worms, properly so called, denoted, but various insect larvae which are commonly called "worms," e.g. "silkworm," "apple-worm," "meal-worm," etc. These larvae are principally those of *Diptera* or flies, *Coleoptera* or beetles, and Lepidoptera or butterflies and moths.

Lepidoptera or butterflies and moths.

Tōla'ath shānī, "scarlet," is the scarlet-worm, Cermes vermilio, a scale-insect which feeds upon the oak, and which is used for producing a red dye. It is called by the Arabs dadeh, "a worm," a word also used for various insect larvae. It is also called kirmiz, whence "crimson" and the generic name Cermes. This scarlet-worm or scale-insect is one of the family Coccidae of the order Rhynchota or Hemiptera. The female is wingless and adheres to its favorite plant by its long, sucking beak, by which it extracts the sap on which it lives. After once attaching itself it remains motionless, and when dead its body shelters the eggs which have been deposited beneath it. The males, which are smaller than the females, pass through a complete metamorphosis and develop wings. The dye is made from the dried bodies of the females. Other species yielding red dyes are Porphyrophora polonica and Coccus cati. The last named is the Mexican cochineal insect which feeds on the cactus and which largely supplanted the others after the discovery of America. Aniline dyes have in turn to a great extent superseded these natural organic colors, which, however, continue to be unsurpassed for some purposes. See Colors.

Alfree Ely Day

ALFRED ELY DAY



Wormwood (Artemisia absinthium).

[Rev 8 11]): What the Heb la'ănāh may have been is obscure; it is clear it was a bitter substance and it is usually associated with "gall"; in LXX it is variously trd, but never by apsinthos, "wormwood." Nevertheless all ancient tradition supports the EV tr. The genus Artemisia (N.O. Compositae), "wormwood," has five species of shrubs or herbs found in Pal (Post), any one of which may furnish a bitter taste. The name is derived from the property of many species acting as anthelmintics, while other varieties are used in the manufacture of absinthe. E. W. G. MASTERMAN

WORMWOOD, THE STAR: In Rev 8 11, the name is figurative, given to a great star which, at the sounding of the third angel's trumpet, fell from heaven upon the third part of the rivers and on the fountains of the waters, turning them to a bitterness of which many died. Wormwood is used of bitter calamities (cf Lam 3 15), and may here indicate some judgment, inflicted under a noted leader, affecting chiefly the internal sources of a country's prosperity. Older expositors, applying the earlier trumpets to the downfall of the Rom empire, saw in the star a symbol of the barbarian invasions of Attila or Genseric. See also Astronomy, I, 8

WORSHIP, wûr'ship (AS weorthscipe, wyrth-scype, "honor," from weorth, wurth, "worthy," "honorable," and scipe, "ship"):

- 1. Terms
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Honor, reverence, homage, in thought, feeling, or act, paid to men, angels, or other "spiritual" beings, and figuratively to other entities, ideas, powers or qualities, but specifically and supremely to Deity.

The principal OT word is TOW, shāḥāh, "depress," "bow down," "prostrate" (Hithpael), as in Ex 4
31, "bowed their heads and wor
1. Terms shipped"; so in 94 other places. The context determines more or less clearly whether the physical act or the volitional and emo-tional idea is intended. The word is applied to acts of reverence to human superiors as well as supernatural. RV renders it according to its physi-cal aspect, as indicated by the context, "bowed cal aspect, as indicated by the context, "bowed himself down" (AV "worshipped," Gen 24 52; cf 23 7; 27 29, etc).

Other words are: קֿלָלָ , $s\~aghadh$, "prostrate," occurring in Isa 44 15.17.19; 46 6, but rendered (EV) "fall down." In Dnl 2 46; 3 5.6.7.10.15.18.28, it (Aram. ", seghidh) In Dnl 2 46; 3 5.6.7.10.15.18.28, it (Aram. ¬ДО, sghidh) is "worship" (EV), 7 t associated with "falling down," and 5 t with "serve." ¬ДУ, "dbhadh, "work," "labor," "serve," is rendered "worship" by EV in 2 K 10 19.21 ff: "the worshippers [servants] of Baal." In Isa 19 21 RV has "worship with sacrifice and oblation" (AV "do sacrifice"). Isa 19 23 AV has "served," RV "worship." ¬УУ, "Ğaçabh, "carve," "fabricate," "fashion," is once given "worship," i.e. "make [an object of] worship" (Jer 44 19, ARVm "portray").

The OT idea is therefore the reverential attitude of mind or body or both, combined with the more generic notions of religious adoration, obedience, service.

The principal NT word (59 t) is προσκυνέω, pros-unέō, "kiss [the hand or the ground] toward," hence often in the oriental fashion bowing prostrate upon the ground; accordingly, LXX uses it for the Hithpael of shāḥāh (hishtaḥāwāh), "prostrate one-self." It is to render homage to men, angels, demons, the devil, the "beast," idols, or to God. It is rendered 16 t to Jesus as a beneficent superior; at least 24 t to God or to Jesus as God. The root idea of bodily prostration is much less prominent than in the OT. It is always tr^d "worship."

Next in frequency is σέβομαι, sébomai, "venerate," and its various cognates, σεβάζομαι, sebázomai, εὐσεβέω, εὐσεβέω, θεσσεβίκ, theosebέs, σέβασμα, sebázomai, εὐσεβέω, εὐσεβέω, δέθος sébas, theosebés, σέβασμα, sébasma. Its root is σέβας, sébas, "fear," but this primitive meaning is completely merged into "reverence," "hold in awe": "In vain do they worship me" (Mt 15 9, etc). λατρεύω, latretô, is "serve" (religiously) or "worship publicly," "perform sacred services," "offer gifts," "worship God in the observance of the rites instituted for His worship." It is tr4" worship "in Acts 7 42; 24 14 AV, but "serve, ARV: "serve the host of heaven," "serve I the God of our fathers"; but both AV and ARV render Phil 3 3, "worship by the Spirit of God," and He 10 2, "the worshippers," the context in the first two being general, in the second two specific. In 2 Tim 1 3 and many other cases both AV and RV give "serve," the meaning not being confined to worship; but cf Lk 2 37 RV: "worshipping [AV "served"] with fastings and supplications." Rom 1 25 gives both sebazomai and latreuô in their specific meanings: "worshipped [venerated] and served [religiously] the creature." δόξα, dóxα, "glory" (Lk 14 10 AV: "Thou shalt have worship," is a survival of an old Eng. use, rightly discarded in RV). θησεκεία, thrēskeia (Col 2 18), "a voluntary humility and worshipping of the angels" (ARVm "an act of reverence"), has the root idea of trembling or fear. θεραπείω, therapeiô, "serve," heal, "tend" (Acts 17 25 AV: "neither is worshipped by men's hands"), is "served" in RV, perhaps properly, but its close connection with "temples made with hands" makes this questionable. νεωκόρος, πεδικότος, "temple-sweepers," "temple-keeper" (Acts 19 35), has its true meaning in RV, but "worshipper" is needed to complete the idea, in our modern idiom. In the Apoc the usage is the same as in the NT, the vbs. used being, in the order of their frequency, proskuneô, sebomai, thrēskeuô, and latreuō.

The NT idea of worship is a combination of the reverential attitude of mind and body, the general ceremonial and religious service of God, the feeling of awe, veneration, adoration; with the outward and ceremonial aspects approaching, but not reaching, the vanishing point. The total idea of worship, however, both in the OT and NT, must be built up, not from the words specifically so trd, but also, and chiefly, from the whole body of description of worshipful feeling and action, whether of individuals singly and privately, or of larger bodies engaged in the public services of sanctuary, tabernacle, temple, synagogue, upper room or meeting-place.

Space permits no discussion of the universality of worship in some form, ranging from superstitious fear or fetishism to the highest spiritual exercise of which man is capable; nor of the primary motive of worship, whether from a desire to placate, ingratiate, or propitiate some higher power, or to commune and share with him or it, or express instinctive or purposed devotion to him. On the face of the Bible narratives, the instinct of communion, praise, adoring gratitude would seem to be the replicate required from the communication. be the earliest moving force (cf Gen 4 3.4, Cain, Abel; Rom 1 18-25, the primitive knowledge of God as perverted to creature-worship; Gen 8 20, Noah's altar; and Gen 12 7, Abram's altar). That propitiation was an early element is indicated probably by Abel's offering from the flock, certainly by the whole system of sacrifice. its origin, worship as developed in the OT is the expression of the religious instinct in penitence, prostration, adoration, and the uplift of holy joy before the Creator.

In detail, OT worship was individual and private, though not necessarily secret, as with Eliezer (Gen

24 26 f), the expression of personal
gratitude for the success of a mission, Worship or with Moses (Ex 34 8), seeking God's favor in intercessory prayer; it was sometimes, again, though private, in closest association with others, perhaps with a family significance (Gen 8 20, Noah; Gen 12 7; 22 5, Abraham: "I and the lad will go yonder; and . . . worship"); it was in company with the "great congregation," perhaps partly an individual matter, but gaining blessing and force from the presence of others (Ps 42 4: "I went with the throng keeping holyday"); and it was, as the national spirit developed,

the expression of the national devotion (1 Ch 29 20: "And all the assembly worshipped Jeh, and the king"). In this public national worship the truly devout Jew took his greatest delight, for in it were inextricably interwoven together, his patriotism, his sense of brotherhood, his feeling of solidarity, his personal pride and his personal piety.

The general public worship, esp. as developed in the Temple services, consisted of: (1) Sacrificial acts, either on extraordinary occasions, as at the dedication of the Temple, etc, when the blood of the offerings flowed in lavish profusion (2 Ch 7 5), or in the regular morning and evening sacrifices, or on the great annual days, like the Day of Atonement. (2) Ceremonial acts and posture of reverence or of adoration, or symbolizing the seeking and receiving of the Divine favor, as when the high priest returned from presenting incense offering in the holy place, and the people received his benediction with bowed heads, reverently standing (2 Ch 7 6), or the worshippers prostrated themselves as the priests sounded the silver trumpets at the conclusion of each section of the Levites' chant. (3) Praise by the official ministrants of the people or both together, the second probably to a very limited This service of praise was either instrumental, silver "trumpets and cymbals and instru-ments of music," or it might be in vocal song, the chant of the Levites (very likely the congregation took part in some of the antiphonal psalms); or it might be both vocal and instrumental, as in the magnificent dedicatory service of Solomon (2 Ch 5 13), when "the trumpeters and singers were as one, to make one sound to be heard in praising and thanking Jeh." Or it might be simply spoken: "And all the people said, Amen, and praised Jeh" (1 Ch 16 36). How fully and splendidly this musical element of worship was developed among the Hebrews the Book of Ps gives witness, as well as the many notices in Ch (1 Ch 15, 16, 25; 2 Ch 5, 29, 30, etc). It is a pity that our actual knowledge of Heb music should be so limited. (4) Public prayer, such as is described in Dt 26, at the dedication of the Temple (2 Ch 6, etc), or like Pss 60, 79, 80. Shorter forms, half praise, half prayer, formed a part of the service in Christ's time. (5) The annual feasts, with their characteristic ceremonies. See Passover; Tabernacle, etc. Places of worship are discussed under ALTAR; HIGH PLACE;

SANCTUARY; TABERNACLE; TEMPLE, etc.
In the NT we find three sorts of public worship, the temple-worship upon OT lines, the synagogueworship, and the worship which grew up in the Christian church out of the 3. NT characteristic life of the new faith. Worship

The synagogue-worship, developed by and after the exile, largely substituted the book for the symbol, and thought for the sensuous or object appeal; it was also essentially popular, homelike, familiar, escaping from the exclusiveness of the priestly service. It had four principal parts: (1) the recitation of the sh^ema', composed of the 4-9; 11 13-21, and Nu 15 37-41, and beginning, "Hear [sh^ema'], O Israel: Jeh our God is one Jeh"; (2) prayers, possibly following some set form, perhaps repeating some psalm; (3) the reading by male individuals of extracts from the Law and the Prophets selected by the "ruler of the synagogue," in later years following the fixed order of a lectionary, as may have been the case when Jesus "found the place"; (4) the *targum* or condensed explanation in the vernacular of the Scriptures read.

It is questioned whether singing formed a part of the service, but, considering the place of music in Jewish religious life, and its subsequent large place in Christian worship, it is hard to think of it

as absent from the synagogue.

Public Christian worship necessarily developed along the lines of the synagogue and not the temple,

4. Public Christian Worship

since the whole sacrificial and ceremonial system terminated for Christianity with the life and death of Jesus. The perception of this, however, was gradual, as was the break of Jewish

Christians with both synagogue and temple. Jesus Himself held the temple in high honor, loved to frequent it as His Father's house, reverently observed the feasts, and exhibited the characteristic attitude of the devout but un-Pharisaic Israelite toward the temple and its worship. Yet by speaking of Himself as "greater than the temple" (Mt 12 6) and by quoting Hos 6 6, "I desire goodness and not sacrifice," He indicated the relative subordinateness of the temple and its whole system of worship, and in His utterance to the woman of Samaria He intimated the abolition both of the whole idea of the central sanctuary and of the entire ceremonial worship: "Neither in this mountain, nor in Jerus, shall ye worship the Father"; "They that worship him must worship in spirit and truth" (Jn 4 21.24). His chief interest in the temple seems to have been as a "house of prayer" and an opportunity to reach and touch the people. We cannot help feeling that with all His love for the holy precincts, He must have turned with relief from the stately, formal, distant ceremonial of the temple, partly relieved though it was by the genuine religious passion of many worshippers, to the freer, more vital, closer heart-worship of the synagogue, loaded though that also was with form, tradition, ritual and error. Here He was a regular and reverent attendant and participant (Mk 1 21.39; 3 1; 6 2; Lk 6 6). Jesus did not Himself prescribe public worship for His disciples, no doubt assuming that instinct and practice, and His own spirit and example, would bring it about sponta-neously, but He did seek to guard their worship from the merely outward and spectacular, and laid great emphasis on privacy and real "innerness" in it (Mt 6 1-18, etc). Synagogue-worship was probably not abandoned with Pentecost, but private brotherhood meetings, like that in the upper chamber, and from house to house, were added. The young church could hardly have "grown in favor with the people," if it had completely withdrawn from the popular worship, either in temple or synagogue, although no attendance on the latter is ever mentioned. Possibly the Christians drew themselves together in a synagogue of their own, as did the different nationalities. The reference in Jas: "if there come unto your synagogue" (2 2), while not conclusive, since "synagogue" may have gained a Christian significance by this time, nevertheless, joined with the traditions concerning James's ascetic zeal and popular repute, argues against such a complete separation early. Necessarily with the development into clearness of the Christian ideas, and with the heightening persecution, together with the hard industrial struggle of life, the observance of the Jewish Sabbath in temple or synagogue, and of the Christian's Lord's Day, grew incompatible. Yet the full development of this must have been rather late in Paul's life. Compare his missionary tactics of beginning his work at the synagogue, and his custom of observing as far as possible the Jewish feasts (Acts 20 16; 1 Cor 16 8). Our notions of the worship of the early church must be constructed out of the scattered notices descriptive of different stages in the history, and different churches present different phases of development. The time was clearly the Lord's Day, both by the Jewish churches (Jn 20 19.26) and by the Gr (Acts 20 7; 1 Cor 16 2). The daily meeting of Acts 2 46 was probably not continued, no mention occurring later.

There are no references to yearly Christian festivals, though the wide observance in the sub-apostolic period of the Jewish Passover, with references to the death and resurrection of Jesus, and of Pentecost to commemorate the gift of the Holy Spirit, argues for their early use. The place was of course at first in private houses, and the earliest form of Christian church architecture developed from this model rather than the later one of the basilica. 1 Cor gives rather full data for the worship in this free and enthusiastic church. It appears that there were two meetings, a public and a private. The public worship was open, informal and missionary, as well as edificatory. The unconverted, inquirers and others, were expected to be present, and were frequently converted in the meeting (1 Cor 14 24). It resembled much more closely an evangelical "prayer and conference meeting" of today than our own formal church services. There is no mention of official ministrants, though the meeting seems to have been under some loose guidance. male member was free to take part as the Spirit might prompt, esp. in the line of his particular "spiritual gift" from God, although one individual might have several, as Paul himself. Largely developed on synagogue lines, but with a freedom and spirit the latter must have greatly lacked, it was composed of: (1) Prayer by several, each followed by the congregational "Amen." (2) Praise, consisting of hymns composed by one or another of the brethren, or coming down from the earlier days of Christian, perhaps Jewish, history, like the Benedictus, the Magnificat, the Nunc dimittis, etc. Portions of these newer hymns seem to be imbedded "Worthy art thou," etc (cf Rev 15 3; 11 17, etc); also: "He who was manifested in the flesh, Justified in the spirit, Seen of angels, Preached among the nations, Believed on in the world, Received up in glory" (1 Tim 3 16). Praise also might take the form of individual testimony, not in metrical form (1 Cor 14 16). (3) Reading of the Scripture must have followed, according to the synagogue model. Paul presupposes an acquaintance with the OT Scriptures and the facts of Jesus' life, death, resurrection. Instructions to read certain epp. in the churches indicate the same. (4) Instruction, as in 1 Cor 2 7; 6 5, teaching for edification. (These passages, however, may not have this specific reference.) (5) Prophesying, when men, believed by themselves and by the church to be specially taught by the Holy Spirit, gave utterance to His message. At Corinth these crowded on one another, so that Paul had to command them to speak one at a time. (6) Following this, as some believe, came the "speaking with tongues," perhaps fervent and ejaculatory prayers "so rugged and disjointed that the audience for the most part could not understand" until some-one interpreted, The speaking with tongues, however, comprised praise as well as prayer (1 Cor 14 ever, comprised praise as well as prayer (1 Cor 14 16), and the whole subject is enshrouded in mystery. See Tongues, Giff of. (7) The meeting closed with the benediction and with the "kiss of peace."

The "private service" may have followed the other, but seems more likely to have been in the evening, the other in the morning. The disciples

met in one place and ate together a meal of their own providing, the $agap\bar{e}$, or love feast, symbolizing their union and fellowship, preceded or followed by prayers (Did., x), and perhaps interspersed by hymns. Then followed the "Lord's Supper" itself, according to the directions of the apostle (1 Cor **11** 23–28).

How far "Christian worship" was "Christian" in the sense of being directly addressed to Christ, is not easily answered. We must not read into their mental content the fully developed Christology of later centuries, but

it is hard to believe that those who had before them Thomas' adoring exclamation, "My Lord and my God!" the saying of the first martyr, "Lord Jesus, receive my spirit," the dictum of the great apostle, "Who, existing in the form of God," the utterances of He, "And let all the angels of God worship him," "Thy throne, O God, as forever and forever," and, later, the prologue of Jn, and the ascriptions of praise in the Apocalypse, could have failed to bow down in spirit before Jesus Christ, to make known their requests through Him, and to lift up their adoration in song to Him, as according to Pliny's witness, 112 AD, "they sing a hymn to Christ as God." The absolutely interchangeable way in which Paul, for mistance, applies "Lord" in one breath to the Father, to the OT Jeh, and to Jesus Christ (Rom 10 11.13; 14 4.6.8.11.12, etc) clearly indicates that while God the Father was, as He must be, the ultimate and principal object of worship, the heart and thought of God's NT people also rested with adoring love on Him who is "worthy... to receive the power and riches and wisdom, and might, and glory, and honor and blessing." The angel of the Apocalypse would not permit the adoration of the seer (Rev 22 9), but Jesus accepts the homage of Thomas, and in the Fourth Gospel declares it the duty of all to "honor the Son, even as they honor the Father" (Jn 5 23).

The classical passages for Christian worship are Jn 4 23.24, culminating in (m): "God is spirit: and they that worship him must worship in spirit and truth," and Phil 3 3, "who worship by the Spirit of God." These define its inner essence, and bar out all ceremonial or deputed worship whatever, except as the former is, what the latter can never be, the genuine and vital expression of inner love and devotion. Anything that really stimulates and expresses the worshipful spirit is so far forth a legitimate aid to worship, but never a substitute for it, and is harmful if it displaces it. Much, perhaps most, stately public worship is as significant to God and man as the clack of a Thibetan prayer-mill. The texts cited also make of worship something far deeper than the human emotion or surrender of will; it is the response of God's Spirit in us to that Spirit in Him, whereby we answer "Abba, Father," deep calling unto deep. Its object is not ingratiation, which is unnecessary, nor propitiation, which has been made "once for all," nor in any way "serving" the God who 'needeth not to be worshipped with men's hands' (Acts 17 25), but it is the loving attempt to pay our unpayable debt of love, the expression of devoted hearts, "render[ing] as bullocks the offering of our lips" (Hos 14 2). For detail it the offering of our hps" (Hos 14 2). For detail it is not a physical act or material offering, but an attitude of mind: "The sacrifices of God are a broken spirit"; "sacrifices of praise, with which God is well pleased"; not the service of form in an outward sanctuary, the presentation of slain animals, but the service of love in a life: "Present your bodies a living sacrification." sacrifice"; not material sacrifices, but spiritual: your rational "service"; not the service about an altar of stone or wood, but about the sanctuary of human life and need; for this is true religion ("service," "worship," thrēskeia), "to visit the fatherless and widows in their affliction"; not the splendor of shining robes or the sounding music of trumpets or organs, but the worshipping glory of holy lives; in real fact, "hallowing Thy name," "and keeping one-self unspotted from the world." The public worship of God in the presence of His people is a necessity of the Christian life, but in spiritual Christianity the ceremonial and outward approaches, if it does not quite reach, the vanishing point.

not quite reach, the vanishing point.

LITERATURE.—BDB; Thayer's NT Lexicon s.v.; arts. on "Praise.""Worship;""Praple,""Church,""Prayer," in HDB, DB, New Sch-Herz, DCG; comms. on Pss. Ch, Cor; Weizsäcker, The Apostolic Age of the Church, II; Pfleiderer, Das Urchristenthum (ET); Leoning, Gemeindeverfassung des Urchristenthums; Edersheim, The Temple, Its Ministry and Service, as They Were atthe Time of Jesus Christ, and Life and Times of Jesus the Messiah; Hort, The Christian Ecclesia; Lindsay, Church and the Ministry in the Early Centuries; McGiffert, A History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age.

PHILIP WENDELL CRANNELL WORSHIP, IMAGE. See IMAGES.

WORSHIP, IMAGE. See IMAGES.

WORSHIPPER, wûr'ship-er. See Temple KEEPERS: WORSHIP.

WORTHIES, wûr'thiz (אָלּיר , 'addīr, "majestic," "noble" [cf Jgs 5 13, etc]): In Nah 2 5, AV "He shall recount his worthies" (m "gallants"), ERV "He remembereth his worthies," ARV "He remembereth his nobles." As MT stands, the Assyr king hurriedly summons his commanders to repel the assault, but the passage is obscure and the text quite possibly in need of emendation.

WOT. See WIST, WITTY, WOT.

WRATH, rath, roth, rath (ANGER) (TN, 'aph, from TN, 'ānaph, "to snort," "to be angry"; ὀργή, orgé, θυμός, thumós, οργίζομαι, orgízomai): Designates various degrees of feeling, such as sadness (Ps 85 4), a frown or turning away of the face in grief or anger (2 Ch 26 19; Jer 3 12), indignation (Ps 38 3), bitterness (Jgs 18 25), fury (Est 1 12), full of anger (Gen 4 5; Jn 7 23), snorting mad (Gen 27 45; Mt 2 16).

Wrath is used with reference to both God and man. When used of God it is to be understood that there is the complete absence of that caprice and unethical quality 1. Divine so prominent in the anger attributed Wrath

to the gods of the heathen and to man. The Divine wrath is to be regarded as the natural expression of the Divine nature, which is absolute holiness, manifesting itself against the wilful, highhanded, deliberate, inexcusable sin and iniquity of mankind. God's wrath is always regarded in the Scripture as the just, proper, and natural expression of His holiness and righteousness which must always, under all circumstances, and at all costs be maintained. It is therefore a righteous indignation and compatible with the holy and righteous nature of God (Nu 11 1-10; Dt 29 27; 2 S 6 7; Isa 5 25; 42 25; Jer 44 6; Ps 79 6). The element of love and compassion is always closely connected with God's anger; if we rightly estimate the Divine anger we must unhesitatingly pronounce it to be but the expression and measure of that love (cf Jer 10 24; Ezk 23; Am 3 2).

Wrath, when used of man, is the exhibition of an enraged sinful nature and is therefore always inexcusable (Gen 4 5.6; 49 7; Prov 19 19; Job 5 2; Lk 4 28; 2 Cor 12 10; Gal 5 20; Eph 4 31; Col 3 8). It is for 2. Human this reason that man is forbidden to this reason that man is foroided to allow anger to display itself in his life. He is not to "give place unto wrath" (Rom 12 19 m), nor must he allow "the sun to go down upon his wrath" (Eph 4 26). He must not be angry with his brother (Mt 5 22), but seek agreement with him lest the judgment that whim (Mt 5 25 26). Portionary is be meted out to him (Mt 5 25.26). Particularly is

the manifestation of an angry spirit prohibited in the training and bringing up of a family (Eph 6 4; Col 3 19). Anger, at all times, is prohibited (Nu 18 5; Ps 37 8; Rom 12 19; Gal 5 19; Eph 4 26; Jas 1 19.20).

Wrath or anger, as pertaining to God, is very much more prominent in the OT than in the NT. This is to be accounted for probably because the NT magnifies the grace Wrath Con- and love of God as contrasted with His sistent with wrath; at least love is more promi-Love nent than wrath in the revelation and teaching of Christ and His apostles.

Nevertheless, it must not be thought that the element of wrath, as a quality of the Divine nature, is by any means overlooked in the NT because of the prominent place there given to love. On the

contrary, the wrath of God is intensified because of contrary, the wrath of God is intensified because of the more wonderful manifestation of His grace, mercy and love in the gift of His Son Jesus Christ as the Saviour of the world. God is not love only: He is also righteous; yea, "Our God is a consuming fire" (He 12 29); "It is a fearful thing to fall into the hands of the living God" (He 10 31). No effeminate, sentimental view of the Fatherhood of God or of His mercy and loving-kindness can exclude the manifestation of His instructure and clude the manifestation of His just, righteous and holy anger against sin and the sinner because of his transgression (1 Pet 1 17; He 10 29). One thing only can save the sinner from the outpouring of God's righteous anger against sin in the day of visitation, namely, faith in the Lord Jesus Christ as the Divinely appointed Redeemer of the world (Jn 3 36; Rom 1 16-18; 5 9). Nor should the sinner think that the postponement or the omission (or seeming omission) of the visitation of God's wrath against sin in the present means the total abolition of it in the future. Postponement is not abolition; indeed, the sinner, who continually rejects Jesus Christ and the salvation which God has provided in Him, is simply 'treasuring up' wrath for himself "in the day of wrath and revelation of the righteous judgment of God; who [one day] will render to every man according to his works: to them that . . . obey not the truth, but obey unrighteousness, wrath and indignation, tribulation and anguish, upon every soul of man that worketh evil" (Rom 2 5-9; 2 Pet 3 10; Rev 6 16.17; 16 19; 19 15). See RETRIBUTION, 5.

God's anger while slow, and not easily aroused (Ps 103 8; Isa 48 9; Jon 4 2; Nah 1 3), is to be dreaded (Ps 2 12; 76 7; 90 11; Mt 10 28); is not to be provoked (Jer 7 19; 1 Cor 10 22); when visited, in the present life, should be borne with submission (2 S 24 17; Lam 3 39.43; Mic 7 9); prayer should be earnestly made for deliverance from it (Ps 39 10; 80 4; Dnl 9 16; Hab 3 2); it should be the means of leading man to repentance (Isa 42 24.25; Jer 4 8).

Certain specific things are said esp. to arouse God's anger: continual provocation (Nu 32 14), unbelief (Ps 78 21.22; He 3 18.19), impenitence (Isa 9 13.14; Rom 2 5), apostasy (He 10 26.27), idolatry (Dt 32 19. 20.22; 2 K 22 17; Jer 44 3), sin in God's people (Ps 89 30-32; Isa 47 6), and it is manifested esp. against opponents of the gospel of Jesus Christ (Ps 2 2.3.5; 1 Thess 2 16).

There is a sense, however, in which anger is the duty of man; he is to "hate evil" (Ps 97 10). It is not enough that God's people should 4. Rightlove righteousness, they must also be

eous and angry with sin (not the sinner). A Unrighteous man who is incapable of being angry at sin is at the same time thereby ad-Anger judged to be incapable of having a real love for righteousness. So there is a sense in which a man may be said to "be angry, and sin not" (Eph 4 26). Anger at the sin and unrighteousness of men, and because their sin is grievous to God, may be called a "righteous indignation." Such an indignation is attributed to Jesus when it is said that He "looked round about on them with anger, being grieved at the hardening of their heart" (Mk 3 5). When anger arises because of this condition, it is sinless, but when anger arises because of wounded or aggrieved personality or feelings, it is sinful and punishable. Anger, while very likely to become sinful, is not really sinful in itself.

We have illustrations in the Scriptures of wrath or anger that is justifiable: Jesus (Mk 3 5), Jacob (Gen 31 36), Moses (Ex 11 8; 32 19; Lev 10 16; Nu 16; 5), Nehemiah (Neh 5 6; 13 17.25); of sinful anger: Cain (Gen 4 5.6), Esau (Gen 27 45), Moses (Nu 20 10.11), Balaam (Nu 22 27), Saul (1 8 20 30), Ahab (1 K 21 4), Naaman (2 K 5 11), Herod (Mt 2 16), the Jews (Lk 4 28), the high priest (Acts 5 17; 7 54).

WREST, rest: Found in AV and RV 3 t in the writings of Moses, viz. Ex 23 2.6; Dt 16 19. In

all three places it refers to twisting, or turning aside, or perverting judgment or justice. In Dt 24 17 RV has "wrest" where AV has "pervert." In Ps 56 5 (ΣΣ), 'āçabh); 2 Pet 3 16 (στρεβλόω,

streblóō), it refers to the word or words of God in the Scriptures. In the Pss the servant of God, who speaks in God's name, complains that the enemies "wrest," misinterpret, misapply and pervert his words. In Pet it is the ignorant and unstedfast who so pervert and misuse some of the difficult words of Paul, and they do it to their own destruction—a most earnest warning against carelessness and conscienceless indifference in interpreting Scripture.

G. H. Gerberding

WRESTLING, res'ling (ΣΣΚ, 'ābhak; πάλη, pálē). See Games II, 3, (i); JACOB; NAPHTALI.

WRINKLE, rin'k'l (DD), kāmat, "to lay hold on"; puris, rhutis, "a wrinkle"): In Job 16 8, RV substitutes, "Thou hast laid fast hold on me" (m "shrivelled me up") for AV "Thou hast filled me with wrinkles." In Eph 5 27, St. Paul's figurative reference to the church as a bride, "not having spot or wrinkle," is indicative of the perennial youth and attractiveness of the church attractiveness of the church.

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WRITING, rīt'ing:
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GENERAL

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METHODS
INSTRUMENTS
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I. General.—Writing is the art of recording thought, and recording is the making of permanent symbols. Concept, expression and

1. Definirecord are three states of the same work or word. Earliest mankind expressed itself by gesture or voice and

recorded in memory, but at a very early stage man began to feel the need of objective aids to memory and the need of transmitting a message to a distance or of leaving such a message for the use of others when he should be away or dead. For these purposes, in the course of time, he has invented many symbols, made in various ways, out of every ima-ginable material. These symbols, fixed in some substance, inward or outward, are writing as distinguished from oral speech, gesture language, or other unrecording forms of expression. In the widest sense writing thus includes, not only penmanship or chirography, but epigraphy, typography, phonography, photography, cinematography, and many other kinds of writing as well as mnemonic object writing and inward writing.

Writing has to do primarily with the symbols, but as these symbols cannot exist without being in some substance, and as they are often modified as to their form by the materials of which they are made or the instruments used in making, the history of writing has to do, not only with the signs, symbols or characters themselves, but with the material out of which they are made and the instruments and methods by which they are made.

The fact that memory is a real record is well known in modern psychology, which talks much of inward speech and inward writing.

By inward writing is commonly meant 2. Inward the inward image or counterpart of Writing visual or tangible handwriting as distinguished from the inward records of the sound of words, but the term fairly belongs to all inward word records. Of these permanent records two chief classes may be distinguished: sense records, whether the sense impression was by eye, ear, finger-tip or muscle, and motor records or images formed in the mind with reference to the motion of the hand or other organs of expression. Both sense records and motor records include the counterparts of every

We meet this inward writing in the Bible in the writing upon the tablets of the heart (Prov 3 3; 7 3; Jer 17 1; 2 Cor 3 3), which is thus not a mere figure of speech but a proper description of that effort to fix in memory which some effect by means of sound symbols and some by the sight symbols of ordinary handwriting.

imaginable kind of outward handwriting.

It has also its interesting and important bearing on questions of inspiration and revelation where the prophet "hears" a voice (Ex 19 19; Nu 7 89; Rev 19 1.2) or "sees" a vision (2 K 6 17; Isa 6; Am 7 1-9) or even sees handwriting (Rev 17 5). This handwriting not only seems "real" but is real, whether caused by external sound or vision or internal human or superhuman action.

Outward writing includes many kinds of symbols produced in various ways in many kinds of material.

The commonest kind is alphabetical 3. Outward handwriting with pen and ink on paper, Writing but alphabetic symbols are not the only symbols, the hand is not the only means of producing symbols, the pen is not the only instrument, and ink and paper are far from being the only materials.

The ordinary ways of human expression are voice and gesture. Corresponding to these there is an oral writing and a gesture writing. For the recording of vocal sounds various methods have been invented: direct carving or molding in wax or other material, or translating into light vibrations and recording these by photograph or kymograph. Both phonographic and photographic records of sounds are strictly oral writing.

The record of gestures by making pictures of them forms a large fraction of primitive picture writing (e.g. the picture of a man with weapon poised to throw) and the modern cinematography of pantomime is simply a perfected form of this primitive picture writing.

Handwriting is simply hand gesture with a mechanical

perfected form of this primitive picture writing.

Handwriting is simply hand gesture with a mechanical device for leaving a permanent record of its motion by a trail of ink or incision. In the evolution of expression the imitation of human action tends to reduce itself to sign language, where both arms and the whole body are used, and then to more and more conventionalized hand gesture. This hand gesture, refined, condensed and adapted to mechanical conditions, and provided with pencil, chisel, or pen and ink, is handwriting. Its nature is precisely analogous to that of the self-registering thermometer or kymograph.

Nearly all the great body of existing written documents, save for the relatively few modern phonographic, kymographic and other visible speech records, is handwritten, the symbols being produced, selected, arranged, or at least pointed out, by the hand. Even the so-called phonetic writing, as usually understood, is not sound record but consists of hand-gesture symbols for sounds.

. Object

II. The Symbols. - Among the many kinds of outward signs used in writing the best known are the so-called Phoen alphabet and its many derivatives, including the usual modern alphabets. Other well-known varieties are the wedge system of Assyria and Babylonia, the hieroglyphic systems of Egypt and Mexico, the Chinese characters, stenographic systems, the Morse code, the Braille system, the abacus, the notched stick, the knotted cord, wampum and twig bundles. These, however, by no means exhaust the list of signs which have been used for record or message purposes; e.g. colored flags for signaling, pebbles, cairns, pillars, flowers, trees, fishes, insects, animals and parts of animals, human beings, and images of all these things, have all served as record symbols in writing.

The various symbols may be grouped as objects and images, each of these classes divided again into pictorial or representative signs and mnemonic or conventional signs, mnemonic signs again divided into ideographic and phonetic, and phonetic again into verbal, syllabic (consonantal), and alphabetic. This may be represented graphically as follows:

OBJECTS
(1) Pictorial
(2) Conventional (Mnemonic)
(a) Ideographic (Bye Images)
(b) Phonetic (Ear Images)
(a) Verbal
(β) Syllabic
(γ) (Consonantal)
(δ) Alphabetic

(B) IMAGES
(1) Pictorial
(2) Conventional (Mnemonic)
(a) Ideographic
(b) Phonetic
(a) Verbal
(β) Syllabic
(γ) (Consonantal)
(δ) Alphabetic

Objects may be whole objects (a man) or characteristic parts (human head, arm, leg) or samples (feather or piece of fur). The objects may be natural objects or artificial objects designed for another purpose (arrow), or objects designed esp. to be used as writing symbols (colored flags). Images include images of all these objects and any imaginary images which may have been invented for writing purposes.

Pictorial or representative signs are distinguished from mnemonic or conventional signs by the fact that in themselves they suggest the thing meant, while the others require agreement beforehand as to what they shall mean. The fact, however, that the symbol is a picture of something does not make it pictorial or the writing picture writing. It is pictorial, not because it is a picture, but because it pictures something. The fact, e.g., that a certain symbol may be recognized as an ox does not make of this a pictograph. If it stands for or means and the called an ideograph, or if it stands for the letter a it is phonetic, a phonogram.

The key to the evolution of writing symbols is to be found in a law of economy. Object writing undoubtedly came first, but man early learned that the image of an object would serve as well for record purposes and was much more convenient to handle. True picture writing followed. The same law of economy led to each of the other steps from pictorial to alphabetic, and may be traced in the history of each kind and part. Every alphabet exhibits it. The history of writing is in brief a history of shorthand. It begins with the whole object or image, passes to the characteristic part, reduces this to the fewest possible strokes which retain likeness, conventionalizes these strokes, and then, giving up all pretense of likeness to the original symbol, and frankly mnemonic, it continues the process of abbreviation until the whole ox has become the letter "a" or perhaps a single dot in some system of stenography.

Object writing is not common in the phonetic stage, but even this is found, e.g., in alphabetical flags for

ship signaling. The actual historical evolution of writing seems to have been object, image-picture, ideogram, phonogram, syllable, consonant, letter. All of these stages have some echoes at least in the Bible, although even the syllabic stage seems to have been already passed at the time of Moses. The Heb OT as a whole stands for the consonantal stage and the Gr NT for the complete alphabetic—still the climax of handwriting, unless the evolution of mathematical symbols, which is a very elaborate evolution of ideographic handwriting, is so regarded. writing, is so regarded.

Although probably not even a single sentence of the Heb Bible was written in ideographic, picture, or object handwriting, many documents which are used or quoted by Bib. writers were written by these methods, and all of them are repeatedly implied. In a number of cases full exegesis requires a knowledge of their nature and history. A certain number of scholars now believe that the Pent was originally written in cuneiform, after the analogy of the circumstances shown by the Am Tab. In this case of course there would still be traces both of the syllabic and ideographic, but the theory is improbable.

The most primitive writing was naturally pictorial object writing. When the hunter first brought home his quarry, this had in it most of

the essential elements of modern hand-

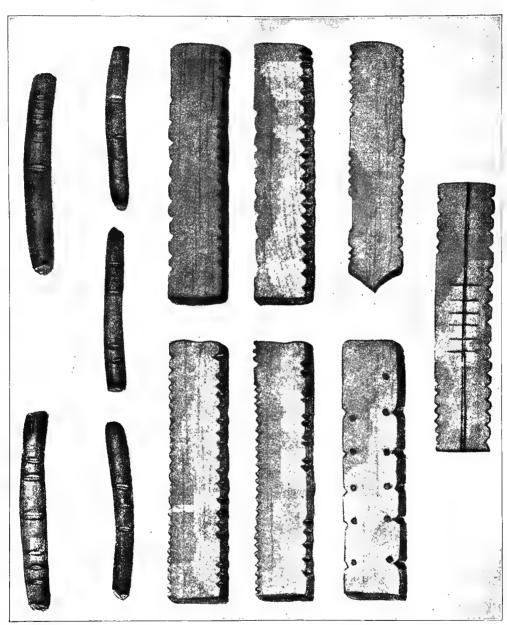
writing. Those who remained at home read in the actual bodies the Writing most essential record of the trip. When, further, the hunter brought back useless quarry to evidence his tale of prowess, the whole essence of handwriting was involved. This was whole-object record, but object abbreviations soon followed. Man early learned that skins represented whole animals (the determinative for "quadruped" in Egyp is a hide), and that a reindeer's head or antlers, or any characteristic part, served the simple purpose of record just as well as the whole object, and this method of record survives in a modern hunting-lodge. bounty on wolves' scalps and the expression "so many head of cattle" are similar survivals. In war, men returning hung the dead bodies of their enemies from the prows of their triumphal ships or from the walls of the city, and, in peace, from the gibbet, as object lessons. They soon learned, however, that a head would serve all practical purposes as well as a whole body, and the inhabitants of Borneo today practise their discovery. Then they discovered that a scalp was just as characteristic and more portable, and the scalp belt of the American Indian is the result. The ancient Egyptians counted the dead by "hands" carried away as trophies. Both objects and images tend thus to pass from the whole object to a characteristic part, then to the smallest characteristic part: from the tiger's carcase or stuffed tiger to the tiger's claw or its picture. The next or mnemonic step was taken when the simplest characteristic part was exchanged for a pebble, a twig, a notched stick, a knot, or any other object or image of an object which does not in itself suggest a tiger.

The pictorial object writing had an evolution of its own and reached a certain degree of complexity in elaborate personal adornment, in sympathetic magic, the medicine bag, the prayer stick, pillars, meteoric stones, etc, for worship, collections of liturgical objects, fetishes, votive offerings, trophies,

It reached a still higher order of complexity when it passed into the mnemonic stage represented by the abacus, the knotted cord, the notched stick, the wampum, etc. The knotted cord may be recognized in the earliest hieroglyphic signs, is found still among primitive people, and its most famous example is the Peruvian quipu. It still survives in the cardinal's hat and the custom of knotting a handkerchief for mnemonic purposes. It is found in the Bible in a peculiarly clear statement in the

mnemonic "fringes" of Nu 15 37-41 (cf Dt 22 12). The notched stick is equally old, as seen in the Australian message stick, and its best-known modern example is the tally of the British Exchequer. The abacus and the rosary are practically the lineal descendants of the pebble heap which has a con-

step may perhaps be seen in the account of the leopard-tooth necklace of an African chief described by Frobenius. In itself this was merely a complex trophy record—the tribal record of leopards slain. When, however, the chief took for his own necklace the actual trophy which some members of the tribe



MESSAGE STICKS.

crete modern counterpart in the counting with pebbles by Italian shepherd boys. It is possible that the notched message stick has its echo in Jgs 5 14 (military scribe's staff); Nu 17 1–10 (Aaron's inscribed rod), and all scepters (rods of authority) and herald's wands.

It was a very long step in the history of handwriting from object to image, from the trophy record to the trophy image record. The nature of this had won, while the hunter made a wooden model of the tooth which served him as trophy, this facsimile

2. Image
Writing
tooth became an image record. This same step from object to image is most familiar in the history of votive offerings, where the model is substituted

for the object, the miniature model for the model, and finally a simple written inscription takes the place of the model. It is seen again in sympathetic magic when little wax or clay images are vicariously buried or drowned, standing for the person to be injured, and taking the place of sample parts, such as the lock of hair or nail-parings, etc, which are used in like manner by still more primitive peoples.



The Quipu.

It was another long step in the evolution of symbols when it occurred to man that objects worn for record could be represented by paint

3. Picture
Writing

there may be in this must be carried back one step, for it is generally agreed and must naturally have been the fact that body painting preceded tattooing, which is a device for making the record permanent. The transition from the object trophy to the image on the skin might easily have come from the object causing a pressure mark on the skin. There is good reason to believe that the wearing of trophies was

the first use of record keeping.

It is of course not proved that body ornaments or body marks are the original of image writing or that trophies are the earliest writing, nor yet that models of trophies or votive offerings were the first step in image writing. It may be that the first images were natural objects recognized as resem-bling other objects. The Zuñi Indians used for their chief fetishes natural rock forms. The first step may have been some slight modification of natural stone forms into greater resemblance, such as is suggested by the slightly modified sculptures of the French-Spanish caves. Or again the tracks of animals in clay may have suggested the artificial production of these tracks or other marks, and the development of pottery and pottery marks may have been the main line of evolution. The Chinese trace been the main line of evolution. the origin of their symbols to bird tracks. smear marks of earth or firebrand or blood may have suggested marks on stone, and the marked pebbles of the Pyrenean caves may have reference to this. Or yet again the marks on the animals in the Pvrenean caves may have been ownership marks and point back to a branding of marks or a primitive tattooing by scarification.

Whatever the exact point or motive for the image record may have been, and however the transition was made, the idea once established had an extensive development which is best illustrated by the picture writing of the American Indians, though perhaps to be found in the Bushmen drawings, petroglyphs, and picture writing the world over. It is almost historic in the Sumerian and the Egyptian, whose phonetic symbols are pictographic in origin at least and whose determinatives are true pictographs.

determinatives are true pictographs.

The transition from pictorial to conventional or mnemonic takes place when the sign ceases to suggest the meaning directly, even after 4. Mnemon- explanation. This happens in two

ic Writing ways: (1) when an object or image stands for something not directly related to that naturally suggested, e.g., when a stuffed fox stands for a certain man because it is his totem, or an ox's head stands for divinity or for the sound "a," or when the picture of a goose stands

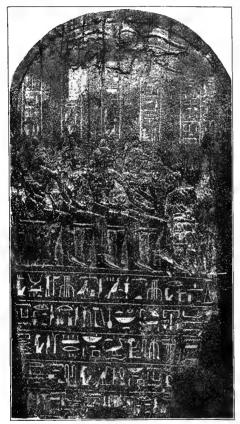


Jewish Mnemonic Fringes, 9th Century BC.

for "son" in the Egyp because the sounds of the two words are the same; (2) when by the natural process of shorthanding the object or image has been reduced beyond the point of recognition. Historically the letter a is ox (or goat?); actually it means a certain sound.

When this unrecognizable or conventional sign is intended to suggest a visual image it is called an ideogram, when an ear picture, a phonogram. Anybody looking casually over a lot of Egyp hieroglyphics can pick out kings' names because of the oval line or cartouche in which they are inclosed.

This cartouche is ideographic. On the other hand the pictures of a sun, two chicks, and a cerastes within the cartouche have nothing to do with any of these objects, but stand for the sounds kufu—who is the person commonly known as Cheops. This is phonetic.



Hieroglyphic Writing.
(Berlin Museum 822.)

Both old Bab and Egyp show signs of picture origin, but the earliest Bab is mainly ideographic, and both developed soon into the mixed stage of phonetic writing with determinatives.

Phonetic writing seems to have developed out of the fact that in all languages the same sound often has many different meanings. In 5. Phonetic Eng. "goose" may mean the fowl or Writing the tailor's goose. In Egyp the sound sa or s, with a smooth breathing, means "goose" or "son," and the picture of a goose means

either.

Whether the word-sign is an ideogram or a phonogram is a matter of psychology. Many modern readers even glimpse a word as a whole and jump to the visual image without thinking of sounds at all. To them it is an ideogram. Others, however, have to spell out the sounds, even moving their lips to correspond. To them as to the writer it is a phonogram. The same was true of the ancient picture or phonogram according to intention or to perception.

With the transition to syllabic writing, record became chiefly phonetic. The transition was made apparently by an entirely natural evolution from the practice of using the same word-sign for several different objects having the same sound, and it pro-

ceeded by the way of rebus, as shown in Mexican

and Egyp hieroglyphics.

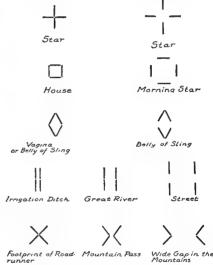
Syllable writing implies a symbol for every monosyllable. It was a great step therefore when it was discovered that the number of sounds was small and could be represented by individual symbols, as compound words could by syllable signs. At first only consonants were written. In the Sem languages vowels were at first not written at all—possibly they were not even recognized, and one might use any vowel with a particular combination of consonants. However that may be, what many prefer to call consonantal writing seems to have existed for 2,000 years before the vowels were recognized and regularly introduced into the Phoen alphabet. It is at this stage that alphabetic writing, as usually reckoned, began. See Alphabet.

Phonetic consonantal writing has now been in use some 5,000 years and strict alphabetic writing some 3,000 years, almost to the exclusion of other forms. The characters in use today in several hundred alphabets are probably the historical descendants, with accumulation of slight changes through environment, of characters existing from

near the beginning.

Alongside the development of the historic system of symbols, there has been, still within the field of alphabetic writing for the most part, a parallel line with multitudes of shorthand and cryptographic systems. An equally great multitude of code systems are in effect phonetic words or sentences and cryptographically or otherwise used for cable or telegraph, diplomatic letters, criminal correspondence and other secret purposes.

. III. Methods.—Roughly speaking, the ways of making symbols, apart from the selection of the ready-made, may be reduced to two which correspond to art in the round or in three dimensions



Word-Signs Used by Tewa Indians.

and art in the flat or in two dimensions. The former appeals to eye or touch, affording a contrast by elevation or depression, while the latter produces the same effect by contrasting colors on a flat surface.

Written symbols in three dimensions are produced either by cutting or by pressure. In the case of hard material superfluous matter is removed by sculpture, engraving or die cutting. In the case of plastic or malleable material, it is modeled, molded, hammered or stamped into the required form. To the first form belongs the bulk of stone inscriptions, ancient metal inscriptions, scratched

graffiti, wax tablets, etc, to the later clay tablets, votive figurines, seal impressions, hammered inscriptions, minted coins, also molded inscriptions, coins and medals, etc. Several of the Heb and Gr words for writing imply cutting (hākak, hārat, hārash, etc;

 $gráph\bar{o}).$

Symbols in two dimensions are produced either by drawing or printing, both of which methods consist in the applying of some soft or liquid material to a material of a contrasting color or cutting from thin material and laying on. Drawing applies the material in a continuous or interrupted line of paint, charcoal, colored chalk, graphite, ink or other material. Its characteristic product is the manuscript. This laying on is implied, as some think (Blau, 151), in the commonest Heb word for writing (kāthabh). Tattooing (Dt 14 1; Lev 19 28, etc.), embroidery (embroidered symbolic figures, Ex 28 33.34) and weaving belong in this class (embroidered words in Pal Talm 20a, qt. Blau, 165).

Printing consists in laying the contrasting color on by means of stencil or pressure, forming symbols in two dimensions at one stroke. Perhaps the most primitive form of printing is that of the pintadoes, by which the savage impresses war paint or other ceremonial forms on his face and body. Branding also belongs in this class (Gal 6 17, figuratively; 3 Mace 2 19; branding on the forehead, CH, § 127;

branding a slave, CH, §§ 226, 227).

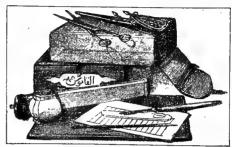
These processes of cutting, molding, drawing and printing roughly correspond with inscriptions, coins, medals, seals, manuscripts, and printed documents—epigraphy, numismatics, sigillography, chirog-

raphy, typography.

IV. Instruments.—The commonest instruments of ancient writing were the pen, brush and style. Other instruments are: the various tools for modeling, molds, stencils, dies, stamps, needles, engraving tools, compass, instruments for erasure, for the ruling of lines, vessels for ink or water, etc. Several ruling of lines, vessels for ink or water, etc. of these are mentioned and others are implied in the Bible. The chisel which cuts and the stylus which scratches are both called stylus or simply the "iron" (the iron pen). The graving tool of Ex 32 4, the iron pen of Job 19 24, the pen of Isa 8 1, the pen of iron of Jer 17 1, and, with less reason, the pencil of Isa 44 13, are all commonly interpreted as silus or style, but they are sometimes at least cutting rather than scratching tools. References to wooden tablets also imply the style, and references to clay tablets either the style proper or a similar instru-ment for pressure marks. The point of a diamond in Jer 17 1, whether it is joined with the pen of iron or not, seems to refer to the use of corundum in the engraving of precious stones. The passages which refer to blotting out (see below) or writing on papyrus (see below) or refer to an ink-horn or ink (see respective articles) imply a pen or brush rather than style, and presumably the writing of the NT implied in general a reed pen. The wide house "painted with vermilion" (Jer 22 14) implies the brush, but there is no direct evidence of its use in writing in the Bible itself. The existing ostraca from Ahab's palace are, however, done with the brush. The pencil (seredh) mentioned in Isa 44 13 certainly means some instrument for shaping, but is variously tr^d as "line" (AV), "red ochre" (RVm), and even "stilus," or "line-marking stilus" (paragraphis Aq.). The compass, often referred to in classical times, is found in Isa 44 13. The line ruler (paragraphis), referred to by Aquila (Isa 44 13), and the simple plummet as well were probably used, as in later times, for marking lines. needle is referred to in late Heb and needlework in the Bible (see III, above). The ink-horn or water vessel for moistening the dry inks is implied in all papyrus or leather writing (see Ink, Ink-horn).

The Heb term tr^d "weight of lead" in Zec 5 8, and "talent of lead" is precisely equivalent to the Gr term for the circular plate of lead (kuklomólibdos) used for ruling lines, but something heavier than the ruling lead seems meant.

Erasure or blotting out is called for in Nu 5 23,



Modern Egyptian Writing Materials.

and often figuratively (Ex 32 32.33; Rev 3 5, etc). If writing was on papyrus, this would call for the sponge rather than the penknife as an eraser, but the latter, which is used for erasure or for making reed pens, is referred to in Jer 36 23. For erasing waxed surfaces the blunt end of the style was used certainly as early as the NT times. Systematic erasure when vellum was scarce produced the palimpsest.

V. Materials.—The materials used in writing include almost every imaginable substance, mineral, vegetable, and animal: gold, silver, copper, bronze, clay, marble, granite, precious gems, leaves, bark, wooden planks, many vegetable complexes, antlers, shoulder-blades, and all sorts of bones of animals, and esp. skins. The commonest are stone, clay, metal, papyrus, paper, and leather, including vellum, and all of these except paper are mentioned in the Bible. Paper too must be reckoned with in textual criticism, and it was its invention which, perhaps more even than the discovery of printing with movable type, made possible the enormous multiplication of copies of the Bible in recent times.

Whatever may be the fact as to the first material used for record purposes, the earliest actual records

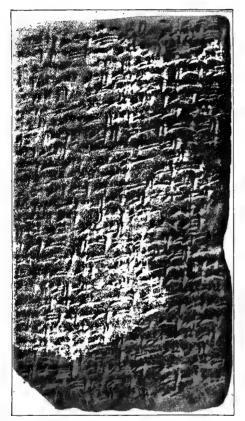
now existing in large quantities are chiefly on clay or stone, and, on the whole, clay records seem to antedate 1. Clay and surpass in quantity stone inscriptions for the earliest historical period. After making all allowances for differences in dating and accepting latest dates, there is an immense quantity of clay records written before 2500 BC and still existing. About 1400 or 1500 BC the clay tablet was in common use from Crete to the extreme East and all over Pal, everywhere, in short, but Egypt, and it seems per-haps to have been the material for foreign diplomatic communications, even in Egypt. Hundreds of thousands of these tablets have been dug up, and undoubtedly millions are in existence, dug or undug. These are chiefly of Mesopotamia. The most famous of these tablets were for a long time of the later period from the library of Ashurbanipal at Nineveh. See LIBRARY OF NINEVEH. Recently, however, those from Tell el-Amarna in Egypt, Boghaz-keui in the Hittite country, and a few from Pal itself vie with these in interest. Most of these tablets are written on both sides and in columns ruled in lines. They measure from an inch to a foot and a half in length and are about two-thirds as wide as they are long. Many of these tablets, the so-called "case tablets," are surrounded with another layer of clay with a docketing inscription. See TABLETS. Other clay forms are the potsherdostraca, now being dug up in considerable quantities in Pal. Ezekiel (4 1) and perhaps Jeremiah (17 13) refer to this material. See Ostraca.

Stones were used for record before image writing was invented—as cairns, pillars, pebbles, etc.

Many of the early and primitive image

Many of the early and primitive image

2. Stone records are on the walls of caves or on cliffs (Bushmen, American Indians, etc). Sometimes these are sculptured, sometimes



Letter from the Governor of Jerusalem about 1375 BC.

made by charcoal, paint, etc. The durability rather than the more extensive use of stone makes of these documents the richest source for our knowledge of ancient times. Besides natural stone objects, stone pillars, obelisks, statues, etc, stone-wall tablets, the sides of houses and other large or fixed surfaces, there are portable stone-chip ostraca and prepared tablets (tablets of stone, Ex 24 12; 31 18). These latter might be written on both sides (Ex 32 15). Job seems to refer to stone inscriptions (19 24). The famous trilingual inscription of Behistun which gave Rawlinson the key to the Assyrian was on a cliff and refers to King Darius (Rawlinson, Life, 58 ff, 142 ff). Two of the most famous of stone inscriptions are the Rosetta Stone, which gave the key to the Egyp hieroglyphics, and the Moabite Stone (W. H. Bennett, Moabite Stone, London, 1911), and both have some bearing on Jewish history. An esp. interesting and suggestive stone inscription is the Annals of Thutmose III of Egypt, about 1500 BC, inscribed on the walls of the temple at Karnak. This gives a long account of campaigns in Syria and Pal (Breasted, Ancient Records of Egypt, 163-217). The Siloam Inscription, and in general all the recently discovered in

scriptions of Pal, have their more or less important bearings on Bib. history (Lidzbarski, *Handb.* and *Ephem.*). Moses provided (Dt **27** 2–8) for writing the Law on stone (or plaster), and Joshua executed the work (Josh **8** 21.32).

Another form of record on stone is the engraving of gems, which is referred to in Ex 28 9.11.21; 39

6.14, etc, and possibly Zec 3 9.

One of the commonest materials, on account of

of Phil., XXXIII, 1912, 303-4).

the ease of engraving, probably, is lead. Used more or less for inscriptions proper, it is also used for diplomatic records and even literary works. It was very commonly used for charms in all nations, and is referred to in Job (19 24), where it perhaps more likely means a rock inscription filled with lead, rather than actual leaden tablets. For the text of Ps 80 on lead see Gardthausen, p. 26. Submergence curses were usually of lead, but that of Jer 51 62 seems to have been of papyrus or paper (cf W. S. Fox in Am. Jour.

Siloam Inscription. Writing at Jerusalem at the Time of Hezekiah.

Bronze was used for several centuries BC, at least for inscribed votive offerings, for public records set up in the treasuries of the temples and 4. Bronze for portable tablets such as the military diplomas. In the time of the Maccabees public records were engraved on such tablets and set up in the temple at Jerus (1 Macc 14 27). There were doubtless many such at the time when Jesus Christ taught there.

Gold and silver as writing material are most commonly and characteristically used in coins and medals. References to money, mostly

5. Gold and silver money, are numerous in the OT, Silver but these are not certainly coins with alphabetic inscriptions. In NT times coins were so inscribed, and in one case at least the writing upon it is referred to—"Whose is this image and superscription?" (Mt 22 20). The actual inscription and the actual form of its letters are

known from extant specimens of the denarius of the period. See Money.

The use of the precious metals for ordinary inscriptional purposes was, however, frequent in antiquity, and the fact that rather few such inscriptions have survived is probably due to the value of the metal for other purposes. The Hittite treaty of Khetasar or Hattusil engraved on silver and sent to the king of Egypt, has long been known from the Egyp monuments (tr in Breasted, Ancient Records of Egypt, III, 165-74), and recently fragments of the Hittite version of this treaty have been discovered at Boghaz-keui (Winckler, MDOG, XXXV, 12 ff). This has very close relations to Bib. history, whether it was made before or after the Exodus. The famous Orphic gold tablets (Harrison, "Orphic Tablets," in Prolegomena to the Study of Gr Religion, 573-600, 660-74) have a bearing on a comparative study of Bib. doctrine. Direct reference to engraving on gold is found in the account of the inscription on the high priest's miter (Ex 28 36). Writing on the horns of the altar is referred to in Jer 17 1, and these horns too were of gold (Ex 30 3). Queen Helena of Adiabene is said to have presented an inscribed gold tablet to the temple at Jerus (Blau, 67). The golden shrines of Ptolemy V

—with their inscribed golden phylacteries—are mentioned on the Rosetta Stone.

Silver, and more esp. gold, have also been very extensively used for the laying on of contrasting colors, either furnishing the background or more often the material laid on. The history of chrysography is a long and full one (Gardthausen, I, 214–17; Blau, 13, 159–63). The standard copy of the OT at Jerus, which was loaned to Alexandria, was apparently in gold letters (Jos, Ant. XII, ii, 10) (see Septiagnam), and many of the famous Bib. MSS of the Middle Ages were written wholly or in part with gold, either laid on as gold leaf or dissolved and used as an ink or paint (Gardthausen, 216).

Leaves of trees were early used for charms and writing. Some of the representations of writing on the Egyp monuments show the goddess of writing inscribing the leaves of growing trees. Jewish tradition (Tosephta' Gittin 2 3-5; Mish Gittin 2 3, etc., qt. Blau, 16) names many kinds of leaves on which a bill of divorcement (Dt 24 1.3) might or might not be written. Reference to the use of leaves is found in early Gr, Lat and Arab. sources—and they are still used in the East.

Bark also has often been used: both liber in Lat and "book" in Eng., according to some, are thought to refer to the bark of the lime or beech tree, and birch bark was a common writing material among the American Indians. It is in the form of wrought wood, staves, planks or tablets, however, that wood was chiefly known in historical times. These wood tablets were used in all early periods and among all nations, esp. for memorandum accounts and children's exercises. Sometimes the writing was directly on the wood, and sometimes on wood coated with wax or with chalk. See TABLETS. Writing on staves is referred to in Nu 17 2. Mk 15 26 seems perhaps to imply that the "superscription" of the cross was on wood, unless Jn 19 19 contradicts this.

Woven linen as a writing substance had some fame in antiquity (libri lintei), and many other fibers which have been used for woven or embroidered writing are, broadly speaking, of wood. So too, in fact, when linen or wood is pulped and made into paper, the material is still wood. Most modern writing and printing is thus on wood. See 10, below.

Diogenes Laertius (vii.174) tells that Cleanthes wrote on the shoulder-blades of oxen, but he was preceded by the cave-dwellers of the

preceded by the cave-dwellers of the Neolithic age, who wrote on reindeer horns and bones of many kinds (Déchelette, Arch. préhist., 1908, 125, 220–37, et passim). Ivory has often been used and was a

et passim). Ivory has often been used and was a favorite material for tablets in classical times. The LXX translates "ivory work" of Cant 5 14 as "ivory tablets." Horns are given in late Heb (Tōṣephtā', qt. Blau, 16) as a possible material for writing. They have been used at all times and are well illustrated in modern times by the inscribed powder horns.

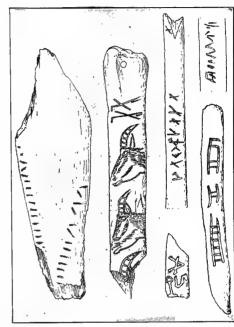
The hides of living animals have served for branding, and living human skin for painting, branding and tattooing extensively in all lands and all times. The literature of ceremonial painting and tattooing is very extensive, and the branding of slaves was common in many lands. See Printing.

The use of skins prepared for writing on one side (leather) was early and general, dating back as far at least as the IVth Dynasty of Egypt. The Annals of Thutmose III in Pal were written on rolls of leather. Its use was common also in Persia (Diodorus ii.32; Herod. v.58; Strabo xv.1), and it was a natural universal material. It has been much used by modern American Indians. It was the usual material of early Heb books, and the official copies at least of the OT books seem always to have

been written on this material (Blau, 14-16), and are so, indeed, even to the present day.

Vellum is simply a fine quality of leather prepared for writing on both sides. The autographs of the NT were most likely written on papy
8. Vellum rus, rather than leather or vellum, but

8. Vellum rus, rather than leather or vellum, but most of the earliest codices and all, until recent discoveries, were on this material, while



Signs of the Cave-Dwellers.

very few of the long list of MSS on which the NT text is founded are on any other material. This material is referred to as parchment by St. Paul (2 Tim 4 13). Almost every kind of skin (leather or vellum) has been used for writing, including snake skin and human skin. The palimpsest is second-hand or erased vellum, written upon again. See Parchment; Parchments.



Papyrus Marsh with Boat (Bulrushes and Boat of Bulrushes).

Papyrus was not only the chief of the vegetable materials of antiquity, but it has perhaps the longest record of characteristic general 9. Papyrus use of anything except stone. The papyrus was made from a reed cultivated chiefly in Egypt, but having a variety found also in Syria, according to Theophrastus. The

papyrus reed grows in the marshes and in stagnant pools; is at best about the thickness of one's arm, and grows to the height of at most from 12 to 15 feet. It was probably a pool of these papyrus reeds ("flags") in which Moses was hidden (Ex 3 3), and the ark of bulrushes was evidently a small boat or chest made from papyrus reeds, as many of the Egyp boats were. These boats are referred to in Isa 18 2.

Papyrus was made by slicing the reed and laying the pieces crosswise, moistening with sticky water, and pressing or pounding together. The breadth of the manufactured article varied from 5 in., and under, to 9½ in., or even to a foot or a foot and a half. The earliest Egyp papyrus ran from 6 to 14 in. Egyp papyri run to 80, 90 and even 135 ft. in length, but the later papyri are generally from 1 to 10 ft. long. The use of papyrus dates from before 2700 BC at latest.

Many Bible fragments important for textual criticism have been discovered in Egypt in late years. These, together with the light which other papyri throw on Hellenistic Gr and various paleographical and historical problems, make the study of papyri, which has been erected into an independent science, one of very great importance as to Bib. history and Bib. criticism (cf Mitteis u. Wilcken, Grundzüge d. Papyruskunde, Leipzig, 1912, 2 vols in 4). It has been argued from Jer 36 23 that the book which the king cut up section by section and threw on the fire was papyrus. argument is vigorously opposed by Blau (14, 15), but the fact of the use of papyrus seems to be confirmed by the tale that the Romans wrapped the Jewish school children in their study rolls and burned them (Ta'ănīth 69a, qt. Blau, 41). Leather would have been poor burning material in either case. Certainly "papyrus" is freely used by the LXX translators and the word biblion is (correctly) trd by Jerome (Tob 7 14) by charta. It is referred to in 2 Jn ver 12, "paper and ink," as the natural material for letter-writing. See Papyrus, Papyri.

The introduction of paper was from Western Asia, possibly in the 8th cent., and it began to be used in Europe commonly from the 10. Paper 13th cent. While few Western MSS of any importance are on paper, many of the Eastern are. It was the invention of paper, in large measure, which made possible the immense development in the multiplication of books, since the invention of printing, and the enormous number of Bibles now in existence.

Of the many materials used in order to lay one contrasting color on another, the flowing substances,

paint and ink, are commonest. 11. Ink general throughout antiquity the ink was dry ink and moistened when need-Quite early, however, the liquid ed for writing. inks were formed with the use of gall nut or acid, and many recipes and formulas used during the Middle Ages are preserved. See Ink, Ink-Horn. The reading of a palimpsest often depends on the kind of ink originally used and the possibility of

reviving by reagents.

VI. Forms.—The best known ancient forms of written documents are the tablet or sheet, the roll, the diploma and the codex. These may be analyzed into one-face documents and many-faced documents—page documents and leaf documents. The roll, the diploma and the usual folding tablet or pleated document are forms of the one-page document, while the codex or bound book (Eng. "volume") is the typical leaf document. The roll is the typical form of the OT, the codex of the NT, extant MSS.

A book as regards its material form consists of a single limited surface suited for writing, or a succession of such surfaces. This single surface may be the face of a cliff or house wall, a broken piece of

pottery, a leaf, a sheet of lead, papyrus, vellum or paper, a tablet of clay, stone or wood, a cylinder, prism, cone, pyramid, obelisk, statue or any one of the thousands of inscribed objects found among votive offerings. The typical form is the flat surface to which the term "tablet" or "sheet" is applied, and which is called "page" or "leaf" according as one or both surfaces are in mind.

one or both surfaces are in mind.

These single flat leaves are characteristically quadrilateral, but may be of any shape (circular, oval, heartshaped, etc) or of any thickness, from the paper of an Oxford Bible or equally thin gold foil up to slabs of stone many inches thick.

When the document to be written is long and the sheet becomes too large for convenient handling, space may be gained by writing on both sides or by making still larger and either folding or rolling, on the one hand, or breaking or cutting up into a series of smaller sheets, on the other. This folding or rolling of the large sheet survives still in folded or rolled maps and the folded or rolled documents (diplomas) of mediaeval and modern archives. The use of the tablet series for long works instead of one overgrown tablet was early—quite likely as early as the time of actual writing on real "leaves."

These smaller tablets or sheets were at first, it would seem, kept together by numbering (cf Dziatzko, Ant. Buchw., 127), catchwords, tying in a bundle, or gathering in a small box (capsa). This has indeed its analogy with the mnemonic twig bundle of object writing. The Pent gets its name from the five rolls in a box, jar, or basket (Blau, 65; Birt, Buchrolle, 22).

The next step in the evolution of book forms was taken when the various leaves or sheets were fastened to each other in succession, being strung,

pasted or hinged together.

The stringing together is as early and primitive as the leopard-tooth trophy necklace of the African chief or the shell and tooth necklaces of quaternary Europe (Déchelette, Arch., 208-9). It was perhaps used with annual tablets in the first dynasties of Egypt and is found in oriental palm-leaf books today.

The roll consists normally of a series of one-surface sheets pasted or sewed together. Even when

made into a roll before writing upon, 1. The Roll the fiction of individual tablets was maintained in the columns (deleths, Jer 36 23="doors"). It was the typical book form of antiquity. It was commonly of leather, vellum, papyrus, and sometimes of linen. It might rarely be as much as 135 ft. long \times $1\frac{1}{2}$ ft. wide for papyrus, and leather rolls might be wider still. It was the form traditionally used by the Hebrews, and was undoubtedly the form used by Our Lord in the synagogue. It is still used in the synagogue. It was possibly the form in which the NT books also were written, but this is much more doubtful.

The roll form is founded on the one-surface tablet, and, as a matter of fact, neither leather nor papyrus was well suited to take ink on the back; it developed from the sewing together of skins and the pasting together of sheets of papyrus. Although papyrus is found written on both sides, it is in general not the same document on the back, but the old has been destroyed and utilized as waste paper. This writing on both sides of the roll (opisthography) is referred to in Ezk 2 10 (Rev 5 1), where the roll is written within and without.

Wood and metal tablets, not being flexible, could not be rolled, but were hinged and became diptychs,

triptychs, polyptychs. The typical method of hinging these tablets in 2. The Codex Rom times was not the codex or modern book form proper, where all are hinged by the same edge, but a folding form based on a series of one-surface tablets hinged successively so as to form a chain (Gardthausen, Gr Pal, I, 129, fig. 12). They were strictly folding tablets, folding like an accordion, as in some Far

Eastern MSS of recent times. The modern hinging was used but rarely.

It is commonly said that it was this folding or hinged wooden tablet which produced the codex of the Latins and the "book" of modern Germanic races. Some, however, prefer to trace the origin to the folded document. The wood or waxed tablet was commonly used in antiquity for letters, but even more commonly the sheet of papyrus or vellum. It is quite natural to fold such a sheet once to protect the writing. Whether this was suggested by the diptych, or vice versa, the form of a modern sheet of note paper was early introduced. Either the diptych or the folded single sheet may have suggested the codex.

Whether the first codices were wood and metal or

suggested the codex.

Whether the first codices were wood and metal or papyrus and vellum, the hinging at one edge, which is the characteristic, is closely connected with the double-(or multiple-) face tablet. With suitable material the simplest way of providing space, if the tablet is too small, is to turn over and finish on the back. The clay tablets lend themselves readily to writing on both sides, but not to hinging. It developed, however, to a certain degree the multiple-face idea by use of prisms, pyramids, hexagonal and other cylinders, but it was early forced into the numbered series of moderate-sized tablets.

Wood and metal tablets would be hinged but the

hexagonal and other cylinders, but it was early forced into the numbered series of moderate-sized tablets.

Wood and metal tablets would be hinged, but the wood tablets were too bulky and metal tablets too heavy for long works, and the ring method of joining actually led away from the book to the pleated form. Papyrus and leather, however, while they might be used (as they were used) as single tablets were thin enough to allow of a long work in a single codex. They soon developed, therefore, perhaps through the folded sheet, into the codex proper and the modern bound book. The codex, as Thompson remarks, was destined to be the recipient of Christian literature, as the papyrus roll had been the basis of the pagan literature, and there is some evidence to show that the form was, historically, actually developed for the purposes of the Christian writings, and in papyrus, while the pagan papyri continued to be in roll form. Since the invention of the codex is placed at the end of the 1st cent., and the earliest codices were esp. the NT writings, there is a certain possibility that at least the historical introduction of the codex was in the NT books, and that its invention comes perhaps from combining the NT epistles on papyrus into a volume. In the West at least the roll is, however, the prevailing form of the NT until the 3d or 4th cent. (Birt, Buchrolle, passim).

VII. Writing.—The chief Heb words for the pro-

VII. Writing.—The chief Heb words for the professional "writer" are \$\sigma p h \tilde{e}r\$ and \$sh\sigma tilde{e}r\$, both akin to Assyr words for "writing" and used

1. Writers also for kindred officers. The word \$\overline{s}\overline{p}\overline{e}\overline{r}\$ seems closely connected with the \$\overline{e}\overline{p}\overline{r}\$ pher, "book," and with the idea of numbering. This official is a military, mustering or enrolling officer (Jgs 5 14; 2 Ch 26 11; 2 K 25 19), a numbering or census officer for military purposes or for taxation (Isa 33 18)—and a royal secretary (2 S 8 17).

The shōtēr appears as a herald (Dt 20 5.8; Josh 1 10; 3 2), as overseer of the brick-making in Egypt, and as overseer of the outward business of Israel (1 Ch 26 29). He is associated with the elders (Nu 11 16; Dt 29 10 [Heb 9]; 31 28; Josh 8 33; 23 2; 24 1) or with the judges (Josh 8 33; 23 2; 24 1; Dt 16 18).



Scribes with Utensils.

The two terms are often, however, used together as of parallel and distinct offices (2 Ch 26 11; 34 13). If any such distinction can be made, it would seem that the $s\bar{o}ph\bar{e}r$ was originally the military scribe and the $sh\bar{o}t\bar{e}r$ the civil scribe, but it is better to say that they are expressed to the same and sould be used. "evidently . . . synonymous terms and could be used of any subordinate office which required ability to write." (Cheyne in EB). There seem to have been at least 70 of these officers at the time of the Exodus, and by inference many more (Nu 11 16), and 6,000 Levites alone in the time of David (1 Ch 23 4) were "writers."

Another kind of professional scribe was the tiph-

sār (Jer 51 27, "marshal"; Nah 3 17 m), or tablet writer, a word apparently directly borrowed from the Assyr. This too seems to be a real synonym for both of the other words. In brief, therefore, all three terms mean scribe in the Egyp or Assyr sense, where the writer was an official and the official necessarily a writer.

Still another word, rendered in RV as "magicians," is rendered in its margin as "sacred scribe" (hartōm). This word being derived from the stilus recalls the close connection between the written charm and magic. None of these words in the OT refers directly to the professional copyist of later times whose business was the multiplication of copies.

Sayce argues from the name Kiriath-sepher that there was a university for scribes at this place, and according to 1 Ch (2 55) there were Kenite families

of professional scribes at Jabez.

The professional scribe, writing as an amanuensis, is represented by Baruch (Jer 36 4) and Tertius (Rom 16 22), and the calligraphist by Ezra (Ezr **7** 6). In later times the scribe stood for the man of learning in general and esp. for the lawyer.

It would seem that Moses expected that kings should write with their own hands (Dt 17 18; 31 24), and the various letters of David (2 S 11 15), Jezebel (1 K 21 9), the king of Aram (2 K 5 5), Jehu (2 K 10 2.6), Jeremiah (ch 29), Elijah (2 Ch 21 12-15), the letters of the Canaanite and Hittite princes to one another in the Am Tab and Boghazkeui tablets, etc, while they may sometimes have been the work of secretaries, were undoubtedly often by the author. For the prevalence of handwriting in Bib. times and places see LIBRARY. Its prevalence in OT times may be compared perhaps to the ratio of college graduates in modern life. NT times the ratio was probably much greater, and it appears not only that Zacharias, the priest, and the educated St. Paul and St. Luke could write, but even the poorer apostles and the carpenter's Son. It is assumed that all of a certain rich man's debtors could write (Lk 16 7). This general literacy was due to the remarkable public-school system of the Jews in their synagogues, which some good Jewish scholars (Klostermann, qt. Krauss, Talmud. Archaeol., III, 336, n.1) trace as far back as Isaiah. In Vespasian's time it is said there were in Jerus alone 480 synagogues each with its school, and the law that there must be primary schools in every city dates at latest (63-65 AD) from this time and more likely from 130 BC. The compulsory public-school law of Simeon ben Setach (c 70 BC), although it has been labeled mythical, is nevertheless entirely credible, in view of the facts as they appear in NT times and in Jos. The tale that there were in NT times are often the fall of Long had accorded full this Bether, after the fall of Jerus had crowded full this seat of learning, "400 synagogues each with 400 teachers and 400 pupils," carries fiction on its face, but there is little doubt that there were public schools long before this in nearly every town of Pal and compulsory education from the age of 6 or 7 (cf Krauss, III, ch xii, "Schule," 119–239, 336–58).

Writing in the Heb as in Sem languages in general except Ethiopic is from right to left and in Gr from

left to right as in modern western usage. On the one hand, however, writing Art some Sabaean inscriptions and, on the other hand, a number of early Gr in-

scriptions are written alternately, or boustrophedon, and suggest the transition from Sem to western style. The earlier Gr MSS did not separate the words, and it is inferred from text corruptions that the earliest Heb writing did not. As early as the Mesha and Siloam inscriptions, the dot was used to separate words, and the vertical stroke for the end of a sen-Vowel points were introduced somewhere tence.

from the 5th to the 8th cent. AD by the Massoretes. but are not allowed even now in the synagogue rolls. Some of the inscriptions employ the Palestinian or Tiberian system of vowel points, and others the Bab (above the line). Accents indicate not only stress but intonation and other relations. soon after Ezra's day, and before the LXX tr, the matter of writing the Bib. books had become one of very great care, the stipulations and the rules for careful correction by the authorized text being very strict (Blau, 185-87). The MSS were written in columns (doors), and a space between columns, books, etc, was prescribed, as also the width of the column. All books were ruled. Omitted words must be interlined above. The margins were frequently used for commentaries. For size, writing on the back, etc, see above, and for the use of ab-breviations, reading, punctuation, etc, see Blau, Gardthausen, Thompson, the Introductions to textual criticism and the arts. on textual criticism in this Encyclopaedia.

VIII. History of Biblical Handwriting.—Mythologically speaking the history of handwriting dates from the beginning when the Word

1. Mythological is a series of heavenly tablets, the handwriting of God, as conceived by the tablet-using Babylonians, or a scroll

in the thought of prophets, the NT writers, and the rabbis. Whether the idea that "the heavens declare the glory of God," etc (Ps 19 1-4), refers to this notion or not, it was one extensively developed and practised in the science of astrology. In any event the doctrine of the Creator-Word reaches deep into the psychology of writing as a tangible record of invisible words or ideas, and this philosophizing stretches some 3,000 years or so back of the Christian era.

For writing among the gods in the mythologies of non-Bib. religions, see Book; Lierary.

When and why the very simplest kind of writing began to be used has been the subject of much conjecture. The Enc Brit (XVI, 445)

jecture. The Enc Brit (XVI, 445)

2. Earliest suggests that "the earliest use of inscribed or written signs was for important religious and political transactions kept by priests in temples," but the memorial pillar is older than the temple, and the economic or social record is perhaps older than the sacred, although this is less clear. Three things seem rather probable: (1) that the first records were number records, (2) that they concerned economic matters—although it is not excluded that the occasion for first recording economic matters was religious, (3) that they were not used memorially for important transactions, but rather as utilitarian

or business records.

The original mnemonic record was probably a number record. The Heb words for "book" and "word" both seem to mean a setting down of one thing after another, and various words in various other languages point in the same direction, as do also in a general way the nature of the primitive situation and the evidences of history. Many of the oldest records are concerned with numbers of animals. Immense quantities of very old Sumerian records are simply such lists, and the still earlier cave drawings (whether they have numbers or not) are at least drawings of animals. One use of the primitive quipu was for recording sales of different kinds of animals at market, and the twig bundle and notched records are in general either pure number records or mnemonic records with a number base. What these animal records were for is another matter. If they were records of ownership for mere tally purposes (a natural enough purpose, carrying back even to hunting trophies) the use was purely economic, but as a matter of fact the early Bab lists seem generally to have been temple records, and even the cave records are commonly thought to be associated with religion. The early Egyp lists too have religious associations, and the somewhat later records are largely concerned with endowment of temples or at least temple lists of offerings—votive offerings or sac-

rifices. This points perhaps to a religious origin and possibly leads back to the very first felt need of records for a tithing for religious purposes. But it may equally lead to the sharing of spoils socially rather than religiously, although the history of the common meal and sacrifice shared by worshippers points to a very early religious sanction for the problem of equitable sharing of spoils, and it may have been precisely at this point

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Common Egyptian Writing in the Time of Abraham.

and for this purpose that number record was invented. However that may be, the evidence seems to point to a number-record origin even back of the cave drawings (which are said to be chiefly of domestic rather than wild animals) at a period variously figured as from 6,000 or 8,000 years ago, more or less, to millions of years ago.

The pseudepigraphic books of the OT variously represent writing as invented and first practised by Jeh, Adam, Cain, or Seth. Taking

Jeh, Adam, Cain, or Seth. Taking the Bib. narrative as it stands, the earliest allusion to true writing is the sign of Cain (Gen 4 15), if indeed this refers to a body mark, and particularly if it has analogy with the "mark upon the forehead" of the Book of Rev (17 5; cf 13 16; 14 1) and the tattoo marks of ownership or tribal marks of primitive tribes, as is thought by many.

The setting of the rainbow as a permanent sign (Gen 9 12-17) for a permanent covenant is quite in line with the recognized mnemonic writing. Noah's building of an altar had the same character if it was built for a permanent memorial. More obviously akin to this primitive form of writing was, however, the dedication of a memorial altar or pillar as a memorial of a particular event in a particular place, as in Jacob's pillar (Gen 28 18.22).

For perhaps 2,000 years before Abraham, image writing had been practised in both Babylonia and Egypt, and for more than 1,000 years a very highly developed ideographic and phonetic writing had been in use. There were millions of cuneiform documents existing in collections large and small in Babylonia when he was there, and equal quantities of hieroglyphic and hieratic papyri, leather and skin documents in Egypt when he visited it. See Book; Library; Hammurabi, Code of.

Abraham himself presumably used cuneiform writing closely parallel to the writing on Hammurabi's statue. A similar script was presumably also used by his Hittite allies. In Egypt he met with the hieroglyphics on the monuments, but for business and common use the so-called hieratic cursive forms were already developed toward, if not well into, the decided changes of the middle hieratic period (c 2030–1788 BC; cf Möller, *Hierat*. Palaeog., VI, 1909, 3, etc). It is a question whether the boundary heap, which Laban "called" the heap of witness in Aram. and Jacob by the same name in Heb, was inscribed or not, but, if inscribed, both faces or lines of the bilingual inscription were pre-sumably in cuneiform characters. The cuneiform remained, probably continuously, the prevailing script of Syria and Pal until about 1300 BC, and until, some time well before 1000, the old Sem alphabet began to be employed.

The question of the relation of the writing in Mosaic times and in the time of the Judges to the cuneiform or the hieratic on the one side and the alphabet on the other is too much mixed up with the question of the Pent to allow of much dogmatiz-Some scholars are convinced that the Pent was written in cuneiform characters if not in the The old Sem-Gr, "Phoenician, Bab language. alphabet was, however, probably worked out in the Palestinian region between 1400 and 1100 BC (wherever the Hebrews may have been at this time), and it remained the Heb writing until the introduction of the square characters. See Alphabet.



·Common Egyptian Writing during the Bondage.

At the beginning of the Christian era there had been a long period of the use of Gr among the educated, and long before the NT was written there was a large body of Palestinian-Gr and Egyp-Gr literature. Latin for a time also had been used, more or less, officially, but the Aram., development of whose forms may be well traced from about 500

BC in the inscriptions and in the Elephantine papyri, was the prevailing popular writing. Gr remained long the language of the educated world. It was after 135 AD that R. Simeon ben Gamaliel was said to have had 500 students in Heb (New Heb) and 500 in Gr (Krauss, III, 203).

לרן כלנתה צרה כלנתה

MHOENAANJOFENHEIZITO

CERVICIBUILITIDE MOLL

Three Writings in Common Use in Palestine in Gospel Times: First, Aramaic; Second, Greek; Third, Latin.

Latin, Gr, and Aram. (New Heb) characters were all needed for the inscription on the cross. Heb had at this time certainly passed into the square form long enough ago to have had $y\bar{o}dh$ pass into proverb as the smallest letter (jot) of the alphabet (Mt 5 18). Through the abundance of recent papyrus and inscriptional discoveries, it is now possible to trace the history of the varying forms of the bookhand and cursive Gr letters, and even of the Latin letters, for several centuries on either side of the year of Our Lord and up to the time of the longer known manuscripts (see works of Gardthausen and Thompson). One may get in this way a good idea of how the most famous of all trilingual inscriptions may have looked as to its handwritinghow in fact it probably did look, jotted down as now in fact it probably did fook, jotted down as memorandum by Pilate, and how transcribed on the cross, assuming that Pilate wrote the Rom cursive (Thompson, facs. 106 [AD 41], 321), and the clerks a fair epigraphic or rather for this purpose perhaps bookhand Greek (Thompson, facs. 8 [AD 1], 123; Latin, facs. 83 [AD 79], 276). See TITLE.

Latin, facs. 83 [AD 79], 276). See TITLE.

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E. C. RICHARDSON

X

XANTHICUS, zan'thi-kus (Εανθικός, Xanthi-kός): The name of a month which occurs in 2 Macc 11 30.33.38. It corresponds to Niṣan (April) of the Jewish calendar. See Calendar; Time; Year.

XERXES, zērks'ēz: The name is an attempt to transliterate into Gr (Ξέρξης, Χέτχēς) the Pers Khshayārshā. The same word in unpointed Heb took the form 'ħṣhwrsh, probably pronounced 'ħṣhāwārash, but at a later time it was wrongly vocalized so as to produce 'ἄḥashwērōsh (צְּחַשְׁיֵרְרִישׁׁיִ), whence "Ahasuerus" in EV.

Xerxes was king of Persia in 485-465 BC. The

first part of his reign was marked by the famous campaign into Greece, beginning in 483. After the defeat at Salamis in 480 Xerxes himself withdrew from the expedition and it was finally discontinued in the next year. During the remainder of his reign, Xerxes seems to have spent a listless existence, absorbed in intrigues of the harem, and leaving the government to be carried on by his ministers and favorites (often slaves). He was finally murdered by his vizier and left an unenviable reputation for caprice and cruelty.

For the various Bib. references see Ahasuerus.
Burton Scott Easton

Y

YARN, yärn. See Linen; Spinning; Weaving.

YEA, yā (\(\text{TK}\), 'aph, "also," "moreover," "yea" [1 S 21 5 AV; 24 11, etc], \(\text{D2}\), gam, "also," "likewise," "moreover," "yea" [2 K 2 3; 1. In the 16 3, etc], \(\text{D2}\), \(\text{k7}\), "inasmuch," "certainly," "doubtless," "yea" [Ps 102 13; 105 12, etc]): Each of these words occurs frequently, esp. the first two.

YEAR, yēr (שְׁלֵּהְ , shānāh, Aram. אָרָה , shēnah, "a return" [of the sun], like the Gr פֿעוּמעוֹסָּ, פּמוֹמעוֹסָּ, yāmīm, "days," is also used for "year," and the Gr אָּשִּבְּּהָם, hēmērai, corresponds to it [Josh 13 1; Lk 1 7.18]; פֿרס, פֿנס, is also employed frequently in the NT; for the difference between etos and eniautos, see Grimm-Thayer, s.v.): The Heb year was solar, although the month was lunar, the adjustment being made in intercalation. See ASTRONOMY; Time.

YEARS, SEVENTY. See SEVENTY YEARS.

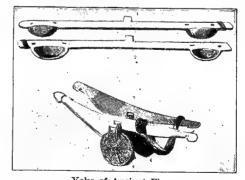
YELLOW, yel'ō. See Colors.

YODH, yōd, yōth (†): The 10th letter of the Heb alphabet; transliterated in this Encyclopaedia

as y. It came also to be used for the number 10. See Jop, and for name, etc, see Alphabet.

YOKE, yōk:

(1) The usual word is עולל, 'ਹੈl (Gen 27 40, etc), less commonly the (apparently later) form אַרְטָּה mōtāh (Isa 58 6, etc; in Nah 1 13 אַרָטָה, mōt), which RV in Jer 27, 28 translates "bar" (a most needless and obscuring change). The Gr in Apoc



Yoke of Ancient Plow.
1, 2. Back and front of yoke. 3. Shoulder pieces. 4, 4. Matting to prevent friction of shoulders.

(Sir 28 19, etc) and in the NT (Mt 11 29 f, etc) is invariably fuyls, zugls. Egyp monuments show a yoke that consisted of a straight bar fastened to the foreheads of the cattle at the root of the horns, and such yokes were no doubt used in Pal also; but the more usual form was one that rested on the neck (Gen 27 40, etc). It was provided with straight "bars" (mōṭōth in Lev 26 13; Ezk 34 27) projecting downward, against which the shoulders

of the oxen pressed, and it was held in position by thongs or "bonds" ($m\bar{o}_{\bar{s}}\bar{e}r\bar{o}th$ in Jer 2 20; 5 5; 27 2; 30 8; 'åghudd $\bar{o}th$ in Isa 58 6, "bands"), fastened under the animals' throats. Such yokes could of course be of any weight (1 K 12 4 ff), depending on the nature of the work to be done, but the use of "iron yokes" (Dt 28 48; Jer 28 13 f) must have been very rare, if, indeed, the phrase is anything more than a figure of speech.

What is meant by "the yoke on their jaws" in Hos 11 4 is quite obscure. Possibly a horse's bit is meant; possibly the phrase is a condensed form for "the yoke that prevents their feeding"; possibly the text is corrupt. See Jaw.

The figurative use of "yoke" in the sense of "servitude" is intensely obvious (cf esp. Jer 27, 28). Attention needs to be called only to Lam 3 27, where "disciplining sorrow" is meant, and to Jer 5 5, where the phrase is a figure for "the law of God." This last use became popular with the

Lydia, Epaphroditus, each of whom had in one way or another some connection with Philippi.

- (2) Renan has suggested that yoke-fellow means Lydia (Acts 16 14.15.40), and that she had been married to Paul. But the fact that the adj. gnésios, "true," qualifying "yoke-fellow" is masc. and not fem. shows that it is not a woman but a man who is referred to. Renan's suggestion is an unworthy one, and is quite devoid of proof. It is a mere fanciful and unsupported creation of the Frenchman's brain. Renan's idea is a modification of an opinion which is as old as Clement of Alexandria, that Paul here referred to his own wife. But this conjecture is contradicted by the statement of the apostle himself, that he had not a wife (1 Cor 7 8; 9 5).
- (3) There is still another way of interpreting "yoke-fellow," and probably it is the right one. Some expositors take the word as a proper name. Among these Westcott and Hort print "Sunzuge," in the margin. In favor of this interpretation there is much to be said, esp. the fact that the word is found in the very midst of the names of other persons.



PLOWING IN SYRIA WITH YOKES OF OXEN.

Jews at a 'later period and it is found, e.g. in Apoc Bar 41 3; Ps Sol 7 9; 17 32; Ab, iii.7, and in this sense the phrase is employed by Christ in Mt 11 29 f. "My yoke" here means "the service of God as I teach it" (the common interpretation, "the sorrows that I bear," is utterly irrelevant, and the emphasis is on "my." The contrast is not between "yoke" and "no yoke," but between "my teaching" (light yoke) and "the current scribal teaching" (heavy yoke).

(2) "Yoke" in the sense of "a pair of oxen" is Τρά, cemedh (1 S 11 7, etc), or seῦγος, zeúgos (Lk 14 19).

See also Unequal; Yoke-fellow.

BURTON SCOTT EASTON
YOKE-FELLOW, yōk'fel-ō (σύνζυγος, súnzugos,
"yoked together"): The word is used by Gr writers
of those united by any bond, such as marriage,
relationship, office, labor, study or business; hence a
yoke-fellow, consort, comrade, colleague or partner.

(1) In the NT it occurs once only (Phil 4 3): "I beseech thee also, true yoke-fellow." Most interpreters hold that Paul here addresses some particular but unnamed person, who had formerly been associated with him in the work of the gospel in Philippi. Many guesses have been made in regard to the identity of the unnamed "yoke-fellow," and these names have been suggested: Luke,

The names of Euodia and Syntyche are mentioned immediately before, and that of Clement follows immediately after the true yoke-fellow. The meaning therefore is probably, "I beseech thee also, true Synzygos," i.e. I beseech thee, who art a genuine Synzygos, a colleague rightly so called, a colleague in fact as well as in name. It is obvious to compare the way in which the apostle plays upon the name Onesimus, in Philem ver 11.

John Rutherfurd Young, yung, MEN, Young Women (הקולה), bāhūr, הפחולה, na'ar; veavias, neanias, veaviasos, neaniskos): "Young man" is generally in the OT the tr of bāhūr, from bāhar, "to prove," "to choose," and of na'ar (lit. "boy," but used sometimes also of a girl). The former term denotes a young man, no longer a mere youth, but liable to military service (Dt 32 25; Jgs 14 10; 1 S 8 16; 2 K 8 12, etc). In Nu 11 28, AV "Joshua the servant of Moses, one of his young men" (b*hurīm), RV renders "one of his chosen men," m "from his youth." Na'ar is frequently used (sing. and pl.) of soldiers (1 S 14 1.6; 21 4; 25 5.8.9; 2 S 1 5.6.15, etc). Abraham's "young men" (n*ārīm) were "trained servants," "trained men," warriors (Gen 14 24; cf ver 14 RV). The word is often in the OT trd "servant": thus in RV for AV "young man," "young men" (Gen 18 7; 2 K 4

22; 1 K 20 14 RVm). In the NT, the ordinary words for "young man" are neanias (Acts 7 58; words for 'young man' are neaming (Acts 7 58, 20 9; 23 17.18.22) and neaniskos (Mt 19 20.22; Mk 14 51, etc). "Young men" in Acts 5 6 is neōteroi, comparative of neos, "young," recent; the fem. of the latter word is "young women" in Tit

"widows") in 1 Tim 5 14. In both the OT and the NT young man are the NT young men are earnestly exhorted to wisdom and sober-mindedness (Prov 1 8.9; Eccl 11 9; 12 1.13.14; Tit 2 6, "discreet"; cf Wisd 9 11), etc.

W. L. WALKER

 \boldsymbol{Z}

ZAANAIM, zā-a-nā'im. See Zaanannim.

ZAANAN, zā'a-nan (פֻצַעַ , ça'ănān; Σενναάρ, ZAANAN, za a-nan (1224), ζa anth; Zeverap, Sennaár): A place named by Micah in the Shephelah of Judah (1 11). In this sentence the prophet makes verbal play with the name, as if it were derived from $y\bar{a}\zeta\bar{a}'$, "to go forth": "The inhabitant [m "inhabitress"] of $\zeta a'\bar{a}n\bar{a}n$ is not come forth" $(y\bar{a}\zeta^{e'}\bar{a}h)$. The place is not identified. It is probably the same as ZENAN.

ZAANANNIM, zā-a-nan'im, PLAIN OR OAK OF (אֵלוֹן בִּצְעַנִים, 'ēlōn b'ça'ănayim, or בְּצַעַנִים, beça'ănannīm; B, Βεσαμιείν, Besamiein, A, Βεσανανίμ, Besananim [Josh 19 33]; in Jgs 4 11 B translates πλεονεκτούντων, pleonektoúntōn, and A, ἀναπαυο-μένων, anapauoménōn): In Josh 19 33 AV reads "Allon to Zaanannim," RV "the oak in Zaanannim," RVm "oak [or terebinth] of Bezaanannim." In Jgs 4 11 AV reads "plain of Zaanaim," RV "oak in Zaanannim." It is probable that the same in Zaanannin. It is probable that the same place is intended in the two passages. It was a place on the southern border of the territory of Naphtali (Josh), and near it the tent of Heber the Kenite was pitched (Jgs). The absence of the art. before ' $\bar{e}l\bar{o}n$ shows that the b^a is not the preposition before z, but the first letter of the name, which accordingly should be read "Bezaanannim." We should naturally look for it near Adami and Nekeb. This agrees also with the indications in Jgs, if the direction of Sisera's flight suggested in Meroz (q.v.) represented by the ruin Kadīsh on the western shore of the Sea of Galilee; and in the name Khirbet Bessūm, about 3 miles N.E. of Tabor, there is perhaps an echo of Bezaanannim.

W. Ewing

ZAAVAN, zā'a-van (אָבָן), za'awān, meaning unknown): A Horite descendant of Seir (Gen 36 in 1 Ch.

ZABAD, zā'bad (¬¬¬, zābhādh, perhaps a contraction for [1] $z^{\epsilon}bhadhy\bar{a}h$, "Jeh has given," i.e. Zebadiah; or [2] $zabhd\bar{v}\bar{e}l$, "El [God] is my gift" $[HPN,\ 222\ f];\ Za\beta\epsilon\delta[\tau],\ Zab\acute{e}d[t],$ with many variants):

(1) A Jerahmeelite (1 Ch 2 36.37), son of Nathan

(see NATHAN, IV).

(2) An Ephraimite, son of Tahath (1 Ch 7 21). (3) Son of Ahlai (1 Ch 11 41) and one of David's mighty men (the name is wanting in 2 S 23 24-29).

(4) Son of Shimeath the Ammonitess (2 Ch 24 26); he was one of the murderers of King Joash of Judah; called "Jozacar" in 2 K 12 21 (Heb ver 22). Perhaps the name in Ch should be Zacar $(ֹקָר, z\bar{a}kh\bar{a}r).$

(5) Name of three men who had married foreign wives: (a) son of Zattu (Ezr 10 27) = "Sabathus" wives. (a) son of Patcu (Exr 10 37) = Sabatus of 1 Esd 9 28; (b) son of Hashum (Ezr 10 33) = "Sabanneus" of 1 Esd 9 33; (c) son of Nebo (Ezr 10 43) = "Zabadeas" of 1 Esd 9 35.

DAVID FRANCIS ROBERTS

ZABADAEANS, zab-a-de'anz (Ζαβαδαίοι, Zabadaíoi; AV Zabadeans; Oesterley, in Charles, Apoc, I, 112, prefers, on what seems insufficient evidence, to read "Gabadeans"; Jos [Ant, XIII, v, 10] by an obvious error has "Nabateans"): According to 1 Macc 12 31, an Arabian tribe, defeated and spoiled by Jonathan after his victory in Hamath and before he came to Damascus. There is an ez-Zebedânî about 25 miles N.W. of Damascus (now a station on the railway to Beirût), on the eastern slope of the Anti-Lebanon range. This town may very well have preserved the name of the Zabadaeans, and its situation accords nicely with Jonathan's movements in 1 Macc 12.

BURTON SCOTT EASTON ZABADAIAS, zab-a-dā'yas. AV=RV ZABADEAS

ZABADEAS, zab-a-dē'as (Zαβαδαίας, Zabadaias; AV Zabadaias): One of the sons of Nooma who put away their foreign wives (1 Esd 9 35) = "Zabad" of Ezr 10 43.

ZABBAI, zab'ā-ī, zab'ī (בַּרַ, zabbay, meaning unknown; **Zαβού**, Zaboú):

(1) One of those who had married foreign wives (Ezr 10 28)="Jozabdus" of 1 Esd 9 29.
(2) Father of Baruch (Neh 3 20). The Kerē has בַּלּד, zakkay="Zaccai" of Ezr 2 9; Neh 7 14.

ZABBUD, zab'ud (T) zabbūdh, meaning uncertain; Er 8 14, where Kerë is zakkūr and Kethībh is zābhūdh="Zabud"; i Esd 8 40 has "Istalcarus"): A companion of Ezra on his journey from Babylon to Jerus.

ZABDEUS, zab-dē'us (Zαβδαίος, Zabdaíos): In 1 Esd 9 21="Zebadiah" of Ezr 10 20.

ZABDI, zab'dī (יוֹדְדֹּר, zabhdī, perhaps "[a] gift of Jeh'' or "my gift"= NT "Zebedee"):
(1) An ancestor of Achan (Josh 7 1.17.18).
Some LXX MSS and 1 Ch 2 6 have "Zimri", דְּרָרֶר'), $zimr\bar{\imath}$); "the confusion of $\beth[b]$ and $\beth[m]$ is phonetic, of $\beth[d]$ and $\beth[r]$ graphic" (Curtis, *Chron.*, 86). See ZIMRI (3).

(2) A Benjamite, son of Shimei (1 Ch 8 19), and

possibly a descendant of Ehud (Curtis).
(3) "The Shiphmite," one of David's officers who had charge of the wine-cellars (1 Ch 27 27). LXX

B has Zαχρεί, Zachret (probably Zichri).

(4) An ancestor of Mattaniah (Neh 11 17). Luc. and 1 Ch 9 15 have "Zichri." See Zichri, I, 2. DAVID FRANCIS ROBERTS

ZABDIEL, zab'di-el (Δ) zabhdī'ēl, "my gift is El [God]"; Ζαβδιήλ, Zabdiēl):
(1) Father of Jashobeam (1 Ch 27 2), or rather

Ishbaal (Curtis, *Chron.*, 290 f).
(2) An overseer of the priests (Neh **11** 14). (3) An Arabian who beheaded Alexander Balas and sent his head to Ptolemy (1 Macc 11 17).

ZABUD, zā'bud (דבּלּד, zābhūdh, "bestowed"): (1) A son of Nathan (the prophet, probably) said in K to be chief minister to Solomon and also the king's friend (1 K 4 5; 1 Ch 2 36). ARVm has "priest" for "chief minister." Benzinger (Kurz. Hand-Comm., 18) holds that "this expression is a marginal gloss here," while Kittel (Handkomm., 31) holds it to be genuine, though it is wanting in LXX. Some suggest 700, sokhen (see Shebna) for 700, kōhēn. The expression "king's friend" (cf 2 S 15 37; 16 16) is, says Kittel, an old Can. title, found also in the Am Tab.

(2) See Zaccur, (4); Priests and Levites.

DAVID FRANCIS ROBERTS ZABULON, zab'ū-lon (Ζαβουλών, Zaboulôn): Gr form of "Zebulun" of Mt 4 13.16; Rev 7 8 AV.

ZACCAI, zak'ā-ī, zak'ī. See Zabbai, (2).

ZACCHAEUS, za-kē'us (Zakxatos, Zakchatos, from יְבָּר, zakkay, "pure"):
__(1) A publican with whom Jesus lodged during His stay in Jericho (Lk 19 1-10). He is not mentioned in the other Gospels. Being a chief publican, or overseer, among the tax-gatherers, Zacchaeus had additional opportunity, by farming the taxes, of increasing that wealth for which his class was famous. Yet his mind was not entirely engrossed by material considerations, for he joined the throng which gathered to see Jesus on His entrance into the Of little stature, he was unable either to see over or to make his way through the press, and therefore scaled a sycomore tree. There he was singled out by Jesus, who said to him, "Zacchaeus, make haste, and come down; for to-day I must abide at thy house" (ver 5). The offer thus frankly made by Jesus was accepted eagerly and gladly by Zacchaeus; and the murmurings of the crowd marred the happiness of neither. How com-pletely the new birth was accomplished in Zacchaeus is testified by his vow to give half of his goods to the poor, and to make fourfold restitution where he had wrongfully exacted. The incident reveals the Christian truth that just as the publican Zacchaeus was regarded by the rest of the Jews as a sinner and renegade who was unworthy to be numbered among the sons of Abraham, and was yet chosen by Our Lord to be His host, so the social outcast of modern life is still a son of God, within whose heart the spirit of Christ is longing to make its abode. "For the Son of man came to seek and to save that which was lost" (ver 10).

(2) An officer of Judas Maccabaeus (2 Macc 10

19).

(3) A Zacchaeus is mentioned in the Clementine Homilies (iii.63) as having been a companion of St. Peter and appointed bishop of Caesarea.

(4) According to the Gospel of the Childhood, by Thomas, Zacchaeus was also the name of the teacher of the boy Jesus

the boy Jesus.

ZACCUR, zak'ur (קסבו, zakkūr, perhaps "ventriloquist" [Gray, Nu, 137]):

(1) Father of Shammua the Reubenite spy (Nu **13** 4).

(2) A Simeonite (1 Ch 4 26); AV "Zacchur."

- (3) Levites: (a) a Merarite (1 Ch **24** 27); (b) a "son" of Asaph (1 Ch **25** 2.10; Neh **12** 35); (c) Neh **10** 12 (Heb ver 13), and probably the same as in Neh 13 13, father of Hanan.
- (4) A marginal reading in Ezr 8 14 for Zabbud where K*thībh is really "Zabud"; see Zabbud.
- (5) Son of Imri and one of the builders of Jerus DAVID FRANCIS ROBERTS (Neh 3 2).

ZACCHUR, zak'ur. See ZACCUR.

ZACHARIAH, zak-a-rī'a (Zaxapias, Zacharias; AV Zacharias):

(1) The son of Barachiah, who, Jesus says, slain between the temple and the altar (Mt 23 35; Lk 11 51). The allusion seems to be to the murder of Zechariah, the son of Jehoiada (2 Ch 24 20 ff). In this case "Barachiah" would seem to be a gloss which has crept into the text through confusion with the name of the father of the prophet Zechariah, Berechiah (q.v.).

(2) See Zechariah.

ZACHARIAS, zak-a-rī'as (Ζαχαρίας, Zacharīas):
(1) One of the "rulers of the temple" at the time of Josiah's Passover (1 Esd 1 8)="Zechariah" of 2 Ch 35 8.

(2) One of the "holy singers" at Josiah's Passover (1 Esd 1 15); the name stands in place of "Heman" in 2 Ch 35 15.

(3) In 1 Esd 6 1; 7 3=the prophet Zechariah.

(4) One of the sons of Pharos who returned with Ezra at the head of his family (1 Esd 8 30) = "Zechariah" of Ezr 8 3, and perhaps identical with

(5) One of the "men of understanding" with whom Ezra consulted when he discovered the absence of priests and Levites (1 Esd 8 44) = "Zechariah" of Ezr 8 16, and perhaps identical with (6).

(6) Zacharias (om. in AV), who stood on Ezra's left hand as he expounded the Law (1 Esd 9 44) = "Zechariah" of Neh 8 4.

(7) One of the sons of Babi who went up at the head of his family with Ezra (1 Esd 8 37) = "Zechariah" of Ezr 8 11.

(8) One of the sons of Elam who had taken foreign wives (1 Esd **9** 27) = "Zechariah" of Ezr **10** 26.

(9) The father of Joseph, one of the "leaders of the people" under Judas (1 Macc 5 18.56).
(10) AV=RV "Zaraias" (1 Esd 5 8).
(11) AV=RV "Zachariah" of Mt 23 35.

S. Angus ZACHARIAS (Zaxapias, Zacharias): Father of John the Baptist (Lk 1 5, etc). He was a priest of the course of Abijah (q.v.), of blameless life, who in his old age was still childless. But on one occasion when it was the turn of the course of Abijah to minister in the temple (see Temple), Zacharias was chosen by lot to burn incense. While engaged in this duty he was visited by Gabriel, who announced to him that he should become the father of the precursor of the Messiah. Zacharias received the promise incredulously and was punished by being stricken dumb. When, however, the child was born and Zacharias had obeyed the injunction of Gabriel by insisting on the name John, his powers of speech returned to him. According to Lk 1 67-79, Zacharias was the author of the hymn Benedictus, which describes God's deliverance of Israel in language drawn entirely from the OT, and which is unaffected by the later Christian realization that the Kingdom is also for Gentiles.

Elisabeth, his wife, was of the daughters of Aaron (Lk 1 5) and kinswoman of the Virgin (1 36; the relationship is altogether obscure). According to 1 42-45, she was one of those who shared in the secret of the Annunciation. A few MSS in Lk 1 de ascribe the Magnificat to her, but this seems certainly erroneous. See esp. Zahn, Evangelium des Lucas, 98-101 and 745-751 (1913).

BURTON SCOTT EASTON

ZACHARY, zak'a-ri (Lat Zacharias): AV and RV in 2 Esd 1 40=the prophet Zechariah.

ZACHER, zā'kēr. See Zecher.

ZADOK, zā'dok (アプン・, once アプン・, çādhōk [1 K 1 26], similar to אַדִּיק , çaddīk, and בְּדִּיּל , çaddūk, post-Bib., meaning justus, "righteous"; LXX Σαδώκ,

 $Sad\delta k$): Cheyne in EB suggests that Z. was a modification of a gentilic name, that of the Zidkites in the Negeb, who probably derived their appellation from PTY, cdk, a secondary title of the god they worshipped. At the same time Cheyne admits that cultivated Israelites may have interpreted Zadok as meaning "just," "righteous"—a much more credible supposition.

(1) Z. the son of Ahitub (2 S 8 17)—not of Ahitub the ancestor of Ahimelech (1 S 14 3) and

of Abiathar, his son (1 S 22 20).

(2) Z. father of Jerusha, mother of Jotham, and wife of Uzziah king of Judah (2 K 15 33; 2 Ch 27 1).

(3) Z. the son of Ahitub and father of Shallum (1 Ch 6 12) or Meshullam (Neh 11 11), and the ancestor of Ezra (7 1.2).

(4) Z. the son of Baana, a wall-builder in the time of Nehemiah (Neh 3 4), and probably one of the signatories to the covenant made by the princes, priests and Levites of Israel (Neh 10 21)—in both places his name occurring immediately after that of Meshezabel.

(5) Z. the son of Immer, and, like the preceding, a repairer of the wall (Neh 3 29).

(6) Z. a scribe in the time of Nehemiah (13 13). Whether this was the same as either of the two preceding cannot be determined.

The first of these filled a larger place in OT history than either of the others; and to him accordingly the following paragraphs refer. They set forth the accounts given of him first in S and K and next in Ch; after which they state and criticize the critical theory concerning him.
(1) In these older sources Z. first appears in

David's reign, after Israel and Judah were united under him, as joint occupant with Ahimelech of the high priest's office, 1. In S and K his name taking precedence of that of his colleague Ahimelech, the son of Abiathar (2 S 8 17).

(2) On David's flight from Jerus, occasioned by Absalom's rebellion, Zadok and Abiathar (now the joint high priest), accompanied by the whole body of the Levites, followed the king across the Kidron, bearing the Ark of the Covenant, which, however, they were directed to carry back to the city, taking with them their two sons, Ahimaaz the son of Zadok, and Jonathan the son of Abiathar, to act as spies upon the conduct of the rebels and send information to the king (2 S 15 24-36; 17 15.17-21).

(3) On the death of Absalom, Z. and Abiathar

were employed by David as intermediaries between himself and the elders of Judah to consult about his return to the city, which through their assistance

was successfully brought about (2 S 19 11).

(4) When, toward the end of David's life, Adonijah the son of Haggith, and therefore the crown prince, put forward his claim to the throne of all Israel, taking counsel with Joab and Abiathar, Z. along with Benaiah, the son of Jehoiada, and Nathan the prophet, espoused the cause of Solomon, Bathsheba's son, and acting on David's instructions anointed him as king in Gihon (1 K 1 8.26.32-45).

(5) Accordingly, when Solomon found himself established on the throne, he put Z. in the room of Abiathar, i.e. made him sole high priest, while re-

taining Abiathar in the priestly office, though deposed from a position of coördinate authority with Z. (1 K 2 26.27.35; 4 4).

(1) As in the earlier sources so in these, Z.'s father was Ahitub and his son Ahimaaz—the information being added that they were 2. In Ch all descendants from Aaron through Eleazar (1 Ch 6 50-53).

(2) Among the warriors who came to Hebron to turn the kingdom of Saul to David was "Z., a young man mighty of valor," who was followed by 22 captains of his father's house (1 Ch 12 26-28).

(3) Along with Abiathar and the Levites, Z. was directed by David to bring up the Ark from the

house of Obed-edom to the tent pitched for it on Mt. Zion, when Z. was appointed to officiate at Gibeon, while Abiathar, it is presumed, ministered in Jerus (1 Ch 15 11; 16 39).

(4) Toward the end of David's reign Z. and Abimelech the son of Abiathar acted as priests, Z.

as before having precedence (1 Ch 18 16).

(5) To them was committed by the aged king the task of arranging the priests and Levites according to their several duties, it being intimated by the narrator that Z was of the sons of Eleazar, and Ahimelech (in 18 16, named Abiathar; see above) of the sons of Ithamar (1 Ch 24 3). In ver 6 Ahimelech is called the son of Abiathar, while in 18 16, Abiathar's son is Abimelech—which suggests that the letters b and h were interchangeable in the name of Abiathar's sons.

(6) When Solomon was anointed king, Z. was

anointed (sole) priest (1 Ch 29 22).

Obviously a large measure of agreement exists between the two narratives. Yet some points demand explanation.

- (1) The seeming discrepancy be-3. Harmony tween the statements in the earlier of the sources, that Z.'s colleague in the high Accounts priest's office is first named Ahimelech
- (2 S 8 17) and afterward Abiathar (2 S 15 24), should occasion little perplexity. Either Ahimelech and Abiathar were one and the same person-not an unlikely supposition (see above); or, what is more probable, Abiathar was Ahimelech's son and had succeeded to his father's office.
- (2) Z.'s appearance as a young soldier among the captains who brought David to Jerus (assuming that Z. the soldier was Z. the priest, which is not absolutely certain) need create no difficulty, if Z. was not then of age to succeed his father in the priestly office. The earlier sources do not make Z. an acting priest till after David's accession to the throne of all Israel.
- (3) Neither should it prove an insoluble problem to explain how, soon after David's accession to the throne of Judah and Israel, Z. should be found engaged along with Abiathar in bringing up the Ark to Mt. Zion, as by this time Z. had obviously entered on the high-priestly office, either in succession to or as colleague of his father.
- (4) That Z. was left to officiate at Gibeon where the tabernacle was, while Abiathar was selected to exercise office in the capital, in no way conflicts with the earlier account and seems reasonable as a distribution of official duties. Why Z. was sent to Gibeon, where the tabernacle was, and not kept at Jerus whither the Ark had been brought, he being always named before Abiathar and probably looked upon as the principal high priest, may have had its reason either in the fact that the king regarded Gibeon as the central sanctuary for national worship, the tabernacle being there (Solomon obviously did; see 2 Ch 1 3), and therefore as the proper place for the principal high priest; or in the fact that Z. was younger than Abiathar and therefore less fitted than his older colleague to be at court, as an adviser to the king.
- (5) That toward the end of David's reign, not Abiathar, but his son Ahimelech (or Abimelech) should be introduced as joint high priest with Z. will not be surprising, if Abiathar was by this time an old man, as his father was at the beginning of David's reign. That grandfather and grandson should have the same name is as likely to have been common then as it is today.
- (6) That Z. should have been appointed sole high priest on Solomon's accession (1 Ch 29 22) is not inconsistent with the statement (1 K 4 4) that under Solomon Z. and Abiathar were priests.

Abiathar might still be recognized as a priest or even as a high priest, though no longer acting as The act of deposition may have affected his son Ahimelech as well, and if both father and son were degraded, perhaps this was only to the extent of excluding them from the chief dignity of high

or excluding them from the chief dignity of high priest.

The higher criticism holds: (1) that the Z. of David's reign was not really an Aaronite descended from Eleazar through Ahitub, who was not Z.'s father but Ahimclech's (Gray in EB, art. "Ahitub"), but an adventurer, a soldier of fortune who had climbed up into the priest's office, though by what means is not known (Wellhausen, GJ, 145); (2) that up till Z.'s appearance the priest-hood had been in Ithamar's line, though, according to the insertion by a later writer in the text of 1 8 2 (see vs 27 ff), in Eli's day it was predicted that it should pass from Eli's house and be given to another; (3) that when Abiathar or Ahimelech or both were deposed and Z. instituted sole high priest by Solomon, this fictitious prophecy was fulfilled—though in reality there was neither prophecy nor fulfilment; (4) that during the exile Ezekiel in his sketch of the vision-temple represented the Zadokites as the only legitimate priests, while the others of the line of A. were degraded to be Levites; (5) that in order to establish the legitimacy of Z. the writer of P invented his Aaronic descent through Eleazar and inserted the fictitious prophecy in 1 S.

(1) This theory proceeds upon the assumption, not that the Ohronicler was a post-exilic writer (which is admitted), but that he deliberately and 5. Criticism purposely idealized and to that extent falsified the past history of his people by ascribing to them a faithful adherence to the Levitical institutions of the PC, which, according to this theory, were not then in existence—in other words by representing the religious institutions and observances of his own age as having existed in the nation from the beginning. Were this theory established by well-accredited facts, it would doubtless require to be accepted; but the chief, if not the only, support it has is derived from a previous reconstruction of the sacred text in accordance with the theory it is called on to uphold.

(2) That the father of Z. was not Ahitub, a priest

struction of the sacred text in accordance with the theory it is called on to uphold.

(2) That the father of Z. was not Ahitub, a priest of the line of Eleazar, is arrived at by declaring the text in 2 S 8 17 to have been intentionally corrupted, presumably by a late R, the original form of the verse having been, according to criticism (Wellhausen, TBS, 176 1): "Abiathar the son of Ahimelech, the son of Ahitub, and Z. were priests." But if this was the original form of the words it is not easy to explain why they should have been so completely turned round as to say the opposite, viz. that Ahimelech was the son of Abiathar, and that Ahitub was the father of Z., when in reality he was the father of Ahimelech. If, as Cornill admits (Einl., 116), the Chronicler worked "with good, old historical material," it is not credible that he made it say the opposite of what it meant.

(3) If Z. was not originally a priest, but only a military

the Chronicler worked "with good, old historical material," it is not credible that he made it say the opposite of what it meant.

(3) If Z. was not originally a priest, but only a military adventurer, why should David have made him a priest at all? Wellhausen says (GI, 20) that when David came to the throne he "attached importance to having as priests the heirs of the old family who had served the Ark at Shiloh." But if so, he had Abiathar of the line of Ithamar at hand, and did not need to go to the army for a priest. If, however, it be urged that in making Z. a priest he gave him an inferior rank to Abiathar, and sent him to Gibeon where the tabernacle was, why should both sources so persistently place Z. before Abiathar?

(4) If Z. was originally a soldier not connected with the priesthood, and only became a priest after David came to Jerus, why should the earlier source have omitted to record this, when no reason existed, so far as one can discover, why it should have been left out? And why should the priestly disposed Chronicler have incorporated this in his narrative when all his inclinations should have moved him to omit it, more esp. when he was intending to invent (according to the critical theory) for the young warrior an Aaronite descent?

(5) That the prediction of the fall of Eli's house (I S 2 27-36) was inserted by a late writer to justify its supersupposition that prediction is impossible, which fairminded criticism cannot admit. The occurrence of the word "anointed," it is contended, presupposes the monarchy. This, however, it only predicts; and at the most, as Driver sees (Intro, 164), cannot prove the fictitious character of the prophecy, but merely that it has been "recast by the narrator and colored by the associations with which he himself is familiar"; and even this is entirely hypothetical.

(6) Ezekiel's reference to Z.'s descendants as the only legitimate priests in the vision-temple does not prove that Z. himself was a soldier who climbed up into the priesthood. Even if the critical

sonality of Z., and certainly does not disprove his original connection with the priesthood or his descent from

T. WHITELAW

ZAHAM, zā'ham (Dat, zāham, meaning uncertain; LXX A, Zαλάμ, Zalám, B, 'Pooλλάμ, Rhoollám): A son of King Rehoboam (2 Ch 11 19).

ZAIN, zä'in. See Zayın.

ZAIR, zā'ir (בְּעִרֶר, çā'īr; Ζειώρ, Zeiôr): When he invaded Edom, we are told that Joram passed over to Zair and all his chariots with him (2 K 8 21). In the parallel passage (2 Ch 21 9), "with his captains" (בְּבֶּירָה, 'm̄ sārāyw) takes the place of "to Zair" (בְּבֶּירָה, ṣāˈr̄rāh), probably a copyist's corruption. The place has not been identified. Some have thought that Mt. Seir is intended; others that it means the town of Zoar. Conder suggested ez-Zuweirah, S.E. of the Dead Sea. If Zoar lay in this direction, it is the way by which an invading army might enter Edom.

ZALAPH, zā'laf (גָּלֶּבֶּ , çālāph, "caper-plant"): Father of Hanun, one of the repairers of the wall (Neh 3 30).

ZALMON, zal'mon (ζ'Σ'), çalmōn; Σελμών, Selmōn, ὄρος Έρμών, ότος Εrmōn; AV Salmon [Ps 68 14]):

(1) From the slopes of Mt. Zalmon, Abimelech and his followers gathered the wood with which they burned down "the stronghold of the house of Elberith," which may have been the citadel of Shechem (Jgs 9 46). The mountain therefore was not far from the city; but no name resembling this has yet been recovered in Mt. Ephraim. It is just possible that in the modern Arab. name of Mt. Ebal, es-Sūlēmīyeh, there may be an echo of Zalmon. It is precisely to this mountain, esp. to the western slopes, that one would expect Abimelech and his people to go for the purpose in view. The name occurs again in Ps 68 14, a passage of admitted difficulty. Snow in Pal is mainly associated with Mt. Hermon, where it may be seen nearly all the year round; hence doubtless the Gr reading "Mt. Hermon" in Jgs. But snow is well known among the uplands in winter; and the Psalmist may simply have meant that the kings were scattered like snow-flakes in the wind on Mt. Zalmon. We need not therefore look to Bashan or elsewhere for the mounin. The locality is fixed by the narrative in Jgs. (2) One of David's heroes (2 S 23 28). See tain. W. EWING

ZALMONAH, zal-mō'na (בַּלְמֹנָה, çalmōnāh, "gloomy"): A desert camp of the Israelites, the first after Mt. Hor (Nu 33 41.42). The name "suggests some gloomy valley leading up to the Edomite plateau." See Wanderings of Israel.

ZALMUNNAH, zal-mun'a. See Zebah and Zal-MITINNA.

ZAMBIS, zam'bis: AV=RV ZAMBRI (q.v.).

ZAMBRI, zam'brī (B, Ζαμβρεί, Zambreí, A, Ζαμ-βρίs, Zambrís; AV Zambis, from Aldine Ζαμβίς, Zambis):

(1) One of the sons of Ezora who put away their foreign wives (1 Esd 9 34) = "Amariah" of Ezr 10

(2) AV=RV "Zimri" of 1 Mace 2 26.

ZAMOTH, zā'moth, zā'mōth (Ζαμόθ, Zamóth): The head of a family, some members of which married foreign wives (1 Esd 9 28)="Zattu" of

Ezr 10 27; called "Zathui" in 1 Esd 5 12 and "Zathoes" (AV "Zathoe") in 8 32.

ZAMZUMMIM, zam-zum'im (בַּוֹמְלָבִים, zam $zumm\bar{\imath}m$): A race of giants who inhabited the region E. of the Jordan afterward occupied by the Ammonites who displaced them. They are identified with the Rephaim (Dt 2 20). They may be the same as the Zuzim mentioned in connection with the Rephaim in Gen 14 5. See REPHAIM.

ZANOAH, za-nō'a (פוֹלִיתַ), zānōaḥ; B, Tavá, Tanô, A, Zavá, Zanô)

(1) A town in the Judaean Shephelah, grouped with Eshtaol, Zorah and Ashnah (Josh 15 34). The Jews reoccupied the place after the exile (Neh 11 30). Here it is named between Jarmuth and Adullam. The inhabitants assisted in rebuilding the walls of Jerus, repairing the valley gate (Neh 3 13). Onom places it at Zanna, in the district of Eleutheropolis on the Jerus road. It is represented by the modern Zanu'a, about 10 miles N. of Beit $Jibr\bar{\imath}n$ (Eleutheropolis).

(2) (B, Zakavaelu, Zakanaelm, A, Zavú, Zanð):
A place in the mountains (Josh 15 56) of which
Jekuthiel was the "father" or founder (1 Ch 4 18).
It may be identified with Zenūtā, a ruined site on a hill about 12 miles S. of Hebron.

ZAPHENATH-PANEAH, zaf-ē'nath-pa-nē'a, ZAPHNATH-PAANEAH, zaf'nath-pā-a-nē'a (חַבְּשַׁלֵּ ΤΩΣΕ, çāph nath pa ἀnē h; Egyp Zoph-ent-pa-ankh; LXX D, Ψονθομφανήχ, Psonthomphanēch, "the one who furnishes the nourishment of life," i.e. the chief steward of the realm): The name given Joseph by the Egyp king by whom he was promoted, probably the Hyksos king Aphophis (Gen 41 45). See Joseph.

ZAPHON, zā/fon (ἸΣζ, çāphōn; B, Σαφάν, Saphān, A, Σαφάν, Saphōn): A city on the E. of the Jordan in the territory of Gad (Josh 13 27). It is named again in Jgs 12 1 as the place where the elders of Gilead gathered to meet with Jephthah (çāphōnāh should be trd "to Zaphon," not "north-(cāphōnāh should be trd "to Zaphon," not "northward"). It must have lain well to the N. of Gad. According to the Talm Amathus represented Zaphon (Neubauer, Géog. du Talm, 249). Here sat one of the Synedria created by Gabinius (Ant, XIV, v, 4). It was a position of great strength (BJ, I, iv, 2). Onom places it 21 Rom miles S. of Pella. This is the modern Tell 'Amāteh, on the south bank of Wādy er-Rujeib, 15 miles S. of Pella, and nearly 5 miles N. of the Jabbok. Buhl (GAP, 259) objects to the identification that Tell 'Amāteh 259) objects to the identification that Tell 'Amateh corresponds to the Asophon of Jos (Ant, XIII, tii, 5). But this objection does not seem well founded.

W. EWING

ZARA, $z\bar{a}'ra$ (**Zapá**, Zará): AV (Mt 1 3)=Gr form of Zerah (q.v.).

ZARACES, zar'a-sēz: AV=RV ZARAKES (q.v.).

ZARAH, zā'ra. See Zerah, (1).

ZARAIAS, za-rā'yas, za-rī'as (Zapaias, Zaraias): (1) One of the leaders in the Return along with (1) One of the leaders in the Return along with Zerubbabel (1 Esd 5 8) = "Seraiah" of Ezr 2 2 and "Azariah" of Neh 7 7=AV ZACHARIAS (q.v.).
(2) An ancestor of Ezra in 1 Esd 8 2 (omitted in B and Swete) = "Zerahiah" of Ezr 7 4 and apparently = "Arna" of 2 Esd 1 2.
(3) The father of Flicopies the leader of the second
(3) The father of Eliaonias, the leader of the sons of Phaath Moab under Ezra (1 Esd 8 31) = "Zerahiah" of Ezr 8 4.

(4) One of "the sons of Saphatias" who went up with Ezra (1 Esd 8 34)="Zebadiah" of Ezr 8 8.

ZARAKES, zar'a-kēz (A and Fritzsche, Ζαράκης, ZARAKES, zar'a-kēz (A and Fritzsche, Zapakns, Zarákēs, B and Swete, Zápos, Zários; Vulg Zaracelem; AV Zaraces): Occurs in the difficult passage, 1 Esd 1 38, as the equivalent of Jehoahaz (2 K 23 34) and Joahaz (2 Ch 36 4), the brother of Eliakim (Jehoiakim or Joakim [q.v.]). According to 1 Esd 1 38, Joakim apparently apprehended in brother, Zarakes, and brought him up out of Egypt, whither he must have been previously taken. Egypt, whither he must have been previously taken by Necoh, whereas 2 K and 2 Ch only state that Necoh took Joahaz (Zarakes) to Egypt.

ZARDEUS, zär-dē'us (A, Zaρδalas, Zardaias, B, Swete and Fritzsche, Zεραλίας, Zeralias; AV Sardeus): One of the sons of Zamoth who had married "strange wives" (1 Esd 9 28) = "Aziza" of Ezr 10 27.

ZAREAH, zā'rē-a, za-rē'a (בְּרָעָה, çor'āh): AV in Neh 11 29 for ZORAH (q.v.).

ZAREATHITES, za-rē'a-thīts. See Zorathites.

ZARED, zā'red (TJ], zāredh [in pause]). See

ZAREPHATH, zar'e-fath (ΤΣΤ), çār-phath; Σάρεπτα, Sárepta): The Sidonian town in which Elijah was entertained by a widow after he left the brook Cherith (1 K 17 9 ff). Obadiah refers to it as a Can. (probably meaning Phoen) town (ver 20). It as a Can. (probably meaning Phoen) town (ver 20). It appears in the Gr form Sarepta in Lk 4 26 (AV), and is said to be in the land of Sidon. Jos (Ant, VIII, xiii, 2) says it was not "far from Sidon and Tyre, for it lay between them." Onom (s.v. "Sarefta") places it on the public road, i.e. the road along the seashore. It can be no other than the medown Sarafand about 12 miles N. of Tyre the modern Sarafend, about 13 miles N. of Tyre, on the spur of the mountain which divides the plain of Tyre from that of Sidon.

The site of the ancient town is marked by the ruins on the shore to the S. of the modern village, about 8 miles to the S. of Sidon, which extend along the shore for a mile or more. They are in two distinct groups, one on a headland to the W. of a fountain called 'Ain el-Kantara, which is not far from the shore. Here was the ancient harbor which still affords shelter for small craft. The other group of ruins is to the S., and consists of columns, sarcophagi and marble slabs, indicating a city of considerable importance. The modern village of Sarafend was built some time after the 12th cent., since at the time of the Crusades the town was still on the shore.

It is conjectured that the Syrophoenician woman mentioned in Lk 4 26 was an inhabitant of Z., and it is possible that Our Lord visited the place in His journey to the region as narrated in Mk 7 24-31, for it is said that he "came through Sidon unto the sea of Galilee."

The place has been identified by some with Misrephoth-maim of Josh 11 8 and 13 6, but the latter passage would indicate that Misrephoth-maim was at the limit of the territory of the Sidonians, which Z. was not in the days of Joshua. See MISREPHOTH-MAIM; SIDON.

Originally Sidonian, the town passed to the prisans after the invasion of Shalmaneser IV, 722 Tyrians after the invasion of Shalmaneser IV, 722 BC. It fell to Sennacherib 701 BC. The Wely, or shrine bearing the name of el-Khudr, the saint in whom St. George is blended with Elijah, stands near the shore. Probably here the Crusaders erected a chapel on what they believed to be the site of the widow's house. W. EWING

ZARETAN, zar'ė-tan (קְּהֶלֶּה, çārethān): AV Josh 3 16 for Zarethan (q.v.).

ZARETHAN, zar'e-than (תְּלֵּילָ, carethan): A city, according to Josh 3 16 (omitted, however, by LXX) near Adam, which is probably to be identified with *Tell Dāmieh* at the mouth of the Jabbok. In 1 K 4 12 it is mentioned in connection with Beth-shean and said to be "beneath Jezreel." In 1 K 7 46, this is said to be at "the ford of Adamah," according to the reading of some, but according to the Massoretic text, "in the clay ground between Succoth and Zarethan," where the bronze castings for the temple were made by Solomon's artificers. for the temple were made by Solomon's artificers. In 2 Ch 4 17, the name appears as Zeredah, which in 1 K 11 26 is said to have been the birthplace of Jeroboam, son of Nebat. In Jgs 7 22, Gibeon is said to have pursued the Midianites "as far as Bethshittah toward Zererah," which is probably a misreading for Zeredah, arising from the similarity of the Heb letters dāleth and rēsh. The place has not been positively identified. From the suggestion that the name means "the great [or lofty] rock," it has without sufficient reason been supposed that it has without sufficient reason been supposed that it designates the conspicuous peak of Kurn Surtableh, which projects from the mountains of Ephraim into the valley of the Jordan opposite the mouth of the Jabbok. GEORGE FREDERICK WRIGHT

ZARETH-SHAHAR, zā'reth-shā'har (בַּלֶּת אַסְלָּה, cereth ha-shahar). See Zereth-shahar.

ZARHITES, zär'hīts. See Zerah, (1), (4).

ZARTANAH, zär-tā'na, zär'tā-nä (קְּרָתְּהָּ çār•thanāh): AV in 1 K 4 12 for "Zarethan." The form is Zarethan with Hē locale.

ZARTHAN, zär'than (, , çārethān): AV in 1 K 7 46 for Zarethan (q.v.).

ZATHOES, zath'ō-ēz, za-thō'ēz (Zaθońs, Zathoės; AV Zathoe): Name of a family, part of which returned with Ezra (1 Esd 8 32), not found in the Heb of Ezr 8 5; probably identical with "Zattu" of Ezr 2 8; Neh 7 13, many of which family went up with Zerubbabel, and so called also "Zathui" (1 Esd 5 12). See Zattu.

ZATHUI, za-thū'ī (Ζαθθουί, Zaththout, LXX B, Zατόν, Zatón): In 1 Esd 5 12="Zattu" in Ezr 2 8; Neh 10 14. In 1 Esd 9 28 the same name is "Zamoth."

ZATTHU, zat'thū: In Neh 10 14; RV ZATTU (q.v.).

ZATTU, zat'ū (እን፫፲, zattū', meaning unknown): Head of a large family that returned with Zerubbabel to Jerus from Babylon (Ezr 2 8; 10 27; Neh 7 13; 10 14 [15]). According to Ezr 10 27, some of his sons had married foreign wives, and Zattu is named in Neh 10 14 as one of the chiefs who signed Nehemiah's covenant. LXX A also adds the name before that of Shecaniah in Ezr 8 5, and so we should read, "And of the sons of Zattu, Shecaniah"; so 1 Esd 8 32 has Zαθοήs, Zathoέs. AV has "Zatthu" in Neh 10 14.

ZAVAN, zā'van. See ZAAVAN.

ZAYIN, zä'yin (7): The 7th letter of the Heb alphabet; transliterated in this Encyclopaedia as z. It came also to be used for the number 7. For name, etc, see ALPHABET.

ZAZA, zā'za (Χ΄΄΄, zāzā', meaning unknown; LXXB, 'Οζάμ, Ozám, A, 'Οζαζά, Ozazá): A Jerahmeelite (1 Ch 2 33).

ZEALOT, zel'ut, **ZEALOTS**, zel'uts: Simon, one of the apostles, was called "the Zealot" ($Z\eta\lambda\omega\tau\eta$ s, $Z\bar{e}l\bar{o}t\hat{e}s$, from $\zeta\eta\lambda\delta\omega$, $z\bar{e}l\delta\bar{o}$ "to rival," "emulate," "be jealous," "admire," "desire greatly," Lk **6** 15; Acts **1** 13, AV "Zelotes"). In Mt **10** 4 and Mk **3** 18 he is called "the Cananaean" (so RV correctly; not "the Cananite," as AV says, following inferior MSS), & Kavavaîos, ho Kananaíos. From the time of the Maccabees there existed among the Jews a party who professed great zeal for the observance of the "law." According to Jos (BJ, IV, iii, 9; v, 1; VII, viii, 1) they resorted to violence and assassination in their hatred of the foreigner, being at many points similar to the Chinese Boxers. It is not improbable that the "Assassins" (see Assassins) of Acts 21 38 were identical, or at least closely associated, with this body of "Zealots," to which we must conclude that Simon had belonged before he became one of the Twelve. See, further, Simon the Zealot.

WILLIAM ARTHUR HEIDEL ZEBADIAH, zeb-a-di'a ([1] בְּרֵיהוּדְ, zebhadhyāhū,

(2) Son of Ishmael (2 Ch 19 11); "ruler of the house of Judah in all the king's [Jehoshaphat's] matters," i.e. judge in civil cases, the "controversies"

of ver 8.
(3) Benjamites, perhaps descended from Ehud (see Curtis, *Chron.*, 158 ff): (a) In 1 Ch 8 15; (b) in ver 17, where the name may be a dittography from ver 15.

(4) A Benjamite recruit of David at Ziklag (1
Ch 12 7 [Heb ver 8]).
(5) One of David's army officers, son and successions.

sor of Asahel (1 Ch 27 7).

(6) One of those who returned from Babylon to

Jerus with Ezra (Ezr 8 8) = "Zaraias" of 1 Esd 8

tection refused"): Two Midianite kings or chiefs whom Gideon slew (Jgs 8 4–21; Ps 83 11 [Heb ver 12]). The name zebhah (Zέβεε, Zébee) is very much like that of ze'ēbh (Zήβ, Zέβ, "Zeeb'' in LXX). Moore (Jgs, 220) says that calmunnā' is probably "a genuine Midianite name"; Nöldeke conjectured that it contains that of a deity (\square $^{\Sigma}$, g[a]lm), and a compound form במשוב צל clmshzbh, is found in an inscription from Teimā, a place E. of the Midianite capital (CIS, II, exiii f).

anite capital (CIS, 11, cXIII 1).

The narrative of Jgs 8 4-21 is not to be connected with that of 8 1-3. Budde (Kurzer Hand-Comm. z. AT, XXII) would join 8 4 to 6 34; Moore (ICC) following Budde's earlier work (1890) would connect it with a part of 7 22b, describing the direction of the flight, while Nowack (Hand-Komm.) regards the battle of 8 11 as the same as that of 7 11 ff; he then takes the latter part of 8 11 to refer to the place of the camp at night. There are many difficulties in forming a natural connection for the verses. It may be noted that in 8 18 f Gideon is not "the least in my father's house," as he represents himself to be in 6 15.

The whole section tells of a daring raid made by Gideon upon the Midianites. Some of his own kin had been slain by Midianite hordes at Ophrah (8 18 f), and, stirred by this, Gideon went in hot pursuit with 300 men (ver 4). He requested provisions for his men from the people of Succoth and Penuel, but was refused this. He then went on and caught

the Midianites unawares at Karkor (ver 10) and captured their two chiefs. He then had his revenge on the two towns, and returned probably to his home with the two notable prisoners. These he determined to slay to avenge the death of his own kinsmen, and called upon his eldest son to perform this solemn public duty that he owed to the dead. His son, apparently only a boy, hesitated, and he did the deed himself. W. R. Smith (Lectures on the Rel. of the Sem., 2d ed, 417, n.) compares with this call to Gideon's son the choice of young men or lads as sacrificers in Ex 24 5, and says that the Saracens also charged lads with the execution of their captives.

The narrative reminds one of David's romantic life in 1 S 25, 27, 30. It is throughout a characteristic picture of the life of the early Hebrews in Pal, for whom it was a sacred duty to avenge the dead. It affords a splendid illustration of what is meant by the spirit of Jeh coming upon, or rather "clothing itself with" (RVm) Gideon (6 34); cf also Saul's call to action (1 S 11 1-11), and also Jgs 19 f.

DAVID FRANCIS ROBERTS ZEBAIM, ze-bā'im. See Pochereth-hazzebaim.

ZEBEDEE, zeb'è-dē (הְּבְּיִדְ, zibhdī, "the gift of God"; Zεβεδαῖος, Zebedaios): The father of the apostles James and John (Mk 1 19) and a fisherman on the Sea of Galilee (Mk 1 20), the husband of Salome (Mt 27 56; cf Mk 16 1). See James, Son of Zebedee; Salome.

ZEBINA, ze-bi'na (לְבִילָּה, ze-biīnā', "bought"): One of those who had married foreign wives (Ezr 10 43); the name is not in 1 Esd 9 35, and is omitted by LXX A in Ezr.

ZEBOIIM, zċ-boi'im (⊐¬¬¬, cʻ-bhōyim; LXX uniformly Σεβω[ε][μ, Sebō[e][m; AV Zeboim): One of the cities in the Vale of Siddim, destroyed with Sodom and Gomorrah. It is always mentioned next to Admah (Gen 10 19; 14 2.8; Dt 29 23; Hos 11 8). It is not to be confounded with Zeboim mentioned in 1 S 13 18 and Neh 11 34. The site has not been positively identified, but must be determined by the general questions connected with the Vale of Siddim. See Siddim, Vale of.

ZEBOIM, zē-bō'īm ([1] בּלּעְלֹם, çc'bhō'īm; Σεβωείμ, Sebōeim [Neh 11 34]; [2] בְּלְּעָרִם, gē ha-çc-bhō'īm; Γαὶ τὴν Σαμείν, Gai tên Samein [1 S 13 18]):

(1) A Benjamite town mentioned as between Hadid (q.v.) and Neballat (q.v.), and therefore in the maritime plain near Lydda; the site is lost (Neh 11 34). (2) The Valley of Zeboim, "the valley of

hyenas," one of three companies of the Philistines left their camp at Michmash and "turned the way of the border that looketh down upon the valley of Zeboim toward the wilderness" (1 S 13 18). There are several valleys with names derived from the hyena, so common in these parts. There is a small branch valley called Shakked dab'ā, "ravine of the hyenas," N. of the Wâdy kelt (Grove), a Wâdy abu dab'ā, "valley of the father of hyenas," which joins the Wâdy kelt from the S. (Marti), and a large and well-known Wâdy dab'ā, "valley of hyenas," which runs parallel with the Wâdy kelt, some 3 miles farther S., and ends at the Dead Sea. The first of these, which apparently leads to Mukhmās itself, seems the most probable. See Conder's Handbook, 241.

ZEBUDAH, zė-bū'da. See Zebidah.

ZEBUL, zē'bul (ὑτ, ze'bhul, perhaps "exalted"; Zeβούλ, Zeboúl): In Jgs 9 26 ff. He is called in ver 30 sar hā-ʿīr, "the ruler of the city," a phrase tr⁴ "the governor of the city" in 1 K 22 26=2 Ch 18 25; 2 K 23 8; 2 Ch 34 8; he was "commandant of the town" of Shechem. In ver 28 he is referred to as the pākīdh, "officer," or, more correctly, "deputy" of Abimelech. This verse is a little difficult, but if we read "served" for "serve ye," it becomes fairly clear in meaning. With Moore (Jgs, 255 ff) we may translate it thus: "Who is Abimelech? and who is Shechem, that we should serve him [i.e. Abimelech]? Did not the son of Jerubbaal and Zebul his deputy [formerly] serve the people of Ḥamor [the father of Shechem]? Why then should we serve him [Abimelech]?" This is also the way Budde (Kurzer Hand-Comm. z. AT, 75) takes the verse. And further in ver 29 for "and he said" many read with LXX "then would I sav."

The position of Zebul is here that of a deputy to Abimelech, who lived in Arumah (ver 41). When Gaal came to Shechem, a newcomer with a band of men, he seized the opportunity at a vintage feast to attack Abimelech and express a desire to lead a revolt against him (vs 26–29). Zebul heard these words and reported the matter to his master, advising him to make a sudden rush upon the city (vs 30–33). This Abimelech does, and Gaal, on noticing the troops, tells Zebul, who turns upon him and bids him make good his bragging words. Gaal is thus forced to go out and fight Abimelech, and is defeated (vs 34–40).

If this be the correct interpretation of the narrative so far, it is fairly simple and clear. Some, however, maintain that the words of Gaal about Zebul in ver 28 are meant as an insult to the governor of the civy; this is the view of Wellhausen (Compos., 353 f, n.) and Nowack (Handkomm.; cf also his Archaologie, I, 304, 308, for the meaning of sar). Zebulis, according to them, head of the Shechemite community, and Wellhausen and Kittel (Hist of Heb, II, 85) believe him to have had something to do with the revolt of 9 23-25. For the latter view there is no proof; possibly Zebul was the head of the community of Shechem, but as he was a subject of Abimelech, who was the king or prince of Shechem, there could not be much sting in calling him the "deputy" of his master.

of his master.

The questions that arise from vs 41 ff need only be referred to here. Many critics have seen in 9 22-45 more than one source. Moore groups the verses thus: (1) vs 22-23.25.42 ff as due to E, with ver 24 from R.E; (2) vs 26-41 due to J. It is doubtfull if the division is as clear as this. There seem however to be parallels: (1) The plans of Abimelech in vs 34-40 are very similar to those in 42 ff. (2) Ver 41b seems to give in short what we find related in vs 34-40. (3) LXX in 9 31 has suggested to many that we should read there, "and he sent messengers unto Abimelech in Arumah." instead of reading "craftily." We would thus have a parallel to ver 41a. It may be suggested therefore that if the account be double (and it is strange that Abimelech should again attack the city by almost the same methods as before, when the revolters had been already got rid of), the narratives would be in this order:

Introductory, 9 23-25; then vs 26-29.30 common to both, and so possibly part of vs 31 and 32 f. Then we have two accounts of the event: (a) vs 31 (part).34-40; (b) vs 41-45, followed by vs 46 ff.

DAVID FRANCIS ROBERTS

ZEBULONITE, zeb'ti-lon-it. See ZEBULUNITES.

ZEBULUN, zeb'u-lun (זבּרֹכּוּדְ , zºbhūlūn, also written אָבּרְּבָּן and אָדְבְּלִּרְן; the first form occurs only in Jgs 1 30; the other two are frequent, and are used interchangeably; Zαβουλών, Zaboulôn): In Gen 30 20 Leah exclaims, "God hath endowed me with a good dowry," which suggests a derivation of Zebulun from zābhadh, "to bestow," the ¬ (d) being replaced by 5 (l). Again she says, "Now will my husband dwell with me [or "honor me"]: and she called his name Zebulun"; the derivation being from zābhal, "to exalt" or "honor" (OHL, s.v.).

Zebulun was the 10th son of Jacob, the 6th borne to him by Leah in Paddan-aram. Nothing is known of this patriarch's life, save in so far as it coincides with that of his brethren. Tg Pseudojon says that he first of the five brethren was presented to Pharaoh by Joseph, when Israel and his house arrived in Egypt (Gen 47 2). Three sons, Sered, Elon and Jahleel, were born to him in Canaan, and these became the ancestors of the three main divi-

sions of the tribe (Gen 46 14).

The position of the tribe of Zebulun in the wilderness was with the standard of the camp of Judah on the east side of the tabernacle (Nu 2 7). camp moved foremost on the march (ver 9). At the first census Zebulun numbered 57,400 men of war (1 30), the prince of the tribe being Eliab, son war (1 30), the prince of the tribe being Ehab, son of Helon (ver 9). At the second census the men of war numbered 60,500 (Nu 26 27); see, however, Numbers. Among the spies Zebulun was represented by Gaddiel son of Sodi (13 10). To assist in the division of the land Elizaphan son of Parnach was chosen (34 25). At Shechem Zebulun, the descendants of Leah's youngest son, stood along with Europe where disgresses approach with it that of with Reuben, whose disgrace carried with it that of his tribe, and the descendants of the sons of the handmaids, over against the other six, who traced their descent to Rachel and Leah (Dt 27 13). At the second division of territory the lot of Zebulun came up third, and assigned to him a beautifully diversified stretch of country in the N. The area of his possession is in general clear enough, but it is impossible to define the boundaries exactly (Josh 19 10-16). It "marched" with Naphtali on the E. and S.E., and with Asher on the W. and N.W. The line ran northward from Mt. Tabor, keeping on the heights W. of the Sea of Galilee, on to Kefr Anan (Hannathon). It turned westward along the base of the mountain, and reached the border of Asher, probably by the vale of 'Abilīn. It then proceeded southward to the Kishon opposite Tell Kaimūn (Jokneam). As the plain belonged to Issachar, the south border would skirt its northern edge, terminating again at Tabor, probably near Debūriyeh (Daberath), which belonged to Issachar (21 28).

The details given are confusing. It is to be observed that this does not bring Zebulun into touch with the sea, and so is in apparent contradiction with Gen 49 13, and also with Jos (Ant, V, i, 22; BJ, III, iii, 1), who says the lot of Zebulun included the land which "lay as far as the Lake of Gennesareth, and that which belonged to Carmel and the sea." Perhaps, however, the limits changed from time to time. So far as the words in Gen 49 13 are concerned, Delitzsch thinks they do not necessarily imply actual contact with the sea; but only that his position should enable him to profit by maritime trade. This it certainly did; the great caravan route, via maris, passing through his territory. Thus he could "suck the treasures of the sea." See also Tabor, Mount. Within the boundaries thus roughly indicated were all varieties of mountain and plain, rough upland country, shady wood and fruitful valley. What is said of the territory of Naphtali applies generally to this.

Olive groves and vineyards are plentiful. Good harvests are gathered on the sunny slopes, and on the rich levels of the Plain of Asochis (el-Battauf).

Elon the Zebulunite was the only leader given by the tribe to Israel of whom we have any record (Jgs 12 11 f); but the people were brave and skilful in war, furnishing, according to the Song of Deborah, "(them) that handle the marshal's staff" (5 14). The tribe sent 50,000 single-hearted warriors, capable and well equipped, to David at Hebron (1 Ch 12 33). From their rich land they brought stores of provisions (ver 40). Over Zebulun in David's time was Ishmaiah, son of Obadiah (27 19). though they had fallen away, Hezekiah proved that many of them were capable of warm response to the appeal of religious duty and privilege (2 Ch 30 10 f.18 ff). They are not named, but it is probable that Zebulun suffered along with Naphtali in the invasion of Tiglath-pileser (2 K 15 29). In later days the men from these breezy uplands lent strength and enterprise to the Jewish armies. Jotapata (Tell Jifat), the scene of Josephus' heroic defence, was in Zebulun. So was Sepphoris (Seffūriyeh), which was for a time the capital of Galilee (Ant, XVIII, ii, 1; BJ, VII; III, ii, 4). Nazareth, the home of our Saviour's boyhood, is sheltered among its lower hills.

W. Ewing

ZEBULUNITES, zeb'ū-lun-īts (הַוְּבוּלֹנִי , ha $z^{e}bh\bar{u}l\bar{o}n\bar{\imath}$; Ζαβουλών, Zaboulôn): Members of the tribe of Zebulun (Nu 26 27; Jgs 12 11 f).

ZECHARIAH, zek-a-rī'a (דְּבֶרְנָהד, zºkharyāhū, or סְּבֶרְנָה, zekharyāh; LXX Zaxapía[s], Zacharia[s]): A very common name in the OT. The form. esp. the longer form, of the name would suggest for its meaning, "Jeh remembers" or "Jeh is renowned," and the name was doubtless understood in this sense in later times. But the analogies with ZACCUR, ZECHER, ZICHRI (q.v.), etc, make some original ethnic derivation probable.

(1) King of Israel, son of Jeroboam II (AV "Zachariah"). See next article.

(2) The grandfather of King Hezekiah, through Hezekiah's mother Abi (2 K 18 2, AV "Zachariah" | 2 Ch 29 1).

(3) A contemporary of Isaiah, taken by Isaiah as a trustworthy witness in the matter of the sign Maher-shalal-hash-baz (Isa 8 1). As his father's name was Jeberechiah, some support seems to be offered to the theories of those who would make him the author of certain portions of Zec. But see ZECHARIAH, BOOK OF.

(4) A Reubenite of the time of Israel's captivity (1 Ch 5 7).

(5) A Benjamite, living in Gideon (1 Ch 9 37; called "Zecher" in 8 31). He was the brother of Kish and hence the uncle of Saul.

(6) A Manassite of Gilead, at the time of David (1 Ch 27 21).

(7) The third son of Jehoshaphat (2 Ch 21 2).

He was slain by Jehoram (ver 4).

(8) A "prince" whom Jehoshaphat sent to "teach" in the cities of Judah (2 Ch 17 7). As this "teaching" was in connection with the establishing of the Law, Zechariah was primarily a judge.

(9) A prophet who was influential in the early days of Uzziah (2 Ch **26** 5). He is characterized as ha-mēbh īn bire'ōth (beyir'ath[?]) hā-'ĕlōhīm, which phrase is usually understood to mean that he had instructed (RVm) the king in the fear of God. As long as he lived the king profited by his instruction and advice.

The following eight are all Levites:

(10) A doorkeeper at the time of David, who was made a singer "of the second degree" (1 Ch 15 18; the text is confused). He was a player on a "psaltery" (ver 20) and took part in the thanksgiving when the Ark was brought to Jerus (16 5).

(11) A son of Isshiah (1 Ch 24 25).

(12) A son of Meshelemiah, a "porter of the door of the tent of meeting" at the time of David (1 Ch 9 21; 26 2.14). In 26 14 called "a discreet counsellor."

(13) A son of Hosah, a Merarite, also at David's time (1 Ch 26 11).

(14) The father of the prophet, JAHAZIEL (q.v.) (2 Ch 20 14).

(15) A son of Asaph, who assisted in the purification of the Temple at the time of Hezekiah (2 Ch

(16) A Kohathite, who assisted in the repair of the Temple at the time of Josiah (2 Ch 34 12).

(17) A son of Jonathan, an Asaphite, one of the musicians at the dedication of the wall at the time of Nehemiah (Neh 12 35).

The following are all priests:

(18) A trumpeter at the time of David (1 Ch **15** 24).

(19) A son of Jehoiada, at the time of Joash. He rebuked the people publicly for their apostasy, and was stoned by them, Joash consenting to their act (2 Ch 24 20-22). As 2 Ch is the last book in the Heb OT, Zechariah was regarded as the last of the OT martyrs, and hence is coupled with Abel (the first martyr) in Mt 23 35 || Lk 11 51. The words "son of Barachiah" in Mt are due to confusing this Zechariah with the prophet. See Zachariah.

(20) One of the "rulers of the house of God" at the time of Josiah (2 Ch 35 8).

(21) A son of Pashhur, 242 of whose descendants as "chiefs of fathers' houses" dwelt in Jerus at the time of Nehemiah (Neh 11 13).

(22) A trumpeter at the dedication of the wall at the time of Nehemiah (Neh 12 41).

(23) The prophet (Ezr 5 1; 6 14; Neh 12 16; Zec 1 1.7; 7 1.8; 1 Esd 6 1; 7 3). See Zech-ARIAH, BOOK OF.

The following are all returned exiles or are men-

tioned only as ancestors of such:

(24) A son of Parosh (Ezr 8 3; 1 Esd 8 30 has "Zacharias" here and elsewhere).

(25) A son of Bebai (Ezr 8 11; 1 Esd 8 37). (26) One of the "chief men" dispatched by Ezra to bring priests from Casiphia (Ezr 8 16; 1 Esd 8 44). Doubtless the same as (24) or (25), above.

(27) One of the persons who stood by Ezra at the reading of the Law (Neh 8 4; 1 Esd 9 44); almost certainly identical with (26).

(28) A son of Elam, who had taken a foreign wife (Ezr 10 26; 1 Esd 9 27).

(29) A son of Amariah, a Judahite, the ancestor of certain persons dwelling in Jerus (Neh 11 4). (30) A son of "the Shilonite," the ancestor of

certain persons dwelling in Jerus (Neh 11 5).

BURTON SCOTT EASTON ZECHARIAH (בְּרֶיהוּ, zekharyāh, בְּרֶיהוּ, zekharyāhū, "Jeh has remembered" [2 K 14 29; 15 8–12]; Zaxapías, Zacharias; AV Zachariah): Son of Jeroboam II, and 14th king of Israel. He was the 4th of the line of Jehu, and reigned six months. Zechariah succeeded to a splendid inheritance, as he was king, not only of the ten tribes of Israel, but of the Syrian state of Damascus, which his father had subdued. In the unusual wealth and dignity of this position lay his peril. Also there were two dark shadows falling across his path, though both probably unseen by him. One was the promise to Jehu, as the reward of his destroying the worship of Baal in Israel, that his sons should sit on the throne of Israel to the 4th generation (2 K 10 30; 15 12). Zechariah was Jehu's great-greatgrandson. The other was the word of Amos to the priest of Bethel: "Then said the Lord I will rise against the house of Jeroboam with the sword" (Am 7 8.9).

The only brief notice of Zechariah personal to himself is that he gave his support to the worship of the calves, since Jeroboam I established the religion of the state. He hardly had time, however, to identify himself with this or any institution before he was publicly assassinated by Shallum, the son of Jabesh (he "smote him before the people"). The prophet Hosea was then alive, and there is probably allusion to this crime when, addressing Ephraim, he says: "Where is thy king, that he may save thee in all thy cities? . . . I have given thee a king in mine anger, and have taken him away in my wrath" (Hos **13** 10.11; cf **1** 4).

There has long been difficulty with the chronology of this period. Archbishop Ussher assumed an interregnum of 11 years between the death of Jeroboam II and Zechariah's accession. This is accepted as probable by a recent writer, who sees "at least 10 years of incessant conflict between rival claimants to the throne on Jeroboam's death" (see art. "Zechariah" in HDB, IV). It seems more likely that there is error in certain of the synchronisms. The year of Zechariah's accession was probably 759 BC (some put it later), and the 6 months of his reign, with that given to Shallum, may be included in the 10 years of Menahem, who followed them (2 K 15 17). See CHRONOLOGY OF THE OT. W. SHAW CALDECOTT

ZECHARIAH, BOOK OF:

The Prophet His Times and Mission Contents and Analysis The Critical Question Involved The Unity of the Book

Conclusion

LITERATURE

Few books of the OT are as difficult of interpretation as the Book of Zechariah; no other book is Jewish expositors like Abarbanel as Messianic. and Jarchi, and Christian expositors such as Jerome, are forced to concede that they have failed "to find their hands" in the exposition of it, and that in their investigations they passed from one laby-rinth to another, and from one cloud into another, until they lost themselves in trying to discover the prophet's meaning. The scope of Zechariah's vision and the profundity of his thought are almost without a parallel. In the present writer's judgment, his book is the most Messianic, the most truly apocalyptic and eschatological, of all the writings of the OT.

Zechariah was the son of Berechiah, and the grandson of Iddo (Zec 1 1.7). The same Iddo seems to be mentioned among the priests who returned from exile under Zerubbabel and Joshua in the year 536 BC (Neh 12 4; Ezr 2 2). If so, 1. The Prophet Zechariah was a priest as well as a prophet, and pre-sumably a young man when he began to preach. Tradition, on the contrary, declares that he was well advanced in years. He apparently survived Haggai, his contemporary (Ezr 5 1; 6 14). He was a poet as well as a prophet. Nothing is known of his end. The Tg says he died a martyr.

The earliest date in his book is the 2d year (520 BC) of the reign of Darius Hystaspis, and the latest,

the 4th year of the same king's reign (1.1.7; 7.1). Though these are the only dates given in his writings, it is Times and possible of course that he may have Mission continued active for several additional

years. Otherwise, he preached barely two years. The conditions under which he labored were similar to those in Haggai's times. Indeed, Haggai had begun to preach just two months before Zechariah was called. At that time there were upheavals and commotions in different parts of the Pers empire, esp. in the N.E. Jeremiah's prophecies regarding the domination of Babylon for 70 years had been fulfilled (Jer 15 11; 29 10). The returned captives were becoming disheartened and depressed because Jeh had not made it possible to restore Zion and rebuild the temple. The foundations of the latter had been already laid, but as yet there was no superstructure (Ezr 3 8-10; Zec 1 16). The altar of burnt offering was set up upon its old site, but as yet there were no priests worthy to officiate in the ritual of sacrifice (Ezr 3 2.3; Zec 3 3). The people had fallen into apathy, and needed to be aroused to their opportunity. Haggai had given them real initiative, for within 24 days after he began to preach the people began to work (Hag 1 1.15). It was left for Zechariah to bring the task of temple-building to completion. This Zechariah did successfully; this, indeed, was his primary mission and work.

The prophecies of Zechariah naturally fall into two parts, chs 1-8 and 9-14, both of which begin with the present and look forward

3. Contents into the distant future. (1) Chs 1-8, and consisting of three distinct messages delivered on three different occasions:

(a) 1 1-6, an introduction, delivered in the 8th month of the 2d year of Darius Hystaspis (520 BC). These words, having been spoken three months before the prophecies which follow, are obviously a general introduction. They are decidedly spiritual and strike the keynote of the entire collection. In them the prophet issues one of the strongest and most intensely spiritual calls to repentance to be found in the OT. (b) 1 7-6 15, a series of eight night visions, followed by a coronation scene, all delivered on the 24th day of the 11th month of the same 2d year of Darius (520 BC), or exactly two months after the corner stone of the temple had been laid (Hag 2 18; Zec 1 7). These

visions were intended to encourage the people to rebuild God's house. They are eight in number, and teach severally the following lessons:

(a) The vision of the horses (1 7-17), teaching God's special care for and interest in his people: "My house shall be built" (ver 16). (β) The four horns and four smiths (1 18-21), teaching that Israel's foes have finally been destroyed; in fact that they have destroyed themselves. There is no longer, therefore, any opposition to building God's house. (γ) The man with a measuring line (ch 2), teaching that God will re-people, protect and dwell in Jerus as soon as the sacred edifice has been built. The city itself will expand till it becomes a great metropolis without walls; Jeh will be a wall of fire round about it. (δ) Joshua, the high priest, clad in filthy garments, and bearing the sins both of himself and the people (ch 3); but cleansed, continued and made typical of the Messiah-Branch to come. (ε) The candelabrum and the two olive trees (ch 4), teaching that the visible must give place to the spiritual, and that, through "the two sons of oil," Zerubbabel the layman, and Joshua the priest (ver 14), the light of God's church will continue to burn with ever-flaming brightness. For it is "not by might" but by Jeh's Spirit, i.e. by Divine life and animation, by Divine vigor and vivacity, by Divine disposition and courage, by Divine executive ability and technical skill, that God's house shall be built and supplied with spiritual life (ver 6). (f) The flying roll (5 1-4), teaching that when the temple is built and God's law is taught the land shall be purified from outward wickedness. (η) The Ephah (5 5-11); wickedness personified is borne

away back to the land of Shinar, teaching that when the temple is rebuilt wickedness shall be actually removed from the land. (θ) The four chariots (6 1–8), teaching that God's protecting providence will be over His sanctuary, and that His people, purified from sin, shall rest secure in Him. These eight visions are followed by a coronation scene, in which Joshua the high priest is crowned and made typical of the Messiah-Priest-King, whose name is Branch (6 9–15). (c) Chs 7, 8, Zechariah's answer to the Bethel deputation concerning fasting; delivered on the 4th day of the 9th month of the 4th year of Darius (518 BC). The Jews had been accustomed to fast on the anniversaries of the following four great outstanding events in the history of their capital: (a) when Nebuchadnezzar took Jerus, in the 4th month (Jer 52 6); (β) when the Temple was burned in the 5th month (Jer 52 12); (γ) when Gedaliah was murdered in the 7th month (Jer 41 2); and (δ) when the siege of Jerus was begun in the 10th month (Z K 25 1).

There are four sections to the prophet's answer divided by the slightly varying formula, "The word of Jeh came unto me" (7 4.8; 8 1.18), and teaching: (a) Fasting affects only yourselves; God requires obedience (7 4-7). (b) Look at the lesson from your fathers; they forsook justice and compassion and God punished them (7 8-14). (c) Jeh is now waiting to return to Jerus to save His people in truth and holiness. In the future, instead of a curse God will send blessing, instead of evil, good (8 1-17). (d) In fact, your fasts shall be changed into festivals, and many nations shall in that day

seek Jeh of hosts in Jerus (8 18-23).

(2) Chs 9-14, consisting of two oracles, without dates; (a) chs 9-11, an oracle of promise to the new theocracy. This section contains promises of a land in which to dwell, a return from exile, victory over a hostile world-power, temporal blessings and national strength, closing with a parable of judgment brought on by Israel's rejection of Jeh as their shepherd; thus Judah and Ephraim restored, united and made victorious over their enemies, are promised a land and a king (ch 9); Israel shall be saved and strengthened (ch 10); Israel shall be punished for rejecting the shepherding care of Jeh (ch 11); (b) chs 12-14, an oracle describing the victories of the new theocracy, and the coming day of Jeh. This section is strongly eschatological, presenting three distinct apocalyptic pictures: thus, how Jerus shall be besieged by her enemies, but saved by Jeh (ch 12); how a remnant of Israel purified and refined shall be saved (ch 13); closing with a grand apocalyptic vision of judgment and redemption—the nations streaming up to Jerus to keep the joyous Feast of Tabernacles, and everything in that day becoming holy to Jeh.

There are two opposing schools of criticism in regard to the origin of chs 9-14; one holds what is known as the preëxilic hypothesis, 4. Critical according to which chs 9-14 were

4. Critical according to which chs 9-14 were written before the downfall of Jerus; more specifically, that chs 9-11 and 13 7-9 spring from the 8th cent.

BC, having been composed perhaps by Zechariah, the son of Jeberechiah mentioned in Isa 8 2; whereas chs 12-14, excepting 13 7-9, were composed by some unknown contemporary of Jeremiah in the 7th cent. BC. On the other hand, there are also those who advocate a late post-Zecharian origin for chs 9-14, somewhere about the 3d cent. BC. The latter hypothesis is today the more popular. Over against these the traditional view, of course, is that Zechariah, near the close of the 6th cent., wrote the entire book ascribed to him. Only chs 9-14 are in dispute. No one doubts the genuine-

ness of chs 1-8.

The following are the main arguments of those who advocate a preëxilic origin for these oracles: (1) 11 8, "And I cut off the three shepherds in one month." These "three shepherds" are identified with certain kings who reigned but a short time each in the Northern Kingdom; for example, Zechariah, Shallum and Menahem (2 K 15 8-14). But the difficulty with this argument is that they were not cut off "in one month"; Menahem, on the contrary, reigned 10 years in Samaria (2 K 15 17). (2) 12 11-14, which speaks of "a great mourning in Jerus, as the mourning of Hadadrimmon in the valley of Megiddon," is claimed to fix the date of (2 K 23 29; 2 Ch 35 22). But surely the mourning of Judah for Josiah might have been remembered for a century, from 609 BC till 518 BC. (3) 14 5, referring to the "earthquake" in the days of Uzziah, is another passage fastened upon to prove the preëxilic origin of these prophecies. But the earthquake which is here alluded to took place at least a century and a half before the date assigned for the composition of ch 14. And century, from 609 BC till 518 BC. (3) 14 5, referring to the "earthquake" in the days of Uzziah, is another passage fastened upon to prove the preëxilic origin of these prophecies. But the earthquake which is here alluded to took place at least a century and a half before the date assigned for the composition of ch 14. And surely if an earthquake can be alluded to by an author 150 years after it occurs, Zechariah, who lived less than a century later, might have alluded to it also. (4) Amch stronger argument in favor of a preëxilic origin of these prophecies is the names given to the thoccracy, e.g. "Epiraim" and "Jorusalem" (9 10), "Judah and "Daynam" (10 6), "Judah and Israel" (11 14), implying that the kingdoms of Israel and Judah are still standing. But subsequent to the captivity the Jews ever regarded themselves as representatives of the 12 tribes, as is obvious from their offering 12 sacrifices (Ezr 6 17; 8 35). Moreover, old names such as "Israel" and "Judah" long survived (cf Jer 31 27-31; Zec 8 13). (5) 14 10, which defines the area occupied by Judah as extending "from Geba to Rimmon," which corresponds, it is alleged, with the conditions which prevailed just prior to the captivity. But it satisfies equally well the conditions after the exile in Zechariah's own time. (6) Again, it is argued that the national sins, the prevailing sins, idolatry, teraphim and false prophecy (10 2; 13 2-6), are those of preëxilic times. But the same sins peristed in the post-exilic congregation (Neh 6 7-14 Ma 14 Ma 15 Ma

The other hypothesis remaining to be discussed is that known as the post-Zecharian. This may be said to represent the prevailing critical view at the present time. But it, like the preëxilic hypothesis, is based upon a too literalistic and mechanical view of prophecy. Those, like Stade, Wellhausen, Kuenen, Marti, Kautzsch, Cornill, Cheyne, Driver, Kuiper, Echardt and Mitchell, who advocate this view, employ the same critical methods as those whose views we have just discussed, but arrive at diametrically opposite conclusions. Indeed, no two critics agree as to the historical circumstances which produced these oracles. Most are of the opinion, however, that these chapters were composed during the Gr period, i.e. after 333 BC. In examining the arguments urged by the representa-tives of this school special caution is needed in distinguishing between the grounds advanced in support of a post-exilic and those which argue a post-Zecharian date. The former we may for the most part accept, as Zechariah was himself a post-exilic prophet; the latter we must first examine. In favor of a very late or Grecian origin for chs 9-14, the chief and all-important passage, and the one upon which more emphasis is placed than upon all others together, is 9 13, "For I have bent Judah for me, I have filled the bow with Ephraim; and I will stir up thy sons, O Zion, against thy sons, O Greece, and will make thee as the sword of a mighty man. Kuiper in summing up throws the whole weight of his argument in favor of a Gr date on this verse. Wellhausen makes it decide the date of these prophecies; while Stade declares that the announcement of the "sons of Javan" is alone sufficient to prove that these prophecies are after 333 BC. Two things are esp. emphasized by critics in connection with this important passage: (1) that the sons of Javan are the world-power of the author's day, viz. the Gr-Maccabean world-power; and (2) that they are the enemies of Zion. But in opposition to these claims it should be observed (1) that the sons of Javan are but one of several world-powers within the range of the prophet's horizon (9 1-7, Syria, Phoenicia, Philistia; 12 2 f; 14 2 f, all nations; and 10 10.11, Assyria and Egypt); and (2) that the Greeks under Alexander were not the enemies of Zion, and did not fight against the Jews. but against the Persians. Assuming the genuineness of the passage (9 13), the following considerations point to the Pers period as its probable historical background: (a) The prophecy would be vague and meaningless if uttered after the invasion of Alexander. (b) The passage does not describe a victory for the sons of Javan, but rather a defeat. (c) It is introduced by an appeal to those still in exile to return, which would have been quite meaningless after Alexander's conquest. (d) In short, 9 13-17, as a whole, is not a picture of actual war, but rather an apocalyptic vision of the struggle of Israel with the world-power of the West, hence its indefiniteness and figurative language.

indefiniteness and figurative language.

Furthermore, it must not be forgotten that in Zechariah's own day the Greeks were rapidly becoming a menacing world-power. In the first 3 years (521–519 BC) of Darius' reign, 12 different revolts took place, principally in the N. and E. But, in 518, Darius was compelled to move westward at the head of his royal armies; Darius' visit to Egypt in 517 BC was cut short by the disturbances of the Greeks (cf Wiedemann, Gesch., 236). In the year 516 BC the Greeks of the Hellespont and Bosporus, with the island of Samos, were made to submit to Pers rule. The next year (515 BC), Darius led an expedition against the Scythians across the Danube, the failure of which encouraged the Ionians subsequently to revolt. In 500 BC the great Ionian revolt actually took place. In 490 BC Marathon was fought and Persia was conquered. In 480 BC Xerxes was defeated at Salamis. But it is unnecessary to sketch the rise of Javan further. Enough has been related to show that already in the reign of

Darius Hystaspis—in whose reign Zechariah is known to have lived and prophesied—the sons of Greece were a rising world-power, and a threatening world-power. This is all really that is required by the passage. The sons of Javan were but one of Israel's enemies in Zechariah's day; but they were of such importance that victory over them carried with it momentous Messianic interests. The language of ch 9 is vague, and, in our judgment, too vague and too indefinite to have been uttered after Marathon (490 BC), or even after the burning of Sardis (500 BC); for, in that case, the author would have been influenced more by Greece and less by the movements and commotions of the nations. commotions of the nations.

Other arguments advanced by the post-Zecharian school are: (1) 14 9, "And Jeh shall be King over all the earth: in that day shall Jeh be one, and his name one." To Stade this passage contains a polemic against the conditions in Gr times when all gods were conceived of as only different representations of one and the same god. But, on the contrary, the post-exilic congregation was as truly a theocracy in the days of Darius Hystaspis as in the period subsequent to Alexander's conquest. The Jewish colony of the Restoration was a religious sect, not a political organization. Zechariah often pictures the close relation of Jeh to His people (2 10-13; 8 3.23), and the author of chs 9-14 describes similar conditions. The "yearning for a fuller similar conditions. The "yearning for a fuller theocracy," which Cheyne (Bampton Lectures, 120) discovers in Zec 9-14, is thoroughly consistent with the yearning of a struggling congregation in a land of forsaken idols shortly after the return from exile.
(2) 12 2b, interpreted to mean that "Judah also, forced by the enemy, shall be in the siege against Jerus," is a proof, it is alleged, that the children of the Diaspora had served as soldiers. The verse, accordingly, is said to be a description of the hostile relations which actually existed between Jerus and Judah in the beginning of the Maccabean struggle. The validity of these claims, however, is vitiated by a correct exegesis of the passage in hand. The text is apparently corrupt. In order to obtain a subject for "shall be," the preposition before Judah thad better be stricken out, as in the Tg. The passage then trd reads, "And Judah also shall be in the siege against Jerus." But this is ambiguous. It may mean that Judah shall fight against Jerus, or it may mean that Judah, too, shall be besieged. The latter is obviously the true meaning of the passage, as ver 7 indicates. For, as one nation might besiege Jerus (a city), so all nations, coming up are prac-tically going to besiege Judah. The LXX favors this interpretation; likewise the Coptic VS; and Wellhausen frankly concedes that "no characteristic of the prophecy under discussion in reality agrees with the conditions of the Maccabean time. The Maccabees were not the Jews of the lowland, and they did not join themselves with the heathen out of hatred to the city of Jerus, in order finally to fall treacherously upon their companions in war. There is not the slightest hint in our passage of religious persecution; that alone decides, and hence the most important sign of Maccabean times is wanting." (3) 10 10.11, which mentions "Egypt" and "Assyria" (and which, strange to say, is also one of the strongest proofs in support of the preëxilic hypothesis), is singularly enough interpreted to refer respectively to the Ptolemies of Egypt and the Seleucidae of Syria. But this is quite impossible, and esp. so in view of the prominence which is given to Egypt in 14 19, which points to Pers rather than Gr conditions; for then Egypt, in consequence of her perpetual efforts to throw off the Pers yoke, was naturally brought under the observation of the Jews in Pal, who repeatedly beheld the Pers armies passing on their way to the valley of the Nile.

(4) Still another argument advanced in favor of a late post-Zecharian date for these oracles is that from language and style: Aramaisms, scriptio plena, the pre-

ponderance of the shorter form of the personal pronoun "I," the Heb ending on, the frequent use of the nota accusativi, esp. with suffixes, the omission of the article, the use of the infinitive absolute, and the clumsy diction and weary repetition of these prophecies are pointed to as evidence of their origin in Grecian times. But in opposition to these claims, it may be remarked in general that their force is greatly weakened by two considerations:

(a) the fact that the author of chs 9-14 depends so largely on older prophecies for his thoughts, and consequently more or less for his language; and (b) the fact that these prophecies are so very brief. There is no mode of reasoning so treacherous as that from language and style.

(For the technical discussion of this point, see the present writer's The Prophecies of Zechariah, 54-59.)

Among the further objections made to the genu-

ineness of chs 9-14, and consequently to the unity of the book, the following are the chief:
(1) There are no "visions" in these oracles as in chs 1-6. But there are 5. The Unity of none either in chs 7, 8, and yet these latter are not denied to Zechariah. the Book As a matter of fact, however, visions do actually occur in chs 9-14, only of a historico-parabolic occur in chs 9-14, only of a historico-parabolic (11 4-17) and eschatological character (9 13-17; chs 12, 14). (2) There are "no dates," as in 1 1.7; 7 1. But dates are seldom attached to "oracles" (Isa 13 1; 15 1; Nah 1 1; Hab 1 1; Mal 1 1). There is but one instance in the entire OT (Isa 14 28m); whereas "visions" are frequently dated. (3) There is "no Satan." But Satan is never mentioned elsewhere in any prophetic book of the OT. (4) There is "no interpreting angel" in chs 9-14. But "oracles" need no interpreting angel. On the other hand, "the Angel of Jeh" is mentioned in both parts (3 1 ff; 12 8), a fact which is far more noteworthy. (5) Proper names are wanting in chs 9-14, e.g. Zerubbabel and Joshua. But neither do these names occur in chs 7, 8. (6) But neither do these names occur in chs 7, 8. The sins alluded to are different, e.g. theft and false swearing in 5 3.4; while in 10 2 seeking teraphim and in 13 2 ff false prophecy are named. But these sins may have existed side by side. What is far more noteworthy, in both parts the prophet declares that all these evils shall be taken away and removed out of the land (3 9; 5 9-11; 13 1.2). (7) The Messianic pictures are different, e.g. in chs 1-8 the Messiah is spoken of as Branch-Priest (3 8.9; 6 12.13); whereas in chs 9-14, as King (9 9.10). But in 6 13 it is expressly stated that the Branch-Priest "shall sit and rule upon his throne." Of far greater moment is the picture of the nations coming to Zion to worship Jeh. This remarkable picture recurs in all the different sections of the book (6 12.13.15; 8 20-23; 12 6; 14 16-19).

On the other hand, the following are some of the arguments which favor the genuineness of these disputed chapters: (1) The fundamental ideas of both parts are the same. By this we mean that the deeper we go the nearer we approach unity. As Dr. G. A. Smith argues against Graetz, who divides Hos 1-3 from Hos 4-14, "in both parts there are the same religious principles and the same urgent and jealous temper"; the same is equally true of Zec 1-8 and Zec 9-14. Certain similarities are esp. noteworthy, e.g. (a) an unusually deep, spiritual tone pervades the entire book. The call to a true repentance, first sounded forth in the introduction (1 1-7), is developed more and more throughout the entire 14 chs; thus, in the sanctifying of Joshua (3 4), in the message to Zerubbabel, "not by might, nor by power, but by my Spirit' (4 6), in the conditions of future blessing (6 15), in the answer to the Bethel deputation (7 5–9; 8 16 ff); and in chs 9-14, in the consecration of the remnant of the Philis (9 7), in the blessings to Ephraim (10 12), in the baptism of grace upon Jerus (12 10), in the fountain for sin (13 1), in the worship of Jeh (13 9), in the living waters going forth from Jerus (14 8), and in the dedication of everything as holy

unto the Lord (14 20.21). The tone which tempers these prophecies is an extraordinarily deep and spiritual one throughout. And this argument cannot be set aside by rejecting wholesale certain passages as later interpolations, as is done by Mitchell (ICC, 242–44). (b) There is a similar attitude of hope and expectation in both parts. This is esp. important. For example, (a) the This is esp. important. For example, (a) the return of the whole nation is a prevailing idea of happiness in both parts (2 6.10; 8 7.8; 9 12; 10 6.7). (β) The expectation that Jerus shall be inhabited (1 16.17; 2 4; 8 3.8; 12 6; 14 10.11), (γ) and that the temple shall be built and become the center of the nation's religious life (1 16.17; 3 7; 6 15; 7 2.3; 9 8; 14 20.21). (8) Messianic 3 7; 6 15; 7 2.3; 9 8; 14 20.21). (6) Messianic hope is peculiarly strong in both (3 8.9; 6 12.13; 9 9.10; 11 12.13; 12 10; 13 1.7-9). (ε) Peace and prosperity are expected (1 17; 3 10; 6 13; 8 12.19; 9 10.12-17; 10 1.7.8.10.12; 12 8; 14 11.16-19). (ξ) The idea of God's providence as extending to the whole earth (1 14-17; 2 9.12; 4 10; 6 5; 9 1. 8.14; 10 3.5.9.12; 12 2-4.8; 13 7; 14 3.9). Again, (c) the prophet's attitude toward Judah is the same in both parts. It is an attitude of supreme regard for Judah's interests, making them second only to the capital (2 2.4.16; 8 19; 1 12; 8 13.15; 12 2; 14 14; 10 3; 12 4.6.7; 14 21; 9 9.13; 10 6; 11 14; 14 5). The prophet's attitude toward the nations, the enemies of the theocracy, is the same in both parts. The whole assembled world are the enemies of Israel. But though they have scattered Judah, Israel and Jerus (1 11), and are still coming up to besiege Jerus (12 2; 14 2), yet they shall be joined to the Lord in that day (2 11) and worship Jeh like the Jews (8 20–23; 14 16–19). These are all striking instances of similarity in the fundamental ideas of the two parts of the book.

(2) There are peculiarities of thought common to both parts: e.g. (a) the habit of dwelling on the same thought (2 1.4.5.11; 6 12.13; 8 4.5; 8 21.22; 11 8; || 13 3; 14 5.16.18.19); (b) the habit of expanding one fundamental thought into a series of clauses (6 13; 9 5.7; 1 17; 3 8.9; 12 4); (c) the habit of referring to a thought already introduced: e.g. to the "Branch" (3 8; 6 12); "eyes" (3 9; 4 10); measuring "line" (1 16; 2 5.6); choosing Jerus (1 17; 2 12; 3 2); removing iniquity (3 9; 5 3 ff; 13 2); measurements (5 2; 14 10); colors of horses (1 8; 6 2.6); the idea of Israel as a "flock" (9 16; 10 2; 11 4 f; 13 7); idols (10 2; 13 2); shepherds (11 3 ff; 14 2 ff); Mitchell in attempting to answer this argument has failed utterly to grasp the point (ICC, 243); (d) the use made of the cardinal number "two"; thus, two olive trees (4 3); two women (5 9); two mountains (6 1); two staves (11 7); two parts (14 2.4); with which compare 6 13; 9 12; 14 8; (e) the resort in each part of the book to symbolic actions as a mode of instruction; e.g. the coronation scene in 6 9-15, and the breaking of the two staves in 11 4-14.

(3) Certain peculiarities of diction and style favor unity of authorship; e.g. the phrase "no man passed through nor returned" (7 14; 9 8) never occurs elsewhere in the OT. The author's preference for and frequent use of vocatives (2 7.10; 3 2.8; 4 7; 9 9.13; 11 1.2; 13 7); and esp. the frequent alternation of the scriptio plena and the scriptio defectiva orthography in the Heb (cf 1 2.5 with 1 4.6 and 8 14; 2 11 with 5 7; 1 11 with 7 7; 9 5 with 10 5.11; and 10 4 with 9 9).

Accordingly, we conclude, (1) that chs 9-14 are of post-exilic origin; (2) that they are not, however, late post-exilic; (3) that they had their origin in the period just before the completion of the temple, 516 BC, and (4) that they were probably composed by

Zechariah himself. This conclusion is based upon the text taken as a whole, without an arbitrary dis-

section of the prophecies in the interests of a false theory. Mitchell (ICC, 258-59), after eliminating numerous individual passages, arrives at the con-

clusion that chs 9-14 were written by four different writers; (1) 9 1-10, soon after 333 BC; (2) 9 11-11 3, about 247-222 BC; (3) 11 4-17 and 13 7-9, between 217 and 204 BC; and (4) 12 1-13 6 and ch 14, about the same time. Tradition points to a saner and securer conclusion, that these oracles were written by Zechariah himself; which in turn is corroborated by internal evidence, as has been shown above. One wonders why these oracles, written so late in Israel's history, should have been appended by the collectors of the Canon to the genuine prophecies of Zechariah, if, as is alleged, that prophet had nothing whatever to do with them!

with them!

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GEORGE L. ROBINSON ZECHER, zē'kēr (¬¬¬, zākher, pausal form for ¬¬¬, zekher, "memorial"; AV Zacher): In 1 Ch 8 31="Zechariah" of 1 Ch 9 37. See Zеснагіан, (5).

ZECHRIAS, zek-rī'as (Β, Ζεχρίαs, Zechrias, A and Fritzsche, Έζερίαs, Ezerias; AV Ezerias): An ancestor of Ezra (1 Esd 8 1)="Azariah" of Ezr 7 1.

ZEDAD, zē'dad (פּרֵבֶּלְי, çºdhādhāh, only found with Hē locale; Sam פּרִבְּלְי, ϛ̞ºrādhāh; LXX Σαρα-δάκ, Saradák, Σαδαδάκ, Sadadák, Σαδδάκ, Saddák): A town or district named in Nu 34 8; Ezk 47 15 as on the ideal northern boundary of Israel. The uncertainty of the reading has led to two different identifications being proposed. The form "Zerad" was accepted by von Kasteren, and his identification was Khirbet Serada in the Merj 'Ayun, W. of the Hasbany branch of the Jordan and N. of the Hasbany branch of the Jordan and N. of Abil. This identification, however, would compel us to draw the ideal boundary along the Qasmiyeh valley and thence eastward to Hermon, and that

is much too far S. If with Dillmann, Wetzstein, Muehlau and others we read "Zedad," then it is clearly identical with Sadad, a village on the road between Ribleh and Karyetain. It has been objected that Sadad is too far to the E.; but here, as in the tribal boundaries also, the references are rather to the district or lands possessed than to their central town or village. W. M. Christie

ZEDECHIAS, zed-ė-kī'as: 1 Esd 1 46 AV = RV "Sedekias."

ZEDEKIAH, zed-ė-kī'a (אָדְקּרָהרּ , çidhķīyāhū, קָּיִר, cidhkīyāh, "Jeh my righteousness"; Σεδεκιά, Sedekia, Σεδεκίας, Sedekias):

(1) The son of Chenaanah (1 K 22 11.24; 2 Ch 18 10.23). Zedekiah was apparently the leader and spokesman of the 400 prophets attached to the court in Samaria whom Ahab summoned in response to Jehoshaphat's request that a prophet of Jeh should be consulted concerning the projected cam-paign against Ramoth-gilead. In order the better to impress his audience Zedekiah produced iron horns, and said to Ahab, "With these shalt thou push the Syrians, until they be consumed." He also endeavored to weaken the influence of Micaiah ben Imlah upon the kings by asking ironically, "Which way went the Spirit of Jeh from me to speak unto thee?"

In Jos (Ant, VIII, xv, 4) there is an interesting rearrangement and embellishment of the Bib. narrative. There Zedekiah is represented as arguing that since Micalah contradicts Elijah's prediction as to the place of Ahab's death, he must be regarded as a false prophet. Then, smiting his opponent, he prayed that if he were in the wrong his right hand might forthwith be withered. Ahab, seeing that no harm befell the hand that had smitten Micaiah, was convinced; whereupon Zedekiah completed his triumph by the incident of the horns mentioned above.

(2) The son of Maaseiah (Jer 29 21-23). false prophet who, in association with another. Ahab by name, prophesied among the exiles in Babylon, and foretold an early return from cap-tivity. Jeremiah sternly denounced them, not only for their false and reckless predictions, but also for their foul and adulterous lives, and declared that their fate at the hands of Nebuchadnezzar should become proverbial in Israel.

(3) The son of Hananiah (Jer 36 12). the princes of Judah before whom Jeremiah's roll

was read in the 5th year of Jehoiakim.

(4) One of the officials who sealed the renewed covenant (Neh 10 1, AV "Zid-kijah"). The fact that his name is coupled with Nehemiah's suggests that he was a person of importance. But nothing further is known of him.

(5) The last king of Judah (see following art.).

kias):

I. Sources for His Reign and Time
1. Annalistic
2. Prophetic
II. The Administration of the Last King of Judah
1. The Situation
2. The Parvenu Temper
3. Inconsistencies

4. Character of the King 5. His Fate 6. Doom of the Nation

The last king of Judah, uncle and successor of Jehoiachin; reigned 11 years, from 597 to 586, and was carried captive to Babylon.

I. Sources for His Reign and Time.—Neither of the accounts in 2 K 24 18-25 7 and 2 Ch 36 11-21 refers, as is the usual custom, to state annals;

these ran out with the reign of Jehoiakim. history in 2 K is purely scribal and annalistic in tone; 2 Ch, esp. as it goes on to the 1. Annalcaptivity, is more fervid and homiletic. istic Both have a common prophetic origin; and indeed the last chapter of Jer (52), which is put as an appendix to the book of his prophecy, tells the story of the reign and subsequent events, much as does 2 K, but in somewhat fuller

detail.

Two prophets are watching with keen eyes the progress of this reign, both with the poignant sense that the end of the Judaean state is imminent: Jeremiah 2. Prophetic in Jerus and Ezekiel, one of the captives in the deportation with Jeholachin, in Babylon. Dates are supplied with the prophecies of both: Jeremiah's numbered from the beginning of the reign and not consecutive; Ezekiel's numbered from the beginning of the first captivity, and so coinciding with Jeremiah's. From these dated prophecies the principal ideas are to be formed of the real inwardness of the time and the character of the administration. The prophetic passages identifiable with this reign, counted by its years, are: Jer 24, after the deportation of Jeholachin (Jeconiah)—the inferior classes left with Zedekiah (cf Ezk 11 15; 17 12-14); Jer 27-29, beginning of reign—talse hopes of return of captives and tutile diplomacies with neighboring nations; Jer 51 59. 4th year—Z's visit to Babylon; Ezk 4-7, 5th year—symbolic prophecies of the coming end of Judah; Ezk 8-12, 6th year—quasi-clairvoyant view of the idolatrous corruptions in Jerus; Ezk 17 11-21, same year—Z's treacherous intrigues with Egypt; Ezk 21 18-23, 7th year—Nebuchadnezzar casting a divination to determine his invasion of Judah; Jer 21, undated but soon after—deputation from the king to the prophet inquiring Jeh's purpose; Jer 34 1-7, undated—the prophet's word to the king while Nebuchadnezzar's invasion is still among the cities of the land; Ezk 24 1.2, 9th year—telepathic awareness of the beginning of the siege, synchronistic with Jer 39 1-10; 2 K 25 1-7; Jer 37, 38, undated, but soon after—prophecies connected with the temporary raising of the siege and the false faith of the ruling classes; Jer 32, 10th year—Jeremiah's redemption of his Anathoth property in the midst of siege, and the good presage of the act; Jer 39, 11th year—annalistic account of the breaching of the city wall and the flight and eventual fate of the king. A year and a half later Ezekiel (33 21.22) hear detail.

II. The Administration of the Last King of Judah.-When Nebuchadnezzar took away Jehoia-

chin, and with him all the men of weight

1. The and character (see under Jeholachin), Situation his object was plain: to leave a people so broken in resources and spirit that they would not be moved to rebellion (see Ezk 17 14). But this measure of his effected a segmentation of the nation which the prophets immediately recognized as virtually separating out their spiritual 'remnant" to go to Babylon, while the worldly and inferior grades remained in Jerus. These are sharply distinguished from each other by Jeremiah in his parable of the Figs (ch 24), published soon after the first deportation. The people that were left were probably of the same sort that Zephaniah described a few years before, those who had "settled on their lees" (1 12), a godless and inert element in religion and state. Their religious disposition is portrayed by Ezekiel in Z.'s 6th year, in his clairvoyant vision of the uncouth temple rites, as it were a cesspool of idolatry, maintained under the pretext that Jeh had forsaken the land (see Ezk 8). Clearly these were not of the prophetic stamp. It was over such were not of the prophetic stamp. It was over such an inferior grade of people that Z. was appointed to a thankless and tragic reign.

For a people so raw and inexperienced in administration the prophets recognized one clear duty: to keep the oath which they had given to Nebuchadnezzar (see Ezk 17 14-16). But they acted like men intoxicated with new power; their accession to property and unwonted position turned their heads. Soon after the beginning of the reign we find Jeremiah giving emphatic warning both to his nation and the ambassadors of neighboring nations against a rebellious coalition (Jer 27 mistakenly dated in the 4th year of Jehoiakim; cf vs 3.12); he has also an encounter with prophets who, in contradiction of his consistent

message, predict the speedy restoration of Jehoiachin and the temple vessels. The king's visit to Babylon (Jer 51 59) was probably made to clear himself of complicity in treasonable plots. Their evil genius, Egypt, however, is busy with the too headstrong upstart rulers; and about the middle of the reign Z. breaks his covenant with his over-lord and, relying on Egypt, embarks on rebellion. The prophetic view of this movement is, that it is a moral outrage; it is breaking a sworn word (Ezk 17 15-19), and thus falsifying the truth of Jeh.

This act of rebellion against the king of Babylon was not the only despite done to "Jeh's oath." Its

immediate effect, of course, was to precipitate the invasion of the Chaldaean forces, apparently from Riblah on the Orontes, where for several years

Nebuchadnezzar had his headquarters. Ezk has a striking description of his approach, halting to determine by arrow divination whether to proceed against Judah or Ammon (21 18-23). Before laying siege to Jerus, however, he seems to have spent some time reducing outlying fortresses (cf Jer 34 1-7); and during the suspense of this time the king sent a deputation to Jeremiah to inquire whether Jeh would not do "according to all his wondrous works," evidently hoping for some such miraculous deliverance as had taken place in the time of Sennacherib (Jer 21 1ff). The prophet gives his uniform answer, that the city must fall; advising the house of David also to "execute justice and righteousness." Setting about this counsel as if they would bribe Jeh's favor, the king then entered into an agreement with his people to free all their Hebrew bond-slaves (Jer 34 8-10), and sent back a deputation to the prophet entreating his intercession (Jer 37 3), as if, having bribed Jeh, they might work some kind of a charm on the Divine will. Nebuchadnezzar had meanwhile invested the city; but just then the Egyp army approached to aid Judah, and the Bab king raised the siege long enough to drive the Egyptians back to their own land; at which, judging that Jeh had interfered as of old, the people caused their slaves to return to their bondage (34 11). This treachery called forth a trenchant prophecy from Jeremiah, predicting not only the speedy return of the Chaldaean army (Jer 37 6-10), but the captivity of the king and the destruction of the city (Jer 34 17-22). It was during this temporary cessation of the siege that Jeremiah, attempting to go to Anathoth to redeem his family property, was seized on the pretext of deserting to the enemy, and put in prison (37 11-15).

During the siege, which was soon resumed, Z.'s character, on its good and bad sides, was revealed through his frequent contact with the

through his frequent contact with the 4. Character prophet Jeremiah. The latter was of the King a prisoner most of the time; and the indignities which he suffered, and which the king heedlessly allowed, show how the prophet's word and office had fallen in respect (cf the treatment he received, Jer 26 16–19 with 37 15; 38 6). The king, however, was not arrogant and heartless like his brother Jehoiakim; he was weak and without consistent principles; besides, he was rather helpless and timid in the hands of his headstrong officials (cf 38 5.24–26). His regard for the word of prophecy was rather superstitious than religious: while the prophet's message and counsel were uniformly consistent, he could not bring himself to follow the will of Jeh, and seemed to think that Jeh could somehow be persuaded to change his plans (see Jer 37 17; 38 14–16). His position was an exceedingly difficult one; but even so, he had not the firmness, the wisdom, the consistency

In his siege of the city Nebuchadnezzar depended mainly on starving it into surrender; and we cannot withhold a measure of admiration for a body of defenders who, in spite of the steadily decreasing

for it

food supply and the ravages of pestilence, held the city for a year and a half. During this time Jeremiah's counsel was well known: the

5. His Fate counsel of surrender, and the promise that so they could save their lives (Jer 21 9; 38 2). It was for this, indeed, that he was imprisoned, on the plea that he "weakened the hands" of the defenders; and it was due to the mercy of a foreign slave that he did not suffer death (38 7-9). At length in the 11th year of Z.'s reign, just as the supply of food in the city was exhausted, the Chaldaean army effected a breach in the wall, and the king of Babylon with his high officials came in and sat in the middle gate. Z. and his men of war, seeing this, fled by night, taking the ill-advised route by the road to Jericho; were pursued and captured in the plains of the Jordan; and Z. was brought before the king of Babylon at Riblah. After putting to death Z.'s sons and the nobles of Judah before his eyes, the king of Babylon then put out the eyes of Z. and carried him captive to Babylon, where, it is uncertain how long after, he died. Jeremiah had prophesied that he would die in peace and have a state mourning (Jer 34 4.5); Ezekiel's prophecy of his doom is enigmatic: "I will bring him to Babylon to the land of the Chaldeans; yet shall he not see it, though he shall die there' (Ezk 12 13).

The cruelly devised humiliation of the king was only an episode in the tragic doom of the city and nation. Nebuchadnezzar was not 6. Doom of minded to leave so stubborn and

the Nation treacherous a fortress on his path of conquest toward Egypt. A month after the event at Riblah his deputy, Nebuzaradan, entered upon the reduction of the city: burning the temple and all the principal houses, breaking down the walls, carrying away the temple treasures still unpillaged, including the bronze work which was broken into scrap metal, and deporting the people who were left after the desperate resistance and those who had voluntarily surrendered. The religious and state officials were taken to Riblah and put to death. "So," the historian concludes, "Judah was carried away captive out of his land" (Jer **52** 27). This was in 586 BC. This, however, was only the political date of the Bab exile, the retributive limit for those leavings of Israel who for 11 years had played an insincere game of admin-istration and failed. The prophetic date, from which Ezekiel reckons the years of exile, and from which the prophetic eye is kept on the fortunes and character of the people who are to be redeemed, was 597, when Jehoiachin's long imprisonment began and when the flower of Israel, transplanted to a foreign home, began its term of submission to the word and will of Jeh. It was this saving element in Israel who still had a recognized king and a promised future. By both Jeremiah and Ezekiel, Z. was regarded not as Jeh's anointed but as the one whom Nebuchad-nezzar "had made king" (Jer 37 1; Ezk 17 16), "the king that sitteth upon the throne of David" (Jer 29 16). The real last king of Judah was Jehoiachin; Ezekiel's title for Z. is "prince" (Ezk **12** 10). JOHN FRANKLIN GENUNG

ZEEB, zē'eb, zēb. See OREB AND ZEEB.

ZELEK, zē'lek (Þþþ, çelek, meaning unknown): An Ammonite, one of David's mighty men (2 S 23 37; 1 Ch 11 39).

ZELOPHEHAD, zē-lō'fē-had (קֶלֶפְּקָד, çºlophhādh, meaning unknown): Head of a Manassite family who died without male issue (Nu 26 33; 27 1.7; 36 2.6.10.11; Josh 17 3; 1 Ch 7 15). His daughters came to Moses and Eleazar and successfully pleaded for a possession for themselves (Nu 27 1ff). This became the occasion for a law providing that in the case of a man dying without sons, the inheritance was to pass to his daughters if he had any. A further request is made (Nu 36 2 ff) by the heads of the Gileadite houses that the women who were given this right of inheritance should be compelled to marry members of their own tribe, so that the tribe may not lose them and their property. This is granted and becomes law among the Hebrews.

Gray says (ICC on Nu 26 33) that the "daughters" of Zelophehad are towns or clans.

DAVID FRANCIS ROBERTS

ZELOTES, zė-lō'tēz (**Ζηλωτήs**, *Zēlōtēs*). See Simon the Zealot; Zealot, Zealots.

ZELZAH, zel'za (ΠΙΡΕΣ, çelçaḥ; ἀλλομένους μεγάλα, halloménous megála): Á place where Samuel told Saul he would meet two men with news that the asses were found. Its position is defined as "by Rachel's sepulchre, in the border of Benjamin" (1 S 10 2). It has been thought that the place of meeting was sufficiently indicated without the word breekah, which is trd "at Zelzah," and that this can-not therefore be a place-name. The LXX "leaping not therefore be a place-name. The LXX 'leaping mightily' or 'in great haste' (Ewald) points to a different text. Whether the Gr can be so trd is also a question, as *megala* does not elsewhere occur as an advb. Some corruption of the text is probable. The border of Benjamin may be roughly determined, but the tomb of Rachel is now unknown. No name like Zelzah has been recovered in the district. Smith ("Samuel," ICC, ad loc.) suggests that we should read "Zela" for "Zelzah" ("), çēlā', for W. EWING עלעה, çelçah).

ZEMARAIM, zem-a-rā'im (בְּלֶרֶרֶם, cemārayim; B, Σαρά, Sará, A, Σεμρίμ, Semrím): A city in the territory of Benjamin. It is named between Betharabah and Bethel (Josh 18 22), and is probably to be sought E. of the latter city. It is usual to identify it with es-Samra, a ruin about 4 miles N. of Jericho. Mt. Zemaraim probably derived its name from the city, and must be sought in the neighborhood. On this height, which is said to be in Mt. Ephraim, Abijah, king of Judah, stood when making his appeal to the men of Israel under Jeroboam (2 Ch 13 4). If the identification with es-Samra is correct, this hill must be in the uplands to the W., es-Samra being on the floor of the valley. Dillmann (Josh, ad loc.) thinks Zemaraim cannot be so far E. of Bethel, but may be found somewhere to the S. of that town. W. Ewing

ZEMARITE, zem'a-rīt (אַבְּלָּרַד, ha-çºmārī; 5 Σαμαραΐος, ho Samaraĵos): A Can. people named in Gen 10 18; 1 Ch 1 16. The occurrence of the name between Arvadite and Hamathite gives a hint as to locality. A place called Sumur is mentioned in the Am Tab along with Arvad. The name probably survives in that of Sumra, a village on the seacoast between Tripolis and Ruwād, about 1½ miles N. of Nahr el-Kebīr. We may with some certainty identify this modern village with the site of the town from which the inhabitants were named "Zemarites."

ZEMIRAH, zē-mī'ra (זְמֵירָה, zºmīrāh, meaning uncertain; LXX B, 'Αμαρίαs, Amarias, A, Ζαμα-ρίαs, Zamarias; AV Zemira): A descendant of Ben-jamin (1 Ch 7 8), but more probably of Zebulun (Curtis, Chron., 145 ff).

ZENAN, zē'nan. See ZAANAN.

ZENAS, zē'nas (Zηνα̂s, Zēnás [Tit 3 13]; the name in full would probably be Zenodorus, lit.

meaning "the gift of Zeus"): Paul calls

1. A Jewish Zenas "the lawyer." The meaning of Lawyer this is, that, previous to his becoming a Christian, he had been a Jewish lawyer. The lawyers were that class of Jewish teachers who were specially learned in the Mosaic Law, and who interpreted that Law, and taught it to the people.

They are met with again and again in the Gospels, where they frequently came into contact with Christ, usually in a manner hostile to Him. For example, "A certain lawver stood up and made trial of him, saying, Teacher, what shall I do to inherit eternal life?" (Lk 10 25). Our Lord replied to him on his own ground, asking, "What is written in the law? how readest thou?" Regarding this class of teachers as a whole, it is recorded that "the Pharisees and lawyers rejected for themselves the counsel of God" (Lk 7 30). The term nomikós, "lawyer," applied to Zenas, is in the Gospels varied by nomodidáskalos, "a teacher of the law," and by grammateús, "a scribe": all three terms describe the same persons. Before his conversion to Christ, Zenas had been a lawyer, one of the recognized expounders of the Law of a lawyer, one of the recognized expounders of the Law of

Moses.

A different view of Zenas' occupation is taken by Zahn (Intro to the NT, II, 54), who says that in itself nomikos could denote a rabbi, quoting Ambrosiaster, "Because Zenas had been of this profession in the synagogue, Paul calls him by this name." But Zahn gives his own opinion that "since the Jewish scribe who became a Christian, by that very act separated himself from the rabbinic body, and since the retention of rabbinic methods and ways of thinking was anything but a recommendation in Paul's eyes (1 Tim 1 7), Zenas is here characterized, not as legis (Mosaicae), doctor, but as juris peritus. The word denotes not an office, but usually the practical lawyer, through whose assistance, a will is made, or a lawsuit carried on. Plutarch applies this name to the renowned jurist Mucius Scaevola."

The ordinary meaning seems preferable, which sees in Zenas one who previous to his conversion

had been a Jewish rabbi. It is not certain where Paul was when he wrote the Ep. to Titus. But he directs Titus to come to him to Nicopolis, where he had resolved

2. Paul's

to spend the ensuing winter. And he adds the injunction that he desires him to "bring Zenas the lawyer and Apollos"—Paul's old friend from Alexiète iith him "on their ionness." Wishes regarding Zenas andria—with him "on their journey diligently, that nothing be wanting unto them" (AV). This may mean that Paul wished to have (AV). This may mean that Paul wished to have Zenas and Apollos with him at Nicopolis; but, on the other hand, it may not have this meaning. For the AV in translating "bring" is in error. The word signifies, as given in RV, "set forward" on their journey, that is, furnish them with all that they need for the journey. But even supposing Paul is not instructing Titus to bring Zenas and Apollos to Nicopolis—though this is perhaps what he means yet it is most interesting to find these two friends. -vet it is most interesting to find these two friends of the apostle mentioned in this particular way, and esp. at a time so near to the close of his life. Paul was unselfish as ever, solicitous that Zenas and Apollos be comfortably provided for on their in-tended journey. He is full of affectionate regard for them, interested in their welfare at every step; while he himself is far distant in another country, he remembers them with tender and sympathetic friendship. Doubtless the two friends reciprocated his affection.

Nothing more is known of Zenas than is contained in this passage. John Rutherfurd

ZEND-AVESTA, zend-a-ves'ta. See Persian RELIGION; ZOROASTRIANISM.

ZEPHANIAH, zef-a-nī'a (つつりょ, cephanyāh,

אָפֵנְיה, çºphanyāhū, "Jeh hath treasured"):
(1) The prophet. See Zерналіан, Воок оғ.

- (2) A Levite or priest (1 Ch 6 36 [Heb 6 21]), called in some genealogies "Uriel" (1 Ch 6 24; **15** 5.11).
- (3) Judaean father or fathers of various contemporaries of Zechariah, the prophet (Zec 6 10.14).
- (4) A priest, the second in rank in the days of Jeremiah. He was a leader of the "patriotic" party which opposed Jeremiah. Nevertheless, he was sent to the prophet as a messenger of King Zedekiah when Nebuchadnezzar was about to attack the city (Jer 21 1) and at other crises (Jer 37 3; cf 29 25.29; 2 K 25 18). That he continued to adhere to the policy of resistance against Bab authority is indicated by the fact that he was among the leaders of Israel taken by Nebuzaradan before the king of Babylon, and killed at Riblah (2 K 25 18 | Jer **52** 24). NATHAN ISAACS

ZEPHANIAH, APOCALYPSE OF: A (probably) Jewish apocryphal work of this name is mentioned in the Stichometry of Nicephorus and another list practically identical with this; a quotation from it is also preserved by Clement of Alexandria (Strom., v. 11. 77). Dr. Charles thinks this indicates a Christian revision (*Enc Brit*, II, art. "Apocalypse"); others suppose it to point to a Christian, rather than a Jewish, origin. See Schürer, HJP, div II, vol III, pp. 126–27, 132; GJV^4 , III, 367–69.

ZEPHANIAH, BOOK OF:

THE AUTHOR
1. Name
2. Ancestry Ancestry Life 3. Lif TT. 1. Date
2. Political Situation
3. Moral and Religious Conditions 3. Moral and Tongon Book
1. Contents
2. Integrity
TEACHING
1. The Day of Jehovah
2. Universalism
2. Messianic Prophecy III.

3. Messianic Prophecy LITERATURE

I. The Author.—The name "Zephaniah" (בְּלַנָּרָה), Σοφονίαs, Sophonías), which is borne cephanyāh; by three other men mentioned in the OT, means "Jeh hides," or "Jeh has hidden" or "treasured." "It suggests," says G. A. Smith, "the prophet's birth in the killing time of Manasseh" (2 K 21 16).

The ancestry of the prophet is carried back four generations (1 1), which is unusual in the OT (cf Isa
1 1; Hos 1 1); hence it is thought,
2. Ancestry not without reason (Eiselen, Minor
Prophets, 505), that the last-mentioned

ancestor, Hezekiah, must have been a prominent man—indeed, no other than King Hezekiah of Judah, the contemporary of Isaiah and Micah. Zephaniah was of royal blood, his condemnation of the royal princes (1 8) becomes of great interest. In a similar manner did Isaiah, who in all probability was of royal blood, condemn without hesita-tion the shortcomings and vices of the rulers and the court. An ancient tradition declares that Z. was of the tribe of Simeon, which would make it impossible for him to be of royal blood; but the origin and value of this tradition are uncertain.

Zephaniah lived in Judah; that he lived in Jerus is made probable by the statement in 1 4, "I will cut off from this place," as well as by his intimate knowledge of the topography of the city (1 10.11). For how long he continued

his prophetic activity we do not know, 3. Life but it is not improbable that, as in the case of Amos, his public activity was short, and that, after delivering his message of judgment in connection with a great political crisis, he retired to private life, though his interest in reforms may have continued (2 K 23 2).

II. Time.—The title (1 1) places the prophetic activity of Zephaniah somewhere within the reign of Josiah, that is, between 639 and 608 1. Date BC. Most scholars accept this statement as historically correct. The most important exception is E. Koenig (Einl, 252 ff), who places it in the decade following the death of Josiah. Koenig's arguments are altogether in-conclusive, while all the internal evidence points toward the reign of Josiah as the period of Zepha-

niah's activity. Can the ministry of the prophet be more definitely located within the 31 years of Josiah? The latter's reign falls naturally into two parts, separated by the great reform of 621. Does the work of Zephaniah belong to the earlier or the

later period?

The more important arguments in favor of the later period are: (a) Dt 28 29.30 is quoted in Zeph 1 13.15.17, in a manner which shows that the former book was well known, but, according to the modern view, the Deuteronomic Code was not known until 621, because it was lost (2 K 22 8). (b) The "remnant of Baal" (1 4) points to a period when much of the Baal-worship had been removed, which means subsequent to 621. (c) The condemnation of the "king's sons" (1 8) presupposes that at the time of the utterance they had reached the age of moral responsibility; this again points to the later period. These arguments are inconclusive: (a) The resemblances between Dt and Zeph are of such a general character that dependence of either passage on the other is improbable. (b) The expression in 1 4 bears an interpretation which made its use quite appropriate before 621 (Eiselen, Minor Prophets, 508). (c) "King's sons" may be equivalent to "royal princes," referring not to Josiah's children at all. The last two objections lose all force if the LXX readings are accepted (1 4, "names of Baal"; 1 8, "house of the king").

On the other hand, there are several considerations pointing to the earlier date: (a) The youth of the king would make it easy for the royal princes to go to the excesses condemned in 1 8.9. (b) The idolatrous practices condemned by Zephaniah (1 3-5) are precisely those abolished in 621. (c) The temper described in 1 12 is explicable before 621 and after the death of Josiah in 608, but not between 621 and 608, when religious enthusiasm was widespread. (d) Only the earlier part of Josiah's reign furnishes a suitable occasion for the prophecy. Evidently at the time of its delivery an enemy was threatening the borders of Judah and of the surrounding nations. But the only foes of Judah during the latter part of the 7th cent. meeting all the conditions are the Scythians, who swept over Western Asia about 625 BC. At the time the prophecy was delivered their advance against Egypt seems to have been still in the future, but imminent (1 14); hence the prophet's activity may be placed between 630 and 625, perhaps in 626. If this date is correct, Zephaniah and Jeremiah began their ministries in the same year.

Little can be said about the political conditions in Judah during the reign of Josiah, because the Bib. books are silent concerning them.

2. Political Josiah seems to have remained loyal Situation to his Assyr lord to the very end, even when the latter's prestige had begun to wane, and this loyalty cost him his life (2 K 23 29). As already suggested, the advance of the Scythians furnished the occasion of the prophecy. Many questions concerning these Scythians remain still unanswered, but this much is clear, that they

were a non-Sem race of barbarians, which swept in great hordes over Western Asia during the 7th cent. BC (see Scythians). The prophet looked upon the Scythians as the executioners of the Divine judgment upon his sinful countrymen and upon the surrounding nations; and he saw in the coming of the mysterious host the harbinger of the day of Jeh.

The Book of Zeph, the early discourses of Jer, and 2 K 21-23 furnish a vivid picture of the social,

3. Moral and Religious conditions in Judah at the time Zephaniah prophesied. Social injustice and moral corguiton were widespread (3 1.3.7). Luxury and extravagance might be seen on every hand; fortunes were

heaped up by oppressing the poor (1 8.9). The realizions situation was equally bad. The reacreligious situation was equally bad. tion under Manasseh came near making an end of Jeh-worship (2 K 21). Amon followed in the footsteps of his father, and the outlook was exceedingly dark when Josiah came to the throne. Fortunately the young king came under prophetic influence from the beginning, and soon undertook a religious reform, which reached its culmination in the 18th year of his reign. When Zephaniah preached, this reform was still in the future. reform was still in the future. The Baalim were still worshipped, and the high places were flourishing (1 4); the hosts of heaven were adored upon the housetops (1 5); a half-hearted Jeh-worship, which in reality was idolatry, was widespread (1 5); great multitudes had turned entirely from following Jeh When the cruel Manasseh was allowed to sit undisturbed upon the throne for more than 50 years, many grew skeptical and questioned whether Jeh was taking any interest in the affairs of the nation; they began to say in their hearts, "Jeh will not do good, neither will he do evil" (1 12). Conditions could hardly be otherwise, when the religious leaders had become misleaders (3 4). The few who, amid the general corruption, remained faithful would be insufficient to avert the awful judgment upon the nation, though they themselves might be "hid in the day of Jeh's anger" (2 3).

III. The Book.—The Book of Zeph falls naturally

into two parts of unequal length. The first part (12-38) contains, almost exclusively,

(1 2—3 8) contains, almost exclusively,

1. Contents denunciations and threats; the second (3 9-20), a promise of salvation and glorification. The prophecy opens with the announcement of a world judgment (1 2.3), which will be particularly severe upon Judah and Jerus, because of idolatry (vs 4-6). The ungodly nobles will suffer most, because they are the leaders in crime (vs 8.9). The judgment is imminent (ver 7); when it arrives there will be wailing on every hand (vs 10. 11). No one will escape, even the indifferent skeptics will be aroused (vs 12.13). In the closing verses of ch 1, the imminence and terribleness of the day of Jeh are emphasized, from which there can be no escape, because Jeh has determined to make a "terrible end of all them that dwell in the land" (vs 14-18). A way of escape is offered to the meek; if they seek Jeh, they may be "hid in the day of Jeh" (2 1-3). Zeph 2 4-15 contains threats upon 5 nations, Philistia (vs 4-7), Moab and Ammon (vs 8-11), Ethiopia (ver 12), Assyria (vs 13-15). In 3 1 the prophet turns once more to Jerus. Leaders, both civil and religious, and people are hopelessly corrupt (vs 1-4), and continue so in spite of Jeh's many attempts to win the city back to purity (vs 5-7); hence the judgment which will involve all nations has become inevitable (ver 8). A remnant of the nations and of Judah will escape and find rest and peace in Jeh (vs 9–13). The closing section (vs 14–20) pictures the joy and exaltation of the redeemed daughter of Zion.

The authenticity of every verse in chs 2 and 3, and of several verses in ch 1, has been questioned by one or more scholars, but the passages

2. Integrity rejected or questioned with greatest persistency are 2 1-3.4-15 (esp. vs 8-11); 3 9.10.14-20. The principal objection to 2 1-3 is the presence in 2 3 of the expressions "meek of the earth," and "seek meekness." It is claimed that "meek" and "meekness" as religious terms are post-exilic. There can be no question that the words occur more frequently in post-exilic psalms and proverbs than in preëxilic writings, but it cannot be proved, or even shown to be probable, that the words might not have been used in Zephaniah's day (cf Ex 10 3; Nu 12 3; Isa 2 9 ff; Mic 6 8). A second objection is seen in the difference of tone between these verses and ch 1. The latter, from beginning to end, speaks of the terrors of judgment; 2 1-3 weakens this by offering a way of escape. But surely, judgment cannot have been the last word of the prophets; in their thought, judgment always serves a disciplinary purpose. They are accustomed to offer hope to a remnant. Hence 2 1-3 seems to form the necessary completion of ch 1.

Hence 2 1–3 seems to form the necessary completion of ch 1.

The objections against 2 4–15 as a whole are equally inconclusive. For vs 13–15, a date preceding the fall of Nineveh seems most suitable. The threat against Philistia (vs 4–7) also is quite intelligible in the days of Zephaniah, for the Scythians passed right through the Phili territory. If Ethiopia stands for Egypt, ver 12 can easily be accounted for as coming from Zephaniah, for the enemies who were going along the Mediterranean coast must inevitably reach Egypt. But if it is insisted upon that the reference is to Ethiopia proper, again no difficulty exists, for in speaking of a world judgment Zephaniah might mention Ethiopia as the representative of the far south. Against vs 8–11 the following objections are raised: (a) Moab and Ammon were far removed from the route taken by the Scythians. (b) The "reproaches" of 2 8.10 presuppose the destruction of Jerus (Ezk 25 3.6.8). (c) The attitude of the prophet toward Judah (vs 9.10) is the exact opposite of that expressed in ch 1. (d) The kīnāh meter, which predominates in the rest of the section, is absent from vs 8–11. (e) Ver 12 is the natural continuation of ver 9. These five arguments are by no means conclusive: (a) The prophet is announcing a world judgment. Could this be executed by the Scythians if they confined themselves to the territory along the Mediterranean Sea? (b) Is it true that the "reproaches" of 2 8.10 presuppose the destruction of Jerus? (c) The promises in 2 7.8–10 are only to a remnant, which presupposes a judgment such as is announced in ch 1. (d) Have we a right to demand consistency in the use of a certain meter in oratory, and, if so, may not the apparent inconsistency be due to corruption of the text, or to a later expansion of an authentic oracle? (e) Vs 8–11 can be said to interrupt the thought only if it is assumed that the prophet meant to enumerate the nations in the order in which the Scythians naturally would reach their territory. From Philistia they would neach their t

Zeph 3 1–8 is so similar to ch 1 that its originality cannot be seriously questioned, but vs 1–8 carry with them vs 9–13, which describe the purifying effects of the judgment announced in vs 1–8. The present text of ver 10 may be corrupt, but if properly emended there remains insufficient reason for questioning vs 10 and 11. The authenticity of 3 14–20 is more doubtful than that of any other section of Zeph. The buoyant tone of the passage forms a marked contrast to the somber, quiet strain of vs 11–13; the judgments upon Judah appear to be in the past; vs 18–20 seem to presuppose a scattering of the people of Judah, while the purifying judgment of vs 11–13 falls upon the people in their own land; hence there is much justice in Davidson's remark that "the historical situation presupposed is that of Isa 40 ff." On the other hand, it must be borne in mind that the passage is highly poetic, that it presents an ideal picture of the future, in the drawing

of which imagination must have played some part, and it may be difficult to assert that the composition of this poem was entirely beyond the power of Zephaniah's enlightened imagination. But while the bare possibility of Zephaniah's authorship may be admitted, it is not impossible that 3 14-20 contains a "new song from God," added to the utterances of Zephaniah at a period subsequent to the fall of Jerus.

IV. Teaching.—The teaching of Zephaniah closely resembles that of the earlier prophetic books. Jeh is the God of the universe, a God of righteousness and holiness, who expects of His worshippers a life in accord with His will. Israel are His chosen people, but on account of rebellion they must suffer severe punishment. Wholesale conversion seems out of the question, but a remnant may escape, to be exalted among the nations. He adds little, but attempts with much moral and spiritual fervor to impress upon his contemporaries the fundamental truths of the religion of Jeh. Only a few points deserve special mention.

Earlier prophets had spoken of the day of Jeh; Amos (5 18-20) had described it in language similar

to that employed by Zephaniah; but 1. The Day the latter surpasses all his predecessors of Jehovah in the emphasis he places upon this terrible manifestation of Jeh (see

ESCHATOLOGY OF THE OT). His entire teaching centers around this day; and in the Book of Zeph we find the germs of the apocalyptic visions which become so common in later prophecies of an eschatological character. Concerning this day he says (a) that it is a day of terror (1 15), (b) it is imminent (1 14), (c) it is a judgment for sin (1 17), (d) it falls upon all creation (1 2.3; 2 4-15; 3 8), (e) it is accompanied by great convulsions in Nature (1 15), (f) a remnant of redeemed Hebrews and

The vision of the book is world-wide. The terrors of the day of Jeh will fall upon all. In the same

manner from all nations converts will be won to Jeh (3 9.10). These will 2. Universalism not be compelled to come to Jerus to worship Jeh (Isa 2 2; Mic 4 1); they may worship Him "every one from his place" (2 11), which is a step in the direction of the utterance of Jesus in Jn 4 21.

ance of Jesus in Jn 4 21.

The Messianic King is not mentioned by Zephaniah. Though he draws a sublime picture of the glories of the Messianic age (3 14-20), there is not a word concerning the person of the Messianic King. Whatever is done is accomplished by Jeh Himself.

Prophecy

G. A. Smith (Expositor's Bible); Driver (New Cent.); Eiselen; A. B. Davidson, Comm. on Nah, Hab, and Zeph (Cambridge Bible); A. F. Kirkpatrick, Doctrine of the Prophets; Eiselen, Prophecy and the Prophets; F. W. Farrar, "Minor Prophets," Men of the Bible; S. R. Driver, LOT; HDB, art. "Zeph, Book of"; EB, art. "Zeph."

FEDMATH 25/fath See HORMAH.

ZEPHATH, zē'fath. See HORMAH.

ZEPHATHAH, zef'a-tha, VALLEY OF (אֶלּה ጠርወች, gē'çephāthāh; LXX κατά βορράν, katá borrán, reading אָפֿרנָה , çºphōnāh, instead of הַחָּבְּץ , çºphāthah): This is the place where Asa met and defeated the Ethiopians under Zerah (2 Ch 14 10). It is said to be at Mareshah. No name resembling this has been recovered there. Possibly, therefore, the LXX rendering is right, "in the ravine to the N. of Mareshah." In that case the battle may have been fought in Wâdy el-'Afranj.

ZEPHI, zē'fī, ZEPHO, zē'fō (בַּילָּדָּל, çºphī, perhaps "gaze," or "gazing," in 1 Ch 1 36; "54, cephō, the same meaning in Gen 36 11.15): A duke of

Edom. LXX has Σωφάρ, Sōphár, which Skinner (Gen, 431) says may be the original of Job's kind friend. In Gen 36 43 LXX has Zapwel, Zaphoel (= 한국, i.e. Zepho), for Iram. Skinner holds it probable that the two names, Zepho and Iram, were in the original text, thus making the number 12 (cf Lagarde, Sept.-Stud., II, 10, I. 178; 37, I. 270; Nestle, Margin., 12). Luc. has Σωφάρ, Söphár, in Gen 36 11.15; Σεπφονή, Sepphouê, in 1 Ch 1 37, and Σαφωίν, Saphöin, in Gen 36 43.

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ZEPHON, zē'fon. See ZIPHION.

ZEPHONITES, zē'fon-īts, zė-fō'nīts (הַאָּפַרֹנִי , ha-çephōnī; ὁ Σαφωνί, ho Saphōní, A omits): A family of Gadites descended from Zephon (Nu 26 15), who is called "Ziphion" in Gen 46 16.

בבר, zer, zer (בַּ, cer; iii Laa the verse sost 15 35] reads και αι πόλεις τειχήρεις τῶν Τυρίων, κ.τ.λ., kat hai póleis teichêreis tôn Turίon, which implies a Heb text with מוֹלְצְרָים, ha-cūrīm, "Tyrians"; this must be an error): One of the fortified cities in Naphtali, named between Ziddim (Hattīn) and Hammath (el-Hammeh, S. of Tiberias). If the text is correct, it must have lain on the slopes W. of the Sea of Galilee. It is not identified.

ZERAH, zē'ra (פּרַת); zerah, meaning uncertain):
(1) In Gen 38 30; 46 12; Nu 26 20; Josh 7 1.
18.24; 22 20; 1 Ch 2 4.6; 9 6; Neh 11 24; Mt 18.24; 22 20; 1 Ch 2 4.6; 9 6; Neh 11 24; Mt 1 3, younger twin-son of Judah and Tamar, and an ancestor of Achan. In Nu 26 20; Josh 7 17 f he is the head of the Zerahites (also 1 Ch 27 11.13). AV has "Zarah" in Gen 38 30; 46 12, and "Zarhites" for "Zerahites" in Nu, Josh and 1 Ch. See Curtis (Chron., 84 f) for identification of Ezrahite with Zerahite.

(2) Edomites: (a) an Edomite chief (Gen **36** 13.17; 1 Ch **1** 37); (b) father of an Edomite king (Gen **36** 33; 1 Ch **1** 44).

Levites: (a) 1 Ch 6 21 (Heb ver 6); (b) 1 Ch 6 41 (Heb ver 26).

(4) Head of the Zerahites (Nu **26** 13, AV "Zarhites"; 1 Ch **4** 24). In Nu **26** 13="Zohar" of Gen **46** 10; Ex **6** 15. See Zohar, (2).

(5) Cushite king (2 Ch 14 9). See next art. David Francis Roberts

ZERAH (THE ETHIOPIAN) (זַרָה הַכּרּשָׁר, zeraḥ ha-kūshī [2 Ch 14 9]; Zάρε, Záre): A generation ago the entire story of Zerah's conquest of Asa, coming as it did from a late source (2 Ch 14 9-15), was regarded as "apocryphal": "If the incredibilities are deducted nothing at all is left" (Wellhausen, Prolegomena to the History of Israel, 207, 208); but most modern scholars, while accepting certain textual mistakes and making allowance for customary oriental hyperbole in description, accept this as an honest historical narrative, "nothing in the Egyp inscriptions being "inconsistent" with it (Nicol in BD; and of Sayce, HCM, 362-64). The name "Zerah" is a "very likely corruption" of "Usar-kon" (*U-Serak-on*), which it closely resembles (see Petrie, *Egypt and Israel*, 74), and most writers now identify Zerah with Usarkon II, though the Egyp records of this particular era are deficient and some competent scholars still hold to Usarkon I (Wiedemann, Petrie, McCurdy, etc). The publication by Naville (1891) of an inscription in which Usar-kon II claims to have invaded "Lower and Upper Palestine" seemed to favor this Pharaoh as the victor over Asa; but the chronological question is difficult (Eighth Memoir of the Egyp Exploration Fund, 51). The title "the Cushite" (Heb) is hard to understand. There are several explanations

(1) Wiedemann holds that this may refer to a real Ethiopian prince, who, though unrecorded in the monuments, may have been reigning at the Asa era. There is so little known from this era "that it is not beyond the bounds of probability for an Ethiopian invader to have made himself master of the Nile Valley for a time" (Geschichte von Alt-Aegypten, 155). (2) Recently it has been the fashion to refer this term "Cushite" to some unknown ruler in South or North Arabia (Winckler, Cheyne, etc). The term "Cushite" permits this, for although it ordinarily corresponds to ETHIOPIA (q.v.), yet sometimes it designates the tract of Arabia which must be passed over in order to reach Ethiopia (Jeremias, The OT in the Light of Ancient East, I, 280) or perhaps a much larger district (see *BD*; *EB*; Hommel, *AHT*; Winckler, *KAT*, etc). This view, however, is forced to explain the geographical and racial terms in the narrative differently from the ordinary Bib. usage (see Cheyne, EB). Dr. W. M. Flinders Petrie points out that, according to the natural sense of the narrative, this army must have been Egyp, for (a) after the defeat it fled toward Egypt, not eastward toward Arabia; (b) the cities around Gerar (probably Egyp towns on the frontier of Pal), toward which they naturally fled when defeated, were plundered; (c) the invaders were Cushim and Lubim (Libyans), and this could only be the case in an Egyp army; (d) Mareshah is a well-known town close to the Egyp frontier (Hist of Egypt, III, 242–43; cf König, Fünf neue arab. Landschaftsnamen im AT, 53–57). (3) One of the Usarkons might be called a "Cushite" in an anticipatory sense, since in the next dynasty (XXIII) Egypt sense, since in the Hollings.
was ruled by Ethiopian kings.

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ZERAHIAH, zer-a-hī'a (תְּיִחָוּתְ, zerahyāh, "Jeh hath risen" or "come forth"; LXX Zapatá, Zaratá, with variants):

(1) A priest of the line of Eleazar (1 Ch 6 6.51; Ezr 7 4).

(2) A head of a family, who returned with Ezra from Babylon (Ezr 8 4).

ZERAHITES, zē'ra-hīts (הַוַּרָחָדּי, ha-zarḥī; B. & Zapai, ho Zarai, A, & Zapasi, ho Zarasi; AV Zarhites):

(1) A family of Simeonites (Nu 26 13).

(2) Descendants of Zerah, son of Judah (Nu 26). To this family Achan belonged (Josh 7 17), as did also two of David's captains (1 Ch 27 11.13).

ZERED, zē'red (Τζζ, zeredh; Β, Ζάρετ, Záret, Α, Zάρε, Záre; AV Zared [Nu 21 12]): This is the nahal or "torrent valley" given as the place where Israel encamped before they reached the Arnon (Nu 21 12). In Dt 2 13 f, the crossing of the brook Zered marks the end of the 38 years' desert wanderings. It has often been identified with Wady el-'Ahsa, which runs up from the southeastern corner of the Dead Sea. A fatal objection to this is that the host had entered the wilderness to the E. of Moab before they crossed the Zered (Nu 21 11), while Wady el-'Ahsā must have formed the southern boundary of Moab. We may conclude with certainty that one of the confluents of Wady Kerak is intended, but which, it is impossible now to W. Ewing

ZEREDAH, zer'ê-da, ZEREDAH, zer'ê-dath, ZEREDAHA, zer-ê-da'tha, ZERERAH, zer'ê-ra, ZERERATH, zer'ë-rath. See ZARETHAN.

ZERESH, zē'resh (Ψ), zeresh, "gold," from the Pers; Σωσάρα, Sōsára): The wife of Haman (Est 5 10.14; 6 13), the vizier of Xerxes.

ZERETH, zē'reth (ハッザ, çereth, meaning unknown): A Judahite (1 Ch 4 7).

ZERETH-SHAHAR, zē'reth-shā'här (ロッド אווים, çereth ha-shaḥār; B, Σερεδά και Σείων, Seredá kai Seion, A. Σάρθ και Σιώρ, Sárth kai Siôr): A town in the territory of Reuben, "in the mount of the valley," named with Kiriathaim and Sibmah (Josh 13 19). Perhaps in the name Hammat es-Sara, attaching to the hot springs near Machaerus, there may be some echo of the ancient name; but no identification is possible.

ZERI, zē'rī (בְּרֵדׁ , çºrī, meaning unknown): "Son" of Jeduthun, and a temple musician (1 Ch 25 3)= "Izri" of ver 11, which should be read here. See Izri.

ZEROR, zē'rôr (Τ΄) , ç°rōr, meaning unknown; LXX 'Αρέδ, Aréd, Luc., Σαρά, Sará): An ancestor of Kish and King Saul (1 S 9 1). See Zur, (2).

ZERUAH, ze-roō'a (קרּעָּה, ç॰rūʿāh, perhaps "leprous"): Mother of King Jeroboam I (1 K 11 26), LXX, B and Luc. omit the name in 11 26, but the long LXX after MT of 12 24 reads (ver 24b): "And there was a man of the hill-country of Ephraim, a servant of Solomon, and his name was Jeroboam, and the name of his mother was Sareisa [LXX Σαρεισά, Sareisá] a harlot." See Zarethan.

ZERUBBABEL, ze-rub'a-bel (プラステ, zerubbābhel, probably a transliteration of the Bab name Shealtiel had no children and adopted Zerubbabel; or that Zerubbabel was his levirate son; or that, Shealtiel being childless, Zerubbabel succeeded to the rights of sonship as being the next of kin.

Whatever may have been his blood relationship

to Jeconiah, the Scriptures teach that Zerubbabel was his legal successor, of the 3d or 2. Family
4th generation. According to 1 Ch
3 19, he had one daughter, Shelomith,
and seven sons, Meshullam, Hananiah, Hashubah, Ohel, Berechiah, Hasadiah and Jushab-hesed. In Mt 1 13 he is said to have been the father of Abiud (i.e. Abi-hud). As it is the custom in Arabia today to give a man a new name when his first son is born, so it may have been, in this case, that Meshullam was the father of Hud, and that his name was changed to Abiud as soon as his son was named Hud. In Lk 3 27, the son of Zerubbabel is called Rhesa. This is doubtless the title of the head of the captivity, the resh gelūtha', and would be appropriate as a title of Meshullam in his capacity as the official representative of the captive Jews. That Zerubbabel is said in the NT to be the son of Shealtiel the son of Neri instead of Jeconiah may be accounted for on the supposition that Shealtiel was the legal heir or adopted son of Jeconiah, who according to Jer 36 30 was apparently to die childless.

It has been shown in the article on Sheshbazzar that he and Zerubbabel may possibly have been the same person and that the name may

3. Relation have been Shamash-ban (or bun)zer-Babili-uşur. It seems more probto Sheshable, however, that Sheshbazzar, the bazzar

prince of Judah, was governor under Cyrus and that Zerubbabel was governor under

Darius. The former, according to Ezr 1 8 and 5 14-16, laid the foundations, and the latter completed the building of the temple (Ezr 2 2.68; 4 2; Hag 1 14; Zec 4 9).

All that is known certainly about Zerubbabel is found in the canonical books of Zec, Hag and Ezr-Neh. According to these he and

4. History Jeshua, the high priest, led up a band of captives from Babylon to Jerus and began rebuilding the temple in the second year of Darius Hystaspis. They first constructed the altar of burnt offerings, and afterward built a temple, usually called the Second Temple, much inferior in beauty to that of Solomon. According to Jos and the apocryphal Book of Ezr (1 Esd 3,4), Zerubbabel was a friend of Darius Hystaspis, having successfully competed before him in a contest whose object was to determine what was the strongest thing in the world—wine, kings, women, or truth. Zerubbabel, having demonstrated that truth was the mightiest of all, was called the king's "cousin," and was granted by him permission to go up to Jerus and to build the temple. Zerubbabel was also made a governor of Jerus, and performed also the duties of the tirshatha, an official who was probably the Pers collector of taxes. See Tirshatha.

ZERUIAH, ze-roo-i'a, ze-roo'ya (בְּרַיִּהְיּתַשְׁתַּהֹּ, ceruyāh, ze-roo-i'a, ze-roo'ya (בְּרַיִּתִּיְעַהַּהָּ, גַּיּרִישְׁתַּהַּ, גַּיּרִישְׁתַּהַּ, גַּיּרִישְׁתַּהַּ, צַּבּריַסס', a (בַּרַיִּתַיּ, גַיּרִישְׁתַּהַּ, Sarouta): In 2 S 2 18; 17 25; 1 Ch 2 16, and elsewhere where the names Joab, Abishai, occur. According to 1 Ch 2 16 a sister of David and mother of Joab, Abishai and Asahel, the two former being always referred to as sons of Zeruiah. This latter fact is explained by some as pointing to a type of marriage by which the children belonged to their mother's clan (of Abimelech, Jgs 8 31; 9 1ff); by others as being due to her husband's early death; and again as a proof of the mother in this case being the stronger personality. Either of the last two reasons may be the correct one, and plenty of parallels from the village names of boys today can be produced to illustrate both explanations. According to 2 S 2 32, her husband was buried at Bethlehem. In 2 S 17 25, "Abigal the daughter of Nahash" is said to be her sister. See Abigall. David Francis Roberts

ZETHAM, zē'tham (Dnī, zēthām, meaning unknown): A Gershonite Levite (1 Ch 23 8; 26 22). In the second passage Curtis holds that "the sons of Jehieli" is a gloss; he points the MT to read "brethren" instead of "brother," and so has "Jehiel [ver 22] and his brethren, Zetham and Joel, were over the treasures."

ZETHAN, zē'than (קְּרְהֵי, zēthān, perhaps "olive tree"): A Benjamite (I Ch 7 10), but Curtis holds that he is a Zebulunite (Chron., 145 ff).

ZETHAR, zē'thar () zēthar; Oppert, Est, 25, compares Pers zaitar, "conqueror"; see BDB; LXX 'Αβαταζά, Abatazá): A eunuch of Ahasuerus (Est 1 10).

ZEUS, zūs (Zeús, Zeús, RVm; RV and AV Jupiter): The supreme god of Hellenic theology, "king of gods and of men." In 168 BC Antiochus Epiphanes, "who on God's altars danced," bent upon the thorough Hellenization of Judaea and Jerus, sent "an old man of Athens" (or "Geron an Athenian," RVm) to pollute the sanctuary in the temple at Jerus and to call it by the name of Jupiter Olympius, and that at Gerizim by the name of Jupiter Xenius (2 Macc 6 1 ff). Olympius, from Mt. Olympus, the home of the gods, is the favorite

epithet of Zeus, Zeus Olympius being to the Gr world what Jupiter Capitolinus was to the Rom. The same Antiochus commenced the splendid temple of Zeus Olympius, finished under Hadrian. Zeus is also frequently styled Xenius or "Protector of strangers" (Juppiter hospitalis) in classical literature. The epithet is here applied because the people of Gerizim—the Samaritans—were hospitable, probably an ironical statement of the author (cf Lk 9 52 f). Zeus is also in Acts 14 12 f RVm for Jupiter (q.v.).

ZIA, zī'a (፲٦٦, zī'a', meaning uncertain): A Gadite, possibly the name of a Gadite clan (1 Ch 5 13).

ZIBA, zi'ba (בְּיִלְּהָ, כְּיַנֹּהֹשׁלִּה, בִּינֹּהׁשׁלַּה, בּינֹּהׁשׁלַּה, בּינֹּהׁשׁלַר, בּינִּהְשׁלָּה, אַבְּיִלָּה, former servant or probably dependent of Saul's house (2 S 9 1 ff), who was brought to David when the king inquired if there was not a member of Saul's family that he could show kindness to (cf David's oath to Jonathan in 1 S 20 14 ff). Z. tells David of Mephibosheth (Meribbaal), Jonathan's son, who is thereupon taken to the king from Lodebar, E. of the Jordan, and given Saul's estate. Z. is also bidden to till the land and bring in its produce, and "it shall be food for thy master's son," according to MT in 2 S 9 10b; but LXX and Luc. have a better reading, "thy master's household." Mephibosheth himself is to eat at David's table. Z. is to be assisted in this by his sons and servants; he had 15 sons and 20 servants (9 10).

When David has to leave Jerus at the time of Absalom's revolt, Z. (2 S 16 1-4) takes two asses for members of the king's household to ride on, and 200 loaves and 100 clusters of raisins as provisions for the youths. When asked where Mephibosheth is, he accuses his master of remaining behind purposely in hopes that his father's kingdom would be restored to him. David then confers upon Z. his master's estate.

After Absalom's death, David sets out to return to Jerus from Mahanaim, E. of Jordan. Z. with his sons and servants, as we are told in a parenthesis in 2 S 19 17.18a (Heb vs 18.19a), by means of a ferry-boat goes backward and forward over Jordan, and thus enables the king's household to cross. But he has wrongly accused his master of treacherous lukewarmness toward David, for Mephibosheth meets the king on his return journey to Jerus (2 S 19 24–30 [Heb vs 25–31]) with signs of grief. When he is asked why he had not joined the king at the time of the latter's flight, he answers that Z. deceived him, "for thy servant said to him, Saddle me [so read in ver 26 (Heb ver 27) with LXX and Syr for MT 'I will have saddled me'] the ass." He then accuses Z. of falsehood, and David divides the estate between the two, although Mephibosheth is quite willing that Z. should retain the whole of it.

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ZIBEON, zib'ė-on (τ')" , çibh'ōn, "hyena";
HPN, 95; Σεβεγάν, Sebεgôn): A Horite chief (Gen
36 2.14.20.24.29; 1 Ch 1 38.40); he is called the
"Hivite" in Gen 36 2 where "Horite" should be
read with vs 20.29. In Gen 36 2.14 Anah is said
to be "the daughter of Zibeon," whereas LXX, Sam,
Syr, Luc. have "the son of Z."; cf 1 Ch 1 38.40,
where also Anah is Z.'s son.

ZIBIA, zib'i-a (אֶבְלֶּבְיּ, cɨbhyā', perhaps "gazelle"): A Benjamite (1 Ch 8 9).

ZIBIAH, zib'i-a (בְּבֶּרָהְ , cibhyāh, probably "gazelle"): A woman of Beersheba, mother of King Jehoash (Joash) of Judah (2 K 12 1 [Heb ver 2]; 2 Ch 24 1, B A 'Aβιά, Abiά).

ZICHRI, zik'rī (כֵּרֶר), zikhrī, meaning uncertain): (1) Levites: (a) grandson of Kohath (Ex 6 21, where some AV edd read wrongly "Zithri"); (b) an Asaphite (1 Ch 9 15), called "Zabdi" in Neh 11 17, where LXX A has Zεχρί, Zechri=Zichri, but LXX B other names; see Zabdi, (4); (c) a descendant of Eliezer (1 Ch 26 25).

(2) Benjamites: (a) 1 Ch 8 19; (b) 1 Ch 8 23; (c) 1 Ch 8 27; (d) Neh 11 9.

(3) Father of Eliezer, who was one of David's tribal princes (1 Ch 27 16).

(4) Father of Amasiah, "who willingly offered himself unto Jeh" (2 Ch 17 16).

(5) Father of Elishaphat, a captain in Jehoiada's time (2 Ch 23 1).

(6) "A mighty man of Ephraim," who when fighting under Pekah slew the son of Ahaz, the king of Judah (2 Ch 28 7).

(7) A priest in the days of Joiakim (Neh 12 17); the section, vs 14-21, is omitted by LXX B, with the exception of "of Maluchi" (ver 14); Luc. has Zaxapias, Zacharias. DAVID FRANCIS ROBERTS

ZIDDIM, zid'im (ΔΤΙΣΤ, ha-çiddīm; Β, τῶν Τυρίων, tôn Turiōn, A omits): A fortified city in Naphtali (John 19 35), probably represented by the modern Hattīn, about 5 miles N.W. of Tiberias, in the opening of the record that have a distribution of the record that the r in the opening of the gorge that breaks down seaward N. of Kurūn Ḥattīn, the traditional Mount of Beatitudes.

ZID-KIJAH, zid-ki'ja. See ZEDEKIAH, 5.

ZIDON, zī'don, ZIDONIANS, zi-dō'ni-anz. See SIDON, SIDONIANS.

ZIF, zif. See ZIV.

ZΙΗΑ, zī'ha (Κρτ, ςīḥā', ΚρΣ, ςiḥā' [Neh 7 46], meaning unknown): An overseer of Nethinim (Neh meaning unknown): An overseer of Nethinim (Neh 11 21) who are called (Ezr 2 43; Neh 7 46) "the children [or sons] of Ziha." LXX BA omits Neh 11 20 f, LXX has Σιάλ, Siál, Luc., Σιααύ, Siaαύ; in 7 46 LXX B, Σηά, Sēά, A, Olaá, Oiaá, Luc., Σουλαί, Soulaí; in Ezr 2 43 LXX B, Σουδιά, Southiá, A, Σουαά, Souaá, Luc., Σουδδαεί, Souddaet.

ZIKLAG, zik'lag (אֶקְלֵגֹל, çikelagh, בְּקְלָג, çikelāgh [2 S 1 1], צֵיקְכָּל , çīkelagh [1 Ch_12 1.20]; usually in LXX Σεκελάκ, Sekelák, or Σικελάγ, Sikelág): A town assigned (Josh 19 5; 1 Ch 4 30) to Simeon, but in Josh 15 31 named, between Hornah and Madmannah, as one of the cities of the Negeb of Judah, "toward the border of Edom." It is said (1 S 27 6) to have remained a royal city. In Neh 11 28 it is in the list of towns reinhabited by the returning children of Judah. Its chief associations are with David. Achish the Phili king of Gath gave it to David as a residence (1 S 27 6 f; 1 Ch 12 1.20); it was raided by the Amalekites, on whom David took vengeance and so recovered his property (1 S 30 14.26); here the messenger who came to announce Saul's death was slain (2 S 1 1;

The site of this important place is not yet fixed with certainty; Conder proposed Zuheilika, a ruin 11 miles S.S.E. of Gaza, and 4 miles N. of $Wddy es-Sherī^id$, which may be the "Brook Besor" (1 S 30 9.10.21); Rowland (1842) proposed 'Aslāj, a heap of ruins S. of Beersheba and 7 miles to the E. of Bered. Neither site is entirely satisfactory. See Williams, Holy City, I, 463-68; BR, II, 201, PEF, 288, Sh XX.

E. W. G. MASTERMAN ZILLAH, zil'a (אָלָּדְ , çillāh; Σελλά, Sellá): One of Lamech's wives (Gen 4 19.22.23). The name is perhaps connected with $c\bar{c}l$, "shadow."

ZILLETHAI, zil'ė-thī, zil-ē'thẳ-ī (לְלָּחָר , çillethay, meaning uncertain; AV Zilthai):
(1) A Benjamite (1 Ch 8 20).

(2) A Manassite who joined David at Ziklag (1 Ch 12 20 [Heb ver 21]).

ZILPAH, zil'pa (דְּפֶּלֶּהְיּ, zil'pāh, meaning uncertain; Zehþá, Zelphá): The ancestress of Gad and Asher (Gen 30 10.12; 35 26; 46 18), a slave girl of Leah's, given her by Laban (29 24; 30 9). In Ezk 48 the Zilpah tribes have the 5th division toward the south of Pal and the 6th to the north. a slightly more favorable position than that of the Bilhah tribes.

ZILTHAI, zil'thī, zil'thā-ī. See ZILLETHAI.

ZIMMAH, zim'a (קֹמָה, zimmāh, perhaps "device," "plan"): A Gershonite Levite (1 Ch 6 20 [Heb ver 5]; also in 6 42 [Heb ver 27]; 2 Ch 29 12). See Curtis, *Chron.*, 130, 134 ff.

ZIMRAN, zim'ran (ງງວງ, zimrān, from ງວງ, zemer, "wild sheep." or "wild goat," the ending -ān being gentilic; Skinner, Gen, 350): Son of Abraham and Keturah (Gen 25 2; 1 Ch 1 32). The various MSS of the LXX give the name in different forms, e.g. in Gen A*, Zeβράν, Zebrán, ℵ, Zεμράν, Zemrán, A¹, Zεμβράμ, Zembrám, Deil, Ζομβράν, Zombrán, and Luc., Ζεμράν, Zemrán; in Ch, B has Ζεμβράν, Zembrán, A, Ζεμράν, Zemrán, Luc., Ζεμράν, Zemrán (cf Brooke and McLean's ed of the LXX for Gen).

Hence some have connected the name with Zabram of Ptol. vi.7.5, W. of Mecca; others with the Zamareni of Pliny (Ant. vi.158) in the interior of Arabia; but according to Skinner and E. Meyer (see Gunkel, Gen?, 261) these would be too far south. Curtis (Chron., 72) says the name is probably to be identified with the "Zimri" of Jer 25 25. It would then be the name of a clan, with the mountain sheep or goat as its totem. See Totemism.

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ZIMRI, zim'rī (יְבְירִי , zimrī, "wild sheep" or "wild goat"; in 1 Macc AV Zaμβρί, Zambrí, X, Zaμβρεί, Zambrei):

(1) A Simeonite prince (Nu 25 14; 1 Macc 2 26), slain by Phinehas, Aaron's grandson. Nu 25 1-5 records how the Israelites, while they were at Shittim, began to consort with Moabite women and "they [i.e. the Moabite women] called the people unto the sacrifices of their gods" (ver 2), i.e. as explained by ver 5 to take part in the immoral rites of the god Baal-peor. Moses is bidden to have the offenders punished. The next paragraph (vs 6-9) relates how the people engage in public mourning; but while they do this Zimri brings in among his brethren a Midianitess. Phinehas sees this and goes after Zimri into the kubbāh, where he slays the two together, and thus the plague is stayed (vs 6-9).

The connection between these two paragraphs is difficult; Mosbite women are mentioned in the first, a Midianitess in the second; the plague of vs 8 f is not previously referred to, although it seems clear that the plague is the cause of the weeping in ver 6. The sequel, vs 16-18, makes the second paragraph have something to do with Baal-peor. Critics assign vs 1-5 to JE, vs 6-18 to P.

It seems, however, that the two accounts refer to similar circumstances. This is evident if the meaning of $kubb\bar{a}h$ in ver 8 be as the Vulg renders it, lupinar, "a house of ill-repute." The difficulty is that the word only occurs here in the OT, but it has that meaning in New Heb (see Gray, Nu, 385; BDB, however, translates it "a large vaulted tent." While one narrative says the women were Moabitesses and the other Midianitesses, the latter section presupposes something like the account in the former; and the point is that Zimri, at the very time that the rest of the result is a transfer of the resul time that the rest of the people publicly mourned

because of a plague that was due to their own dealings with foreign women, brought a Midianite woman among the people, possibly to be his wife, for he was a prince or chief, and she was the daughter of a Midianite chief. It may be urged that if this be the case, there was nothing wrong in it; but according to Heb ideas there was, and we only need to remember the evil influence of such marriages as those entered into by Solomon, or esp. that of Ahab with Jezebel, to see at any rate a Heb justification for Zimri's death.

Nu 31 describes the extermination of the Midianites at the bidding of Moses. All the males are slain by the Israelites (ver 7), but the women are spared. Moses is angry at this: "Have ye saved all the women alive? Behold, these caused the children of Israel, through the counsel of Balaam, to commit trespass against Jeh in the matter of Peor, and so the plague was among the congregation of Jeh" (vs 15 f). Here we find, although the chapter is a Midhrash (see Gray, Nu., 417 ff), that the Hebrews themselves connected the two events of ch 25, but in addition the name of Balaam is also introduced, but in addition the name of Balaam is also introduced, as again in ver 8, where he is said to have been slain along with the kings of Midian. See further Dt 4 3, and Driver's note on the verse. See Baal-peor; Balaam; Peor. PEOR.

- (2) A king of Israel (1 K 16 8-20). See special article.
- (3) A Judahite "son" of Zerah (1 Ch 2 6) = "Zabdi" of Josh 7 1.17 f. See Zabdi, (1).
- (4) A Benjamite, descendant of King Saul (1 Ch
- **8** 36; **9** 42). (5) In Jer 25 25, where "all the kings of Zimri" are mentioned along with those of Arabia (ver 24) and Elam and the Medes. The name is as yet unidentified, although thought to be that of a people called Zimran (q.v.) in Gen 25 2.

DAVID FRANCIS ROBERTS ZIMRI (זְמְרֵר, zimrī; LXX Ζαμβρεί, Zambreí, Ζαμβρί, Zambri): The 5th king of Israel, but who occupied the throne only seven days (1 K 16 Zimri had been captain of half the chariots under Elah, and, as it seems, made use of his position to conspire against his master. The occasion for his crime was furnished by the absence of the army, which, under the direction of Omri, was engaged in the siege of the Phili town Gibbethon. While Elah was in a drunken debauch in the house of his steward Arza, who may have been an accomplice in the plot, he was foully murdered by Zimri, who ascended the throne and put the remnant of Elah's family to death, thus fulfilling the prophecy of Jehu concerning the house of Baasha. However, the conspiracy lacked the support of the people, However, for word of the crime no sooner reached Gibbethon, than the army raised Omri to the throne of Israel. Omri at once hastened to Tirzah and captured the place, which as it seems offered little resistance. Zimri resolved to die as king, and accordingly set fire to the palace with his own hands, and perished in the flames that he had kindled. Thus came to an ignominious end the short reign which remained as a blot even upon the blood-stained record of the deeds of violence that ushered in the change of dynasties in the Northern Kingdom, for the foul crime was abhorred even among arch plotters. When Jehu entered Jezreel he was met with Jeze-bel's bitter taunt, "Is it peace, thou Zimri, thy master's murderer?" (2 K 9 31). The historian too, in the closing formula of the reign, specially mentions "his treason that he wrought.

S. K. Mosiman

ZIN, $zin (72, gin; \Sigma lv, Sin)$:

(1) A town in the extreme S. of Judah, on the line separating that province from Edom, named between the ascent of Akrabbim and Kadeshbarnea (Nu 34 4; Josh 15 3). It must have lain somewhere between Wâdy el-Fikra (the ascent of Akrabbim?) and 'Ain Kadīs (Kadesh-barnea); but the site has not been recovered.

(2) The Wilderness of Zin is the tract deriving its name from the town (Nu 34 3). It is identified with the wilderness of Kadesh in Nu 33 36; while in other places Kadesh is said to be in the wilderness of Zin (Nu 20 1; 27 14; Dt 32 51). We may take it that the two names refer to the same region. The spies, who set out from Kadeshbarnea, explored the land from the wilderness of Zin northward (Nu 13 21; cf 32 8). It bordered with Judah "at the uttermost part of the south" (Josh 15 1). In this wilderness Moses committed the offence which cost him his hope of entering the promised land (Nu 27 14; Dt 32 51). It is identical with the uplands lying to the N. and N.W. of the wilderness of Paran, now occupied by the W. EWING Azāzimeh Arabs.

ZINA, zī'na. See Zizah.

ZION, zī'on (τίτη, çīyon; Σιών, Siōn):

Meaning of the Word
The Zion of the Jebusites
Zion of the Prophets
Zion in Later Poetical Writings
Omission of Name by Some Writers
The Name "Zion" in Christian Times 3. 4.

LITERATURE

A name applied to Jerus, or to certain parts of it, at least since the time of David. Nothing certain is known of the meaning. Gesenius

1. Meaning and others have derived it from a Heb of the Word root אָבָּי, çāhāh, "to be dry"; De-

and Wetzstein from 74, cīn, "to protect." Gesenius finds a more hopeful suggestion in the Arab. equivalent sihw, the Arab. sahwat signifying "ridge of a mountain" or "citadel," which at any rate suitably applies to what we know to have been the original Zion (cf Smith, HGHL, s.v.).

Considerable confusion has been caused in the past by the want of clear understanding regarding the different sites which have respectively been called "Zion" during the centuries. It will make matters clearer if we take the application of the name: in David's time; in the early Prophets, etc; in late poetical writings and in the Apocrypha; and in Christian times.

Jerus (in the form Uru-sa-lim) is the oldest name we know for this city; it goes back at least 400 years before David. In 2 S 5 6-9,

- years before David. In 2 5 0 0-5, 2. The Zion 'The king and his men went to Jerus of the against the Jebusites. . . . Nevertheless David took the stronghold of Jebusites
- Zion; the same is the city of David
 And David dwelt in the stronghold, and
 called it the city of David." It is evident that
 Zion was the name of the citadel of the Jebusite city of Jerus. That this citadel and incidentally the then city of Jerus around it were on the long ridge running S. of the Temple (called the south-eastern hill in the art. Jerusalem, III, [3] [q.v.]) is now accepted by almost all modern scholars, mainly on the following grounds:
- (1) The near proximity of the site to the only known spring, now the "Virgin's Fount," once called From our knowledge of other an-Gіном (q.v.). cient sites all over Pal, as well as on grounds of common-sense, it is hardly possible to believe that the early inhabitants of this site with such an abundant source at their very doors could have made any other spot their headquarters.

(2) The suitability of the site for defence.—The sites suited for settlement in early Can. times were all, if we may judge from a number of them now known, of this nature—a rocky spur isolated on three sides by steep valleys, and, in many sites, protected at the end where they join the main mountain ridge by either a valley or a rocky spur.

(3) The size of the ridge, though very small to our modern ideas, is far more in keeping with what we know of fortified towns of that period than such an area as presented by the southwestern hill—the traditional site of Zion. Mr. Macalister found by actual excavation that the great walls of Gezer, which must have been contemporaneous with the Jebusite Jerus, measured approximately 4,500 ft. in circumference. G. A. Smith has calculated that a line of wall carried along the known and inferred scarps around the edge of this southeastern hill would have an approximate circumference of 4,250 ft. The suitability of the site to a fortified city like Gezer, Megiddo, Soco, and other sites which

(traditional Zion) to the Temple is to go down. (b) Hezekiah constructed the well-known Siloam tunnel from Gihon to the Pool of Siloam. He is described (2 Ch 32 30) as bringing the waters of Gihon "straight down on the west side of the city of David." (c) Manasseh (2 Ch 33 14) built "an outer wall to the city of David, on the west side of Gihon, in the valley" (i.e. nahal—the name of the Kedron valley).

Zion, renamed the City of David, then originally was on this eastern ridge. But the name did not stay there. It would almost seem as

3. Zion if the name was extended to the of the Temple site when the ark was carried there, for in the preëxilic Prophets the references to Zion all appear to have re-

ferred to the Temple Hill. To quote a few examples:



SLOPE OF ZION-TYROPCEON VALLEY AT RIGHT.

have been excavated, strikes anyone familiar with

these places.

(4) The archaeological remains on these hills found by Warren and Professor Guthe, and more particularly in the recent excavations of Captain Parker (see Jerusalem), show without doubt that this was the earliest settlement in pre-Israelite times. Extensive curves and rock-cuttings, cave-dwellings and tombs, and enormous quantities of early "Amorite" (what may be popularly called "Jebusite") pottery show that the spot must have been inhabited many centuries before the time of David. The reverse is equally true; on no other part of the Jerus site has any quantity of such early pottery been found.

(5) The Bible evidence that Zion originally occupied this site is clear. It will be found more in detail under the heading "City of David" in the art. Jerusalem, IV, (5), but three points may be mentioned here: (a) The Ark of the Covenant was brought up out of the city of David to the Temple (1 K 8 1; 2 Ch 5 2), and Pharaoh's daughter "came up out of the city of David unto her house which Solomon had built for her"—adjacent to the Temple (1 K 9 24). This expression "up" could not be used of any other hill than of the lower-lying eastern ridge; to go from the southwestern hill

"And Jeh will create over the whole habitation of mount Zion, and over her assemblies, a cloud and smoke by day, and the shining of a flaming fire by



Citadel of Zion.

night" (Isa 4 5); "Jeh of hosts, who dwelleth in mount Zion" (Isa 8 18); "Let us go up to Zion unto Jeh our God" (Jer 31 6); "Jeh will reign over them in mount Zion" (Mic 4 7). All these, and numbers more, clearly show that at that time Zion was the Temple Hill.

In many of the later writings, particularly poetical references, Zion appears to be the equivalent of Jerus; either in parallelism (Ps 102 21; Am 1 2; 4. Zion in Or alone (Jer 3 14; Lam 5 11); even here many of the references will do equally well cal Writings for the Temple Hill. The term "Daughter and Apocryof Zion" is applied to the captive Jews (Lam 4 22), but in other references to the people of Jerus (Isa 1 8; 52 2; Jer 4 31, etc). When we come to the Apocrypha, in 2 Esd there are several references in which Zion is used



Stairway in Ancient Wall-Modern Zion.

for the captive people of Judah (2 40; 3 2.31; 10 20.39. 44), but "Mount Zion" in this and other books (e.g. 1 Macc 4 37.60; 5 54; 6 48.62, etc) is always the Temple Hill.

Macc 4 37.60; b 54; 6 48.62, etc) is always the Temple Hill.

It has been pointed out as a curious and unaccountable exception that in Ezk as well as in Ch, Ezr and Neh, there is no mention of Zion, except the incidental reference to David's capture of the Jebusite of Name by Some be some religious reason for this. The Chronicler (2 Ch 3 1), too, alone refers to the Temple as on Mount Moriah. It is also noticeable that only in these books (2 Ch 27 3; 33 14; Neh 3 26 f; 11 21) does the name "Ophel" appear as a designation of a part of the southeastern hill, which apparently might equally fitly have been termed Zion. See Opher. Jos never uses the name "Zion" nor does it occur in the NT, except in two quotations (He 12 22; Rev 14 1).

Among the earlier Christian writers who mention "Zion," Origen used it as equivalent to the Temple

Hill, but in the 4th cent. writers commence to localize it up the southern part of the western hill. It was a period when Bib. topography was settled in 6. The Name "Zion" in Christian a very arbitrary manner, without any scientific or critical examination of the evidence, and this tradition once estab-

lished remained, like many such traditions, undisputed until very recent years. To Rev. W. F. Birch belongs much of the credit for the promulgation of the newer views which now receive the adherence of almost every living authority on the topography

LITERATURE.—See esp. ch vi in Smith's Jerusalem; for a defence of the older view see Kuemmel, Materialien z. Topog. des alt. Jerus.

E. W. G. MASTERMAN

ZIOR, $z\bar{\imath}'$ or (בְּיֹלֵיך, $c\bar{\imath}'\bar{\imath}$ or; Σώρθ, Sörth, or Σιώρ, Siôr): A town in the hill country of Judah (Josh 15 54); probably Si'air, $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles N.N.E. of Hebron where the Mukām 'Aīsa (Tomb of Esau) is now shown. It is a considerable village surrounded by cultivated land; a spring exists in the neighborhood; there are rock-cut tombs showing it is an ancient site (PEF, III, 309, Sh XXI).

ZIPH, zif (Τ), zīph; 'Οζείβ, Ozeib, or Ζίφ, Ziph): (1) A town in the hill country of Judah, mentioned along with Maon, Carmel and Jutah (Josh tioned along with Maon, Carmel and Jutan (Josh 15 55). It is chiefly celebrated in connection with the earlier history of David: "David... remained in the hill-country in the wilderness of Ziph" (1 S 23 14.15.24; 26 2); the Ziphites (1 S 23 19; 26 1; cf Ps 54 title) sought to betray him to Saul, but David escaped. Ziph was fortified by Rehoboam (2 Ch 11 8). The name also occurs in 1 Ch 2 42; 4 16. In connection with this last (cf ver 23) it is noticeable that Ziph is one of the four ver 23) it is noticeable that Ziph is one of the four

names occurring on the Heb stamped jar handles with the added למכל, la-melekh, "to the king."

The site is Tell Zif, 4 miles S.E. of Hebron, a conspicuous hill 2,882 ft. above sea-level; there are cisterns and, to the E., some ruins (PEF, III, 312,

(2) A town in the Negeb of Judah (Josh 15 24), site unknown. E. W. G. MASTERMAN

ZIPH (לוֹה , zīph, meaning unknown):

(1) A grandson of Caleb (1 Ch 2 42); LXX Zείφ, Zeíph.

(2) A son of Jehallelel (1 Ch 4 16). In LXX Cod. A reads Zιφαί, Ziphai, but B has the totally different form 'Aμηαχεί, Amēachei.

ZIPHAH, zī'fa (תְּבֶּין, zīphāh, a fem. form of "Ziph'"): A Judahite, "son" of Jehallelel. The name being fem. may be a dittography of the previous Ziph (1 Ch 4 16).

ZIPHIMS, zif'imz: In title of Ps 54 AV for RV ZIPHITES (q.v.).

ZIPHION, zif'i-on (אָפְּרוֹן, ciphyōn, "gaze" [?] [BDB]): A "son" of Gad (Gen **46** 16) = "Zephon" of Nu 26 15. See ZAPHON; ZEPHONITES.

ZIPHITES, zif'īts. See ZIPH.

ZIPHRON, zif'ron. See Sibraim.

ZIPPOR, zip'or (קוֹם", çīppōr; in Nu 22 4; 23 18; פֹּבֶּע ; cippōr, "bird," "swallow" [HPN, 94]): Father of Balak, king of Moab (Nu 22 2.10.16; Josh 24 9; Jgs 11 25).

ZIPPORAH, zi-pō'ra, zip'ō-ra (תּוְבּשׁלָּ, cippōrāh; Σεπφώρα, Sepphora): The Midianite wife of Moses, daughter of Jethro, also called Hobab, and probably granddaughter of Reuel, a priest of Midian at the time Moses fled from Egypt, later succeeded at his death by Jethro, or Hobab (Ex 2 21.22; **4** 25.26; **18** 2-6).

Whether or not Z. was the "Cushite woman" (Nu 12 1) is a much-mooted question. There is little ground for anything more than speculation on the subject. The use of the words, "Cushite woman" in the mouth of Aaron and Miriam may

have been merely a description of Z. and intended to be opprobrious, or they may have been ethnic in character and intended to denote another woman whom Moses had married, as suggested by Ewald (Gesch. des Volkes Israel, II, 252). The former view seems the more probable. The association of Midian and Cushan by Habakkuk (3 7) more than 700 years afterward may hardly be adduced to prove like close relationship between these peoples in the days of Moses. M. G. KYLE

ZITHRI, zith'rī. See Sithri.

ZIV, ziv (, ziw; AV Zif): The 2d month of the old Heb calendar, corresponding to Iyyar of the Jewish reckoning in later times. It is mentioned in 1 K 6 1.37. See Calendar.

ZIZ, ziz, ASCENT OF (עלֵכְהׁ הֹאִרין, maˈalēh ha-çīç; 'Aσαϵ, Hasaϵ, 'Aσισϵ, Hasisά): A pass in the wilderness of Judaea (2 Ch 20 16) leading from Hazazon-tamar (En-gedi, ver 2). This is generally identified with Wady Haşaşa, a valley by which the ancient road from En-gedi runs toward Jerus. any rate, an echo of the ancient name survives here: possibly the actual ascent was the present steep pass from En-gedi to the plateau above. See PEF, Sh

ZIZA, zī'za (XŢ'ī, zīzā', probably a childish reduplicated abbreviation or a term of endearment Curtis, Chron., 369, quoting Nöldeke in EB, III 3294]):

(1) A Simeonite chief (1 Ch 4 37). (2) A son of King Rehoboam, his mother being a daughter or granddaughter of Absalom (2 Ch 11 20).
(3) A probable reading for Zizah (q.v.).

ZIZAH, zī'za (דְּיָדֶה, zīzāh; see ZızA): A Gershonite Levite (1 Ch 23 11); in ver 10 the name is "Zina" (צֹנֵתֹת), while LXX and Vulg have "Ziza" (Zướ, Zizá) in both verses, and one Heb MS has zīzā' in ver 10. We should then probably read zīzā' in both verses, i.e. "Ziza."

ZOAN, zō'an (Tota, çō'an; Tavis, Tanis):

- Situation
 OT Notices
 Early History
 Hyksos Monuments
 Hyksos Population
 Hyksos Age
 Description of Site

The name is supposed to mean "migration" (Arab. tsan). The site is the only one connected with the history of Israel in Egypt, before the

1. Situation exodus, which is certainly fixed, being identified with the present village of San at the old mouth of the Bubastic branch of the Nile, about 18 miles S.E. of Damietta. It should be remembered that the foreshore of the Delta is continually moving northward, in consequence of the deposit of the Nile mud, and that the Nile mouths are much farther N. than they were even in the time of the geographer Ptolemy. Thus in the times of Jacob, and of Moses, Zoan probably lay at the mouth of the Bubastic branch, and was a harbor, Lake Menzaleh and the lagoons near Pelusium having been subsequently formed.

The city is only once noticed in the Pent (Nu 13 22), as having been built seven years after Hebron,

which existed in the time of Abraham. Zoan was certainly a very ancient 2. OT town, since monuments of the VIth Notices Egyp Dynasty have been found at the site. It has been thought that Zoar on the border of Egypt (Gen 13 10) is a clerical error for Zoan, but the LXX reading (Zógora) does not favor this

view, and the place intended is probably the fortress Zar, or Zor, often mentioned in Egyp texts as lying on the eastern borders of the Delta. Zoan is noticed in the Prophets (Isa 19 11.13; 30 4; Ezk 30 14), and its "princes" are naturally mentioned by Isaiah, since the capital of the XXIIId Egyp Dynasty (about 800 to 700 BC) was at this city. In Ps 78 12.43 the "field [or pastoral plain] of Zoan" is noticed as though equivalent to the land of . Goshen (q.v.).

Zoan was the capital of the Hyksos rulers, or "shepherd kings," in whose time Jacob came into

Egypt, and their monuments have 3. Early been found at the site, which favors History the conclusion that its plain was that "land of Rameses" (Gen 47 11; Ex 12 37; see RAAMSES) where the Hebrews had possessions under Joseph. It is probably the site of Avaris, which lay on the Bubastic channel according to Jos quoting Manetho (CAp, I, xiv), and which was rebuilt by the first of the Hyksos kings, named Salatis; for Avaris is supposed (Brugsch, Geog., I, 86-90, 278-80) to represent the Egyp name of the city *Ha-uar-t*, which means "the city of movement" (or "flight"), thus being equivalent to the Sem Zoan or "migration." It appears that, from very early times, the pastoral peoples of Edom and Pal were admitted into this region. The famous picture of the Amu, who bring their families on donkeys to Egypt, and offer the Sinaitic ibex as a present, is found at Beni Hasan in a tomb as old as the time of Usertasen II of the XIIth Dynasty, before the Hyksos age. A similar immigration of shepherds (see Рітном) from Aduma (or Edom) is also recorded in the time of Menepthah, or more than four centuries after the expulsion of the Hyksos by the XVIIIth, or Theban, Dynasty.

Besides the name of Pepi of the VIth Dynasty, found by Burton at Zoan, and many texts of the

XIIth Dynasty, a cartouche of Apepi (one of the Hyksos kings) was found 4. Hyksos Monuments by Mariette on the arm of a statue apparently of older origin, and a sphinx also bears the name of *Khian*, supposed to have been an early Hyksos ruler. The Hyksos type, been an early Hyksos ruler. The Hyksos type, with broad cheek bones and a prominent nose, unlike the features of the native Egyptians, has been regarded by Virchow and Sir W. Flower as Turanian, both at Zoan and at Bubastis; which agrees with the fact that Apepi is recorded to have worshipped no Egyp gods, but only Set (or Sutekh), who was also adored by Syrian Mongols (see HITTITES). At Bubastis this deity is called "Set of Rameses," which may indicate the identity of Zoan with the city Rameses.

with the city Rameses.

In the 14th cent. BC the city was rebuilt by Rameses II, and was then known as Pa-Ramessu. The Hyksos rulers had held it for 500 years according to Manetho, and were expelled after 1700 BC. George the Syncellus (Chronographia, about 800 AD) believed that Apepi (or Apophis) was the Pharaoh under whom Joseph came to Egypt, but there seems to have been more than one Hyksos king of the name, the latest being a contemporary of Ra-Seknen of the XIIIth Dynasty, shortly before 1700 BC. Manetho says that some supposed the Hyksos to be Arabs, and the population of Zoan under their rule was probably a mixture of Sem and Mongolic races, just as in Syria and Babylonia in the same ages. According to Brugsch (Hist of Egypt, II, 233), this population was known as Men or Menti, and came from Assyria E. of Ruten or Syria. This perhaps connects them with the Minyans of Matiene, who were a Mongolic race. This statement occurs in the great table of nations, on the walls of the Edut temple.

table of nations, on the waits of the Edit temple.

The Hyksos age corresponds chronologically with that of the 1st Dynasty of Babylon, and thus with the age of the Heb patriarchs Abraham and Jacob

6. Hyksos

Age

Age

The Hyksos age corresponds chronologically with that of the 1st Dynasty of Babylon, and thus with the age of the Heb patriarchs Abraham and Jacob

Supreme in Syria and Pal. It is very natural, therefore, that, like other Sem tribes even earlier, these patriarchs should have been well received in the Delta by the Hyksos Pharaohs,

and equally natural that, when Aahmes, the founder of the XVIIIth Egyp Dynasty, took the town of Avaris and expelled the Asiatics, he should also have oppressed the Hebrews, and that this should be intended when we read (Ex 1 8) that "there arose a new king over Egypt, who knew not Joseph." The exodus, according to the OT dates, occurred in the time of the XVIIIth Dynasty (see Exonus) when Israel left Goshen. The later date advocated by some scholars, in the reign of Menepthah of the XIIXth Dynasty, hardly agrees with the monumental notice of the immigration of Edomites into the Delta in his reign, which has been mentioned above; and in his time Egypt was being invaded by tribes from the N. of Asia.

Zoan, as described by Rev. G. J. Chester (Mem. Survey W. Pal, Special Papers, 1881, 92-96), is now

only a small hamlet of mud huts in a 7. Descrip- sandy waste, W. of the huge mounds of its ancient temple; but, besides the tion of Site black granite sphinx, and other statues

of the Hyksos age, a red sandstone figure of Rameses II and obelisks of granite have been excavated, one representing this king adoring the gods; while the names of Amen, Tum and Mut appear as those of the deities worshipped, in a beautiful chapel in the temple, carved in red sandstone, and belonging to

the same age of prosperity in Zoan

C. R. CONDER ZOAR, zō'ar (פֿעָלֵּר, צַלַּיִּם, cō'ar; LXX usually Σηγώρ, Sēgōr, Zόγορα, Zógora): The name of the city to which Lot escaped from Sodom (Gen 19 20-23.30), previously mentioned in 13 10: where its former name is said to have been Bela. In 19 22, its name is said to have been given because of its littleness, which also seems to have accounted for its being spared. The location of Zoar has much to do with that of the cities of the Plain or Valley of Siddim, with which it is always connected. In Dt 34 3, Moses is said to have viewed "the Plain of the valley of Jericho the city of palm trees, unto Zoar," while in Isa 15 5 and Jer 48 4 (where the LXX reads unto "Zoar," instead of "her little ones") it is said to be a city of Moab. The traditional location of the place is at the south end of the Dead Sea. Jos says (BJ, IV, viii, 4) that the Dead Sea extended "as far as Zoar of Arabia," while in Ant, I, xi, 4, he states that the place was still called Zoar. Eusebius (Onom, 261) locates the Dead Sea between Jericho and Zoar, and speaks of the remnants of the ancient fertility as still visible. Ptolemy (v. 17.5) regards it as belonging to Arabia Petraea. The Arabian geographers mention it under the name Zughar, Sughar, situated 1° S. of Jericho, in a hot and unhealthful valley at the end of the Dead Sea, and speak of it as an important station on the trade route between Akkabah and Jericho. The Crusaders mention "Segor" as situated in the midst of palm trees. The place has not been definitely identified by modern explorers, but from Gen 19 19-30 we infer that it was in the plain and not in the mountain. If we fix upon the south end of the Dead Sea as the Vale of Siddim, a very natural place for Zoar and one which agrees with all the traditions would be at the base of the mountains of Moab, E. of Wâdy Ghurundel, where there is still a well-watered oasis several miles long and 2 or 3 wide, which is probably but a remnant of a fertile plain once extending out over a considerable portion of the shallow south end of the Dead Sea when, as shown elsewhere (see Dead Sea), the water level was considerably lower than now.

Robinson would locate it on the northeast corner of el-Lisān on the borders of the river Kerak, but this was done entirely on theoretical grounds which would be met as well in the place just indicated, and which is generally fixed upon by the writers who regard the Vale of Siddim as at the south end of the Dead Sea. Conder, who rigorously maintains that the Vale of Siddim is at the north end of the Dead Sea, looks favorably upon the theory of Rev. W. H. Birch that the place is represented by the present Tell Shaphur, a white rocky mound at the foot of the Moab Mountains, a mile E. of Beth-haram

(Tell er-Rameh), 7 miles N.E. of the mouth of the Jordan, a locality remarkable for its stone monuments and well-supplied springs, but he acknowledges that the name is more like the Christian Segor than the original Zoar.

GEORGE FREDERICK WRIGHT

ZOBAH, zō'ba (אֹבְרֹבָ , çōbhāh; Σουβά, Soubá): The name is derived by Halévy from zehōbhāh as referring to its supplies of "bright yellow" brass; but this word might be more appropriately used to contrast its cornfields with white Lebanon. Zobah was an Aramaean kingdom of which we have the first notice in Saul's wars (1 S 14 47).

(1) David's first war.-When David sought to extend his boundary to the Euphrates, he came into contact with its king Hadadezer, and a great battle was fought in which David took many prisoners. Damascus, however, came to the rescue and fresh resistance was made, but a complete rout followed and great spoil fell to the victor, as well as access to the rich copper mines of Tebah and Berothai. Toi, king of Hamath, who had suffered in war with Hadadezer, now sent his son on an embassy with greetings and gifts to David (2 S 8 3-12; 1 Ch

18 3-12). See Ps 60, title.

(2) David's second war.—During David's Ammonite war, the enemy was strengthened by alliance with Zobah, Maacah and Beth-rehob, and Israel was attacked from both N. and S. at the same time. The northern confederation was defeated by Joab, but Hadadezer again gathered an army, including levies from beyond the Euphrates. These, under Shobach the captain of the host, were met by David in person at Helam, and a great slaughter ensued Shobach himself being among the slain (2 S 10 6–19, AV "Zoba"; 1 Ch 19 3–19). Rezon, son of Eliada, now broke away from Hadadezer and, getting possession of Damascus, set up a kingdom hostile to Israel (1 K 11 23-25). Solomon seems (2 Ch 8 3) to have invaded and subdued Hamathzobah, but the text, esp. LXX, is obscure.

(3) Geographical position.—We can now consider the vexed question of the situation and extent of Aram-zobah. (See Syria, 4, [10].) In addition to the OT references we have the Assyr name lists. In these Subiti is placed between Kui and Zemar, and, where it is otherwise referred to, a position is implied between Hamath and Damascus. It would thus lie along the eastern slopes of Anti-Lebanon extending thence to the desert, and in the north it may have at times included Emesa (modern Homs) around which Nöldeke would locate it. Damascus was probably a tributary state till seized by Rezon. Winckler a tributary state till seized by Rezon. Winckler would identify it with another Subiti, a place in the Hauran mentioned by Assurbanipal on the Rassam Cylinder vii, lines 110–12. This latter may be the native place of Igal, one of David's "thirty" (2 S 23 36), who is named among eastern Israelites.

The kingdom of Zobah in addition to its mineral wealth must have been rich in vineyards and fruitful fields, and its conquest must have added greatly to the wealth and power of Israel's king W. M. Christie

ZOBEBAH, zō-bē'ba (מְצֹבֶבֶה , ha-çōbhēbhāh, meaning uncertain): A Judahite name with the article prefixed (1 Ch 4 8); some would read "Jabez" instead as in ver 9.

ZOHAR, zō'här (ገ፲፱ , $\varsigma \bar{o} har$, meaning uncertain): (1) Father of Ephron the Hittite (Gen 23 8; **25** 9).

(2) "Son" of Simeon (Gen 46 10; Ex 6 15)= "Zerah" of Nu 26 13; 1 Ch 4 24; see Zerah, 4. (3) In 1 Ch 4 7, where Kerë is "and cōhar" for Kethībh, yichar, RV "Izhar," AV wrongly

"Jezoar."

ZOHELETH, zō'hė-leth, THE STONE OF (728 תוֹדֶוֹלֵח, 'ebhen ha-zōheleth, "serpent's stone"): "And Adonijah slew sheep and oxen and fatlings by the Adonijah slew sheep and oxen and fatlings by the stone of Zoheleth, which is beside En-rogel" (1 K 1 9). Evidently this was a sacred stone—probably a maççābhāh such as marked a Can. sanctuary. A source of "living water" has always in the Sem world been a sacred place; even today at most such places, e.g. at Bîr Eyyûb, the modern representative of En-rogel, there is a mihrâb and a platform for prayer. The stone has disappeared, but it is thought that an echo of the name survives in exthought that an echo of the name survives in ez-Zehwēleh, the name of a rocky outcrop in the village of Siloam. Because the name is particularly associated with an ascent taken by the woman coming from the Virgin's Fount, to which it is adjacent, some authorities have argued that this, the Virgin's Fount, must be *En-rogel*; on this see En-rogel: Gіном. Against this view, as far as ez-Zeḥwēleh is concerned, we may note: (1) It is by no means certain that the modern Arab. name-which is used for similar rocky spots in other places—is really derived from the Heb; (2) the name is now applied to quite different objects, in the Heb to a stone, in the Arab. to a rocky outcrop; (3) the name is not confined to this outcrop near the Virgin's Fount alone, but applies, according to at least some of the fellahin of Siloam, to the ridge along the whole village site; and (4) even if all the above were disproved, names are so frequently transferred from one locality to another in Pal that no argument can

be based on a name alone. E. W. G. MASTERMAN

ZOHETH, zō'heth (זֹתְוֹת , zōḥēth, meaning unknown): A Judahite (1 Ch 4 20). The name after "Ben-zoheth" at the end of the verse has fallen out. See Ben-zoheth.

ZOÖLOGY, zō-ol'ō-ji: A systematic list of the animals of the Bible includes representatives of the principal orders of mammals, birds and reptiles, and not a few of the lower animals. For further notices of animals in the following list, see the articles referring to them:

Mammals:

PRIMATES: Ape INSECTIVORA: Hedgehog. Mole (q.v.) not found in Pal

Chiroptera: Bat Carnivora:

ARNIVORA:
(a) Felidae, Cat, Lion, Leopard
(b) Hyaenidae, Hyena
(c) Canidae, Dog (incl. Greyhound), Fox, Jackal,
Wolf

(d) Mustelidae, Ferret, Badger, Marten (s.v. Cat) (e) Ursidae, Bear

UNGULATA

(a) Odd-toed: Horse, Ass, Mule, Rhinoceros
(b) Even-toed non-ruminants: Swine, Hippopota-mus (Behemoth)

mus (Benemoun)
(c) Ruminants:
(1) Bovidae, Domestic Cattle, Wild Ox or Unicorn, Domestic Sheep, Domestic Goat, Sinaitic Ibex (s.v. Goat), Persian Wild Goat (s.v. Chamois), Gazelle, Arabian Oryx (s.v. Antelope), Chamois
(2) Cervidae, Roe Deer, Fallow Deer, Red Deer (s.v. Deer)
(3) Camelidae, Camel

PROBOSCIDEA: Elephant HYRACOIDEA: Coney

CETACEA: Whale, Dolphin, Porpoise
RODENTIA: Mouse, Mole-Rat (s.v. Mole), Porcupine, Hare

PASSERES: Sparrow, Swallow, Raven, Hoopoe, Night-

Yulture, Gier-Eagle, Osprey, Kite, Glede, Hawk, Falcon

Falcon
COLUMBAE: Dove, Turtle-Dove
GALLINAE: Cock, Partridge, Quail, Peacock
GRALLATORES: Crane, Heron, Stork
STEGANOPODES: Pelican, Cormorant

RATITAE: Ostrich

Reptiles:
CROCODILIA: Crocodile (Leviathan)
CHELONIA: Tortoise
Flory Serpent,

CROCODILIA: Crocodine (Levischan)
CHELONIA: Tortoise
OPHIDIA: Serpent, Fiery Serpent, Adder, Asp, Viper
(S.v. Serpent)
LACERTILIA: Lizard, Great Lizard, Gecko, Chameleon,
Land Crocodile, Sand Lizard (s.v. Lizard)

Amphibians: Frog

Fishes

Fish (in general)

Mollusks: Snail, Murex (Purple)

HYMENOPTERA: Ant, Bee, Hornet Lepidoppera: Clothes-Moth (s.v. Moth), Silk-Worm, Worm (Larva)

SIPHOMAPTERA: Flea DIPTERA: Fly RHYNCHOTA: Louse, Scarlet-Worm ORTHOPTERA: Grasshopper, Locust

(s.v. Insects)

Arachnida:
Spider, Scorpion

Coelenterata:

Coral Porifera:

Sponge

Some interesting problems arise in connection with the lists of clean and unclean animals in Lev The list of clean animals in Dt 14 4-5 is as follows:

Нев	AV	RV	TRISTRAM
1. shōr 2. sēh	Ox	Ox	Ox
k^e sābhīm.	Sheep	Sheep	Sheep
3. sēh 'izzīm	Goat	Goat	Goat
4. 'ayyāl	Hart	Hart	Red deer
5. ç ^e bhī	Roebuck	Gazelle	Gazelle
6. yahmūr	Fallow deer	Roebuck	Bubale
7. 'akkō	Wild goat	Wild goat	Ibex
8. dīshōn	Pygarg	Pygarg	Addax
9. te'ō	Wild ox	Antelope	Oryx
10. zemer	Chamois	Chamois	Barbary sheep

Probably the most valuable modern work on Bible animals is Tristram's Natural History of the Bible, published in 1867 and to a great extent followed in RV and in articles in various Bib. encyclopaedias. In the table given above, RV really differs from Tristram only in 6, 8 and 10. Hart is the male of the red deer, the ibex is a kind of wild goat, and the oryx is a kind of antelope. The first three in the table are domestic animals whose identification is not questioned. The other seven are presumably wild animals, regarding every one of which there is more or less uncertainty. 'Akkō, dīshōn and zemer occur only in this passage, $t^* \bar{o}$ only here and in Isa 51 20. 'Ayyāl occurs 22 t, $s^* bh\bar{\imath}$ 16 t, $yahm\bar{\imath}r$ only twice. The problem is to find seven ruminant manmals to correspond to these names. The camel (ver 7) is excluded as unclean. The gazelle, the Sinaitic ibex, and the Pers wild goat are common. deer was fairly common in Carmel and Southern Lebanon 20 years ago, but is now nearly or quite extinct. The fallow deer exists in Mesopotamia, and Tristram says that he saw it in Galilee, though the writer is inclined to question the accuracy of the observation. The oryx is fairly common in Northwestern Arabia, approaching the limits of Edom. Here, then, are six animals, the gazelle, ibex, Pers wild goat, roe deer, fallow deer, and oryx, whose existence in or near Pal is undisputed.

The bubale, addax and Barbary sheep of Tristram's list are North African species which the writer believes do not range as far E. as Egypt, and which he believes should therefore be excluded. In Asla Minor are found the red deer, the chamois and the Armenian wild sheep, but there is no proof that any of these ever ranged as far S. as Pal. The bison exists in the Caucasus, and the wild ox, urus or aurochs, seems to be depicted in Assyr sculptures. The buffalo is found in Pal, but is believed to have been introduced since Bible times. The Tartarian roe is named Cervus pygargus, and there is a South African antelope named Bubalis pygargus, but the pygarg of EV

has no real existence. The word means "white-rumped," and might apply to various deer and antelopes.

To complete the list of seven we are therefore driven to one of the following: the red deer, the chamois, the Armenian wild sheep, the bison and the aurochs, no one of which has a very good claim to be included. The writer considers that the roe, which has been the commonest deer of Pal, is the 'auuāl

(cf Arab. ایل , 'aiyil, "deer"). Çebhī is very near

to Arab. ظبّي, zabi, "gazelle," and, with its 16 occurrences in the OT, may well be that common animal. There is reason to think that $yahm\bar{u}r$ is the name of a deer, and the writer prefers to apply it to the fallow deer of Mesopotamia, as being more likely the fallow deer of Mesopotamia, as being more likely to have inhabited Pal than the red deer of Asia Minor. There is little evidence regarding ' $akk\bar{o}$, which occurs only here. The etymology is uncertain. LXX has $\tau \rho a \gamma \epsilon \lambda a \phi o$, tragélaphos, "goat-stag." Tg and Syr VSS, according to BDB, have ibex. $Y\bar{a}$ 'ēl (Job 39 1; Ps 104 18; 1 S 24 2), EV "wild goat," is quite certainly the ibex, but it is possible that ' $akk\bar{o}$ may be another name for the same animal, $y\bar{a}$ 'ēl not occurring in this list. In BDB $d\bar{\tau} b b\bar{\sigma}$ is derived not occurring in this list. In BDB dīshōn is derived from $\sqrt{$ דרים, $d\bar{u}sh$, "to tread," and is considered to be a kind of wild goat. Since we have assigned 'akkō to the ibex, we may then assign this name to the other wild goat of the country, the Pers wild the other wild goat of the country, the rers wind goat or pasang. $T^{e/\bar{o}}$ is in RV antelope and in LXX $\delta \rho v \xi$, $\delta r u x$, "or γx ." This is a possible identification which suits also Isa 51 20, and does not preclude the possibility that the $r^{e/\bar{e}} m$, AV "unicorn," RV "wild-ox," may also be the oryx. The oryx is known to the Arabs under at least three names, the

commonest of which, بقر الوحش, baker el-wahsh,

means "wild-ox." Under Chamois, the writer suggests that zemer may be the pasang or Pers wild goat, which is figured in that article. There is little to choose in the assignment of the names, but as dīshōn has here been provisionally assigned to the pasang, nothing better is left for zemer than the "chamois" of EV, the claims of which are referred to above.

The list of unclean animals is considered in the art. on Lizard.

Prophecies of the desolation of Babylon and Edom in Isa 13 21.22; 34 11-15 contain names of animals, some of which present apparently insuperable difficulties. See under Jackat and Sarry. The Book of Job contains some remarkable references to animals, esp. in chs 39, 40, 41: to the wild goat, the wild ass, the wild ox, the ostrich, the horse, the hawk, the behemoth and the leviathan.

Prov 30 contains some curious allusions to natural history:

".... Things which are too wonderful for me

. . . . Things which are too wonderful for me

The way of an eagle in the air: The way of a serpent upon a rock [see EAGLE; WAY];

There are four things which are little upon the earth, But they are exceeding wise:
The ants are a people not strong,
Yet they provide their food in the summer;
The conies are but a feeble folk,
Yet they make their houses in the rocks;
The locusts have no king,
Yet go they forth all of them by bands;
The lizard taketh hold with her hands,
Yet is she in kings' palaces.

There are three things which are stately in their march, Yea, four which are stately in going:
The lion, which is mightiest among beasts,
And turneth not away for any;
The greyhound; the he-goat also;
And the king against whom there is no rising up."

An interesting grouping is found in the prophecy in Isa 11 6-8 (cf 65 25): "And the wolf shall dwell with the lamb, and the leopard shall lie down with the kid; and the calf and the young lion and the fatling together; and a little child shall lead them. And the cow and the

bear shall feed; their young ones shall lie down together; and the lion shall eat straw like the ox. And the sucking child shall play on the hole of the asp, and the weaned child shall put his hand on the adder's den."

The fauna of Pal is mainly European and Asiatic, but resembles in some important points the fauna of Africa. The Syrian coney is not found elsewhere and its only near allies are the conies of Africa. The gazelle and oryx belong to the group of antelopes which is esp. African. The lion and leopard range throughout Africa and Southwest Asia. The ostrich is found outside of Africa only in Arabia. Some of the smaller birds, as for instance the sun-bird, have their nearest allies in Africa. The fish of the Sea of Tiberias and the Jordan present important resemblances to African fishes. The same is true of some of the butterflies fishes. of Pal. Allying the fauna of Pal with that of Europe and North Asia may be noted the deer, bear, wolf, fox, hare and others. The ibex and Pers wild goat constitute links with central Asia, which is regarded as the center of distribution of the goat tribe.

The fauna of Pal has undoubtedly changed since Bible times. Lions have disappeared, bears and leopards have become scarce, the roe deer has nearly or quite disappeared within recent years. It is doubtful whether the aurochs, the chamois and the red deer were ever found in Pal, but if so they are entirely gone. The buffalo has been introduced and has become common in some regions. Domestic cats, common now, were perhaps not indigenous to ancient Palestine. In prehistoric times, or it may be before the advent of man, the glacial period had an influence upon the fauna of this country, traces of which still persist. On the summits of Lebanon are found two species of butterfly, Pieris callidice, found also in Siberia, and Vanessa urticae, common in Europe. When the glacial period came on, these butterflies with a host of other creatures were driven down from the N. When the cold receded northward they moved back again, except for these, and perhaps others since become extinct, which found the congenial cold in ascending the mountains where they became isolated. Syria and Pal were never covered with a sheet of ice, but the famous cedar grove of Lebanon stands on the terminal moraine of what was once an extensive ALFRED ELY DAY glacier.

ZOPHAH, zō'fa (תְּבַּוֹשֵׁ , cōphaḥ, meaning uncertain): An Asherite (1 Ch 7 35.36).

ZOPHAI, zō'fī, zō'fā-ī (צוֹפַר , çōphay, meaning uncertain): In 1 Ch 6 26 (Heb ver 11)=Zuph, $K^{\circ}r\bar{e}$ of ver 35 (Heb ver 20), and 1 S 1 1. See ZUPH, (1).

ZOPHAR, zō'far (צֹפַר, צַלֹפָר, cōphar, meaning doubtful, supposed from root meaning "to leap"; $\Sigma \omega \phi \phi \rho$, $S\bar{o}phar$): One of the three friends of Job who, hearing of his affliction, make an appointment together to visit and comfort him. He is from the tribe of Naamah, a tribe and place otherwise unknown, for as all the other friends and Job himself are from lands outside of Pal, it is not likely that this place was identical with Naamah in the W. of Judah (Josh 15 41). He speaks but twice (chs 11, 20); by his silence the 3d time the writer seems to intimate that with Bildad's 3d speech (ch 25; see under Bildad) the friends' arguments are exhausted. He is the most impetuous and dogmatic of the three (cf 11 2.3; 20 2.3); stung to passionate response by Job's presumption in maintaining that he is wronged and is seeking light from God. His words are in a key of intensity amounting to reckless exaggeration. He is the first to accuse Job directly

of wickedness; averring indeed that his punishment is too good for him (11 6); he rebukes Job's impious presumption in trying to find out the unsearchable secrets of God (11 7-12); and yet, like the rest of the friends, promises peace and restoration on condition of penitence and putting away iniquity (11 13-19). Even from this promise, however, he reverts to the fearful peril of the wicked (ver 20); and in his 2d speech, outdoing the others, he presses their lurid description of the wicked man's woes to the extreme (20 5-29), and calls forth a straight contradiction from Job, who, not in wrath, but in dismay, is constrained by loyalty to truth to acknowledge things as they are. Zophar seems designed to represent the wrong-headedness of the JOHN FRANKLIN GENUNG odium theologicum.

ZOPHIM, zō'fim, THE FIELD OF (ΔΤΕΨ΄, s°dhēh çōphīm; εls άγροῦ σκοπιάν, eis agroù skopian): The place on the top of Pisgah to which Balak took Balaam, whence only a part of the host of Israel could be seen (Nu 23 14). Perhaps we should simply translate "field of watchers." Conder draws attention to the name Tal'at es-Sufa attached to an ascent leading up to the ridge of Nebā from the N. Here possibly is a survival of the old name. For Ramathaim-zophim see RAMAH.

ZORAH, zō'ra (Τζης, çor'āh; Σαραά, Saraá): A city on the border of Dan, between Eshtaol and Ir-shemesh (Josh 19 41); the birthplace of Samson (Jgs 13 2.25); near here too he was buried (Jgs 16 31); from here some Danites went to spy out the land (Jgs 18 2.11). In Josh 15 33 it is, with Eshtaol, allotted to Judah, and after the captivity it was reinhabited by the "children of Judah" (Neh 11 29, AV "Zareah"). It was one of the cities fortified by Rehoboam (2 Ch 11 10). It is probable that it is mentioned under the name Tsarkha along with Aialuna (Aijalon; 2 Ch 11 10) in the Am Tab (No. 265, Petrie) as attacked by the Khabiri.

It is the modern Sur'a, near the summit of a lofty hill on the north side of the Wûdy eş-Surār (Vale of Sorek). The summit itself is occupied by the Mukâm Nebi Sāmit, overhung by a lofty palm, and there are many remains of ancient tombs, cisterns, there are many remains of ancient usings, externs, wine presses, etc, around. From here Eshā'a (Eshtaol), 'Ain Shēms (Beth-shemesh) and Tibnah (Timnah) are all visible. See PEF, III, 158, Sh XVII. E. W. G. MASTERMAN Χ̈̄VII.

ZORATHITES, zō'rath-īts (פְּיִלְיִי , çor'āthī; Σαραθαίοι, Sarathatoi [1 Ch 2 53, ĀV "Zareath-ites"], Β, ὁ 'Αραθεί, ho Arathet, Α, ὁ Σαραθί, ho Saratht [4 2]): The inhabitants of Zorah, who are said to be descended from Kiriath-jearim families.

ZOREAH, zō'rė-á (קּרֶעֶה, çor'āh): AV of Josh 15 33 for ZORAH (q.v.).

ZORITES, zō'rīts (יְבֶּלֶּדְ, cor'ī; Β, ο Ἡσαρσεί, ho Hēsarset, A, & 'Hoapael, ho Hēsaraet): In 1 Ch 2 54 for "Zorites" we should probably read Zorathites (q.v.). These formed a half of the inhabitants of Manahath (q.v.).

ZOROASTRIANISM, zō-rō-as'tri-an-iz'm:

I. HISTORY

Sources

Summary LITERATURE

Sources
RELATION TO ISRAEL
1. Influence on Occident
2. Popular Judaism
3. Possible Theological Influence
4. Angelology and Demonology
5. Eschatology
6. Messiah
7. Ethics
8. Summary

I. History.—The sacred book of the Persians, the Avesta, is a work of which only a small part has survived. Tradition tells that the Avestan

MSS have suffered one partial and two Sources total destructions (at the hands of Turanians, Macedonians, and Mohammedans, respectively), and what remains seems to be based on a collection of passages derived from oral tradition and arranged for liturgical purposes at the time of the first Sassanians (after 226 AD). None the less, a portion (the Gathas) of the present work certainly contains material from Zoroaster himself and much of the remainder of the Avesta is pre-Christian, although some portions are later. Outside of the Avesta there is an extensive literature written in Pahlavi. Most of this in its final form belongs to the 9th Christian cent., or to an even later date, but in it there is embodied much very early matter. Unfortunately criticism of these sources is as yet in a very embryonic condition. The Gr historians, esp. Plutarch and Strabo, are naturally of great importance, but the chief Gr work (that of Theorems, 1) is less than the chief Gr work (that of Theorems) is less than the chief Gr work (that of Theorems) is less than the chief Gr work (that of Theorems) is less than the chief Gr work (that of Theorems) is less than the chief Gr work (that of Theorems) is less than the chief Gr work (that of Theorems) is less than the chief Gr work (that of Theorems) is less than the chief Gr work (that of Theorems) is less than the chief Gr work (that of Theorems) is less than the chief Gr work (that of Theorems) is less than the chief Gr work (that of Theorems). pompus) is lost.

For a general account of Zoroastrianism, see Persian Religion.

II. Relation to Israel.—Zoroastrianism was an active, missionary religion that has exerted a profound influence on the world's thought,

1. Influence all the more because in the West (at on Occident any rate) Ahura Mazda was not at all a jealous god, and Mazdeism was always quite ready to enter into syncretism with other systems. But this syncretistic tendency makes the task of the historian very delicate. None of the three great streams that swept from Persia over the West-Mithraism, Gnosticism, and Manicheism-contained much more than a Mazdean nucleus, and the extrication of Mazdean from other (esp. older Magian and Bab) elements is frequently impossible. Yet the motive force came from Zoro-aster, and long before the Christian era "Magi" were everywhere (as early as 139 BC they were expelled from Rome; cf Rab-Mag; Branch). Often, doubt-less, charlatans, they none the less brought teachings that effected a far-reaching modification of popular views and produced an influence on so basic

a writer as Plato himself. Within the period 538-332 BC (that Cyrus was a Zoroastrian seems now established) Israel was

under the rule of Mazdeans, and Mazdean influence on at least the popular 2. Popular conceptions was inevitable. It appears clearly in such works as Tob **Judaism** (Expos T, XI, 257 ff), and Hystaspis (GJV, ed 4, III, 592–95), in many Talmudic passages (ZDMG, XXI, 552–91), certain customs of the Essenes, various anti-demoniac charms (see Exorcism; Sorcery), and, perhaps, in the feast of Purim. And the stress laid on the prophetic ability of the Magi in Mt 2 1-12 is certainly not without significance. But the important question is the existence or extent of Mazdean influence on the formal Jewish religion.

As a matter of fact, after Israel's contact with Persia the following elements, all known to Maz-

deism, appear, and apparently for the 3. Possible first time: (1) a formal angelology,
Theological with six (or seven) archangels at the
Influence head of the developed hierarchy; (2) these angels not mere companions of

God but His intermediaries, established (often) over special domains; (3) in the philosophical religion, a corresponding doctrine of hypostases; (4) as a result, a remoter conception of God; (5) a developed demonology; (6) the conception of a supreme head (Satan) over the powers of evil; (7) the doctrine of immortality; (8) rewards or punishments for the soul immediately after death; (9) a schematic eschatology,

esp. as regards chronological systems; (10) a superhuman Messiah; (11) bodily resurrection; (12) a rationalized, legalistic conception of God's moral

In this list Mazdean influence may be taken as certain in points (1), (2), (5), (6). Of course belief

4. Angelology and Demonology

in angels and (still more) in demons had always existed in Israel, and a tendency to classification is a natural product of increased culture. But the thoroughness and rapidity of the process and the general acceptance of

its principles show something more than cultural growth (cf the influence of pseudo-Dionysius on Christianity). In particular, the doctrine of patrons (angelic or demoniac) seems to find no ex-pression in the preëxilic religion. Nor was the incorporation into a single being, not only of phases, but of the whole power of evil, a necessary growth from the earlier religion; the contrast between 2 S 24 1 and 1 Ch 21 1 shows a sharp alteration in viewpoint. On the other hand, the dualism that Ahriman was to explain produced no effect on Israel, and God remained the Creator of all things, even of Satan. See Satan; Antichrist. (3) presents a problem that still needs proper analysis. Zoroastrian abstractions may well have stimulated Jewish speculation. But the influence of Gr thought can certainly not be ignored, and a rationalizing process applied to the angelology would account for the purely Jewish growth of the concepts. (4) is bound up to some degree with the above, and presents the most unpleasant feature of the later Judaism. Sharply counter to prophetic and pre-prophetic teaching, it was modified by the still later Talmudism. Its inconsistency with the teaching of Christ needs no comment. In part, however, it may well have been due to the general "transcendentalizing" tendencies of the intermediate period. See God; Salvation.

It is possible, similarly, to understand the advanced Jewish eschatology as an elaboration and refinement of the genuinely prophetic

Day of Jeh concepts, without postulating foreign influence. In particular, 5. Eschatology a doctrine of immortality was inevitable in Judaism, and the Jewish premises were of a sort that made a resurrection belief necessary. presence of similar beliefs in Mazdeism may have hastened the process and helped determine the specific form, and for certain details uneconstanting is quite likely (of the twelve periods of world-history in Apoc Abraham 29; Syr Bar 53 ff; 2 Esd 14). extant Pers apocalypses are all very late, and literary (if not religious) influence on them from Christian and Jewish sources seems inevitable (for the Bahman Yast it is certain). Nor could the effect of the Mazdean eschatology have been very thorough. Of its two most cardinal doctrines, the Chinvat Bridge is absent from Judaism, and the molten-metal ordeal is referred to only in the vaguest terms, if at all. Indeed, the very fact that certain doctrines were identified with the "heathen" may well have deterred Jewish acceptance. See Parou-SIA; RESURRECTION.

Similarly, the Messiah, as future king, was fixed in Jewish belief, and His elevation to celestial position was an inevitable step in the general refining process. The Pers Saoshyant

6. Messiah refining process. doctrine may well have helped, and the appearance of the Messiah "from . . . the sea" in 2 Esd 13 3 certainly recalls the Mazdean appearance from a lake. But Saoshyant is not a celestial figure. He has no existence before his final appearance (or birth) and he comes from earth, not from heaven. The Jewish Son of manMessiah—on the other hand, is a purely celestial figure and (even in 2 Esd 13) existed from (or before) creation. The birth of Saoshyant from the seed of Zoroaster and that of the (non-celestial) Messiah from the seed of David have no connection whatever. See Messiah; Son of Man.

Not much can be made of the parallel in legalism.

Nearly every religion has gone through a similar legalistic state. The practical eudemonistic outlook of such works as Prov and Sir (see Wisdom) doubtless have analogies in Mazdeism, and the comfortable union of religion and the good things of the present life among the Persians may well have had an effect on certain of the Jews, esp. as the Persians preserved a good ethical standard. But only a part of Judaism was eudemonistic, and Mazdean and Jewish casuistry are based on entirely distinct principles. distinct principles.

Summarizing, about the most that can be asserted for Mazdean influence is that it left its mark on the angelology and démonology and that it possibly contributed certain escha-8. Sum-

tological details. Apart from this, it may well have helped determine the mary development of elements already present in Israel's faith. On the common people (esp. the more super-stitious) its influence was considerably greater. But there is nothing in the formal theology of Judaism that can be described as "borrowed" Mazdean teachings.

Note.—There is almost certainly no reference to Mazdean dualism in Isa 45 7.

Note.—There is aimost certainly no reterence to Mazdean dualism in Isa 45 7.

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BURTON SCOTT EASTON ZOROBABEL, zô-rob'a-bel, zô-rō'ba-bel (Ζορο-βάβελ, Zorobábel): In AV; Gr form of "Zerub-babel," thus RV (Mt 1 12.13; Lk 3 27).

ZORZELLEUS, zôr-zel'ê-us (A, Zoρζελλέος, Zorzelléos, B [and Swete], Φαηζελδαΐος, Phaēzeldaios, Fritzsche, Βερζελλαΐος, Berzellaios; AV Berzelus; RVm "Phaezeldaeus"): The father of Augia, the wife of Jaddus, head of a family that "usurped the office of the priesthood" in the return under Zerubbabel (1 Esd 5 38); "Barzillai" of Ezr 2 61; Neh 7 63. See Barzillai.

ZUAR, zū'ar, zoo'ar (אָלָּעָד), çū'ār, "little one"; Σωγάρ, Sōgár): Father of Nethanel (Nu 1 8; 2 5; 7 18.23; 10 15), who was head of the tribe of Issachar.

ZUPH, zuf (더라보, çūph, "honeycomb"):

(1) According to 1 S 1 1b; 1 Ch 6 35 (Heb ver 20) = "Zophai" of 1 Ch 6 26 (11), an ancestor of Elkanah and Samuel. But Budde and Wellhausen take it to be an adj., and so read 'P'' , cuphi, in 1 S 1 1b: "Tohu a Zuphite, an Ephraimite." It should probably be read also in ver 1a: "Now there was a certain man of the Ramathites, a Zuphite of the hill-country of Ephraim," as the Heb construction in the first part of the verse is otherwise unnatural. LXX A has Σούπ, Sούρ, Luc., Σούφ, Soúph, in 1 S

1 1b; 1 Ch 6 26 (11), B, Σουφεί, Soupheí, A, Luc., Σουφέ, Souphi; 6 35 (20), B A, Σούφ, Soúph, Luc., Σουφί, Souphi, Kethibh, Τ΄ \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{c} \mathbf{i} ph.

(2) LXX BA, Σείφ, Sείρh, Luc., Σιφά, Siphá, "the land of Zuph," a district in Benjamin, near its northern border (1 S 9 5).

DAVID FRANCIS ROBERTS
ZUR, zûr (٦٦١, çūr, "rock"):
(1) A prince or chief (Nu 25 15; 31 8) of Midian, father of the woman slain with Zimri by Phinehas. Josh 13 21 describes him as one of the princes of Sihon, but the reference there is regarded as a gloss.

(2) An inhabitant of Gibeon (1 Ch 8 30; 9 36), to be connected probably, according to Curtis, with "Zeror" of 1 S 9 1.

ZURIEL, zū'ri-el (בּרַרְאָל , cūrī'ēl, "my rock is El [God]"): Prince of the house of Merari (Nu 3 35).

The word $c\bar{u}r$, "rock," occurs also in the compound names Elizur (1 5), Zurishaddai (1 6, etc) and Pedahzur (1 10). Gray, Nu, 6, says that a Sabaean name $S\bar{u}ri$

DAVID FRANCIS ROBERTS ZURISHADDAI, zū-ri-shad'ā-ī, zū-ri-shad'ī עַּרְרְשָׁדַּר), cūrīshadday, "my rock is Shadday"): Father of Shelumiel the head of the tribe of Simeon (Nu 1 6; 2 12; 7 36.41; 10 19). See God, Names of, II, 8; Zuriel.

ZUZIM, zū'zim (דוֹדְיֹם, zūzīm; ἔθνη ἰσχυρά, éthnē ischurá, "strong nations." So Jerome in Quaest. Hebr.: gentes fortes): A people conquered by Chedorlaomer (Gen 14 5). They dwelt in Ham, a region not otherwise known but, from the connection, inferred to be E. of the Jordan. It may also be inferred that they were a race of giants. They were perhaps to be identified with the Zamzummim.

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Amariah, Baasha, Bacchides, Bathsheba,
Damage, Desire, Goel, Hallelujah, Ishbosheth, and many shorter articles.

CALDECOTT, REV. W. SHAW, M.R.A.S., Member of the Wesleyan Conferences of Great Britain and South Africa; Bournemouth, England.

Ahaz, Altar, Amaziah, Athaliah, Jehoash, Jeroboam II, Tabernacle (Historical), Temple (Historical), and other articles.

Calder, William M., M.A., Professor of Greek and Lecturer in Christian Epigraphy in the University of Manchester, Manchester, Eng-

Antioch of Pisidia, Asia Minor, Cauda, Crete, Derbe, Iconium, Lycaonia, Lystra, Phoenix, Pisidia.

- Carver, William Owen, M.A., D.D., Th.D., LL.D., Professor of Comparative Religion and Missions, and Associate Professor of New Testament Interpretation, in the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary, Louisville, Kentucky. Atonement, Keys (Power of), Propitiation, Truth, and a few shorter articles.
- CAVERNO, REV. CHARLES, M.A., D.D., LL.D., Author and retired Clergyman of the Congregational Church; Lombard, Illinois.

Beauty, Divorce in NT, Family, Polygamy, Purity.

- CHRISTIE, REV. WILLIAM M., Missionary to Jews, Glasgow, and Examiner in Turkish, Glasgow University, Glasgow, Scotland. Hamath, Inn, Nazirite, Seleucia, Syria, Zobah, and other articles.
- CLAY, ALBERT T., PH.D., LL.D., Laffan Professor of Assyriology and Babylonian Literature, Yale University, and Curator of the Babylonian Collection, New Haven, Connecticut. Ashurbanipal, Babel (Babylon), Babylonia, Esar-haddon, Sargon, Sennacherib, Ur of the Chaldees
- CLIPPINGER, WALTER GILLAN, B.A., D.D., President of Otterbein University, and Lecturer on Psychology and Education, Westerville, Ohio. Blood, Dream (Dreamer), Ecce Homo, Friend (Friendship), Obedience, Rab-mag, Rab-saris, Rabshakeh, and a few other short articles.
- Cobern, Rev. Camden M., D.D., Ph.D., Professor of English Bible and Philosophy of Religion in Allegheny College, Meadville, Pennsylvania. Alexandria, Calf (Golden), Ethiopia, Idolatry, Images, Palestine (Recent Exploration), Tahpanhes, Zerah (The Ethiopian).
- COHON, RABBI SAMUEL S., B.A., Zion Temple, Chicago, Illinois. Alliance, Aner, Aran, Ashhur, Ass, Barak, Ben-ammi.
- CONDER, the late Col. Claude Reignier, LL.D., M.R.A.S., Cheltenham, England. Baal-zephon, Etham, Exodus (The), Goshen, Hittites, Migdol, Palestine, Pithom, Punon, Raamses, Shur, Sinai, Succoth, Wanderings of Israel, Zoan.
- COTTON, REV. JESSE L., D.D., Professor of Old Testament Exegesis in the Presbyterian Theological Seminary, Louisville, Kentucky. Hiram, Hobab, and other articles.
- COWAN, REV. HENRY, D.D., Professor of Church History in the University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen, Scotland. Literature (Sub-apostolic Christian).
- CRANNELL, REV. PHILIP WENDELL, D.D., President of Kansas City Baptist Theological Seminary, and Professor of Homiletics and Pastoral Theology, Kansas City, Kansas. Clean, Cleanse, Defilement, Excommunication,

Father, Genealogy, Hallow (Hallowed), Obedience of Christ, Worship, and other articles.

- CRICHTON, REV. JAMES, B.D., M.A., Minister of the United Free Church, Chapelhall, Airdrie, Scotland.
 - Gedaliah, Gehazi, Hagar, Jair, Jareb, Jethro, Messiah, Sons of God (OT), and other articles.
- DAU, W. H. T., Professor, Concordia Theological Seminary (Dogmatics, English Bible); Editor "The Theological Quarterly," St. Louis, Missouri. Baptism (Lutheran Doctrine), Baptismal Regeneration, Lord's Supper.
- Davies, Rev. T. Witton, B.A., D.D., Ph.D., Professor of Semitic Languages in the University College at Bangor, North Wales. Apocrypha and the Books of, Divination, Magic, Poetry (Hebrew), Witchcraft, and other articles.
- Davies, Rev. William Walter, M.A., Ph.D., Professor of Hebrew, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio.

Absalom, Asa, Attitudes, Azariah, Divorce in OT, Nabal, Nahash, and a number of shorter articles.

Davis, Rev. John D., D.D., Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of Oriental and Old Testament Literature, Princeton Theological Seminary, Princeton, New Jersey.

Antediluvian Patriarchs, Names (Proper).

DAY, ALFRED ELY, M.A., M.Sc., Professor of Natural Sciences in the Syrian Protestant College, Beirut, Syria.

Geology, Natural Features, Zoölogy, and a large number of articles on related subjects.

- DEMENT, REV. BYRON H., TH.D., D.D., Professor Sunday School Pedagogy, Southern Baptist Theological Seminary, Louisville, Kentucky. Repentance, Teaching, and other articles.
- ICKIE, ARCHIBALD CAMPBELL, M.A., F.S.A., A.R.I.B.A., Architect and Assistant Secretary of Palestine Exploration Fund; London, England.

Arch, Architecture, Building, Cistern, City, House, Ledge, Lodge, Loft.

- DICKIE, REV. JOHN, M.A., Professor of Systematic Theology and New Testament Language and Exegesis in Knox College, Dunedin, New Zealand. Christian, Christianity (in Principle and
- DOOLAN, REV. LEONARD W., B.A., TH.D., Pastor of First Baptist Church, Bowling Green, Kentucky. Ornament, Superstition, and other articles.
- DOSKER, REV. HENRY E., M.A., D.D., LL.D., Professor of Church History in the Presbyterian Seminary of Kentucky, Louisville, Kentucky. Asmoneans, Between the Testaments, Bishop (General), Cross, Herod, Lord's Supper (Historical), Nazarene, Strange Fire, and other articles.
- Downer, Benjamin Reno, B.A., Professor of Hebrew and Old Testament, Kansas City Theological Seminary, Kansas City, Kansas. Cupbearer, Cushion, Dish, Door, Hangings, Hearth, Home, and other articles.
- DUNELM, HANDLEY. (See Moule, H. C. G.)
- DUNGAN, DAVID ROBERTS, M.A., LL.D., Author; Des Moines, Iowa. Evil, Evil One, Evil Thing, Transgression, Trespass, Wickedness.
- EAGER, REV. GEORGE B., M.A., D.D., LL.D., Professor of Biblical Introduction and Pastoral Theology in the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary, Louisville, Kentucky.

Ablution, Abomination, Abstinence, Alms and Almsgiving, Anointing, Banking, Banquet, Barber, Basin, Basket, Beard, Bed, Bread, Burial, Buying, Cremation, Dress, Embalming, Marriage, Meals, and numerous other articles.

Easton, Rev. Burton, Scott, D.D., Ph.D., Professor of New Testament Exegesis, Western Theological Seminary, Chicago, Illinois. Assistant to the Managing Editor in the preparation of this Encyclopaedia.

American Revised Version, Apostolic Age, Criticism (Graf-Wellhausen Hypothesis), Grace, Hope, Hospitality, Kenosis, Judgment (Last), Parousia, Pauline Theology, Resurrection, Salvation, Saviour, Tongues (Gift of), Tongues (Confusion of), Tools, Trade, Versions (Georgian, Gothic, Slavonic), Wine, Wisdom, Zoroastrianism; numerous briefer articles.

EDWARDS, REV. DAVID MIALL, M.A., Professor of Doctrinal Theology and Philosophy of Religion at the Memorial College (Congregational), Brecon, South Wales.

Adoration, Affection, Affliction, Ananias, Annas, Drink (Strong), Image, Iniquity, Joy, Mediation (Mediator), Mystery, Ordination, Raca, Savor, Seal, and other articles.

EISELEN, REV. FREDERICK C., D.D., Ph.D., Professor of Semitic Languages and Old Testament Exegesis, Garrett Biblical Institute, Evanston, Illinois.

Habakkuk, Nahum (Book of), Zephaniah (Book of), and other articles.

ESTES, REV. DAVID FOSTER, M.A., D.D., Professor of New Testament Interpretation, Colgate University, Hamilton, New York.
Covenant (in NT), Priesthood (in NT), and other articles.

Evans, Rev. Arthur Walwyn, Lately Pastor of First Congregational Church, Springfield, Ohio. Daysman, Immanuel, Triumph, and other articles.

Evans, Morris O., D.D., Ph.D., Minister of Lawrence Street Congregational Church, Cincinnati, Ohio; Formerly Lecturer on English Bible and Literature at the Independent College, Bangor, North Wales. Managing Editor of this Encyclopaedia.

Abel, Abolish, Accord, Adam (Books of), All, Anem, Aristobulus, Asiarch, Bank, Beholding, Bloody, Doxology, Gulf, Totemism, and numerous other signed and unsigned articles.

Evans, Rev. William, D.D., Lecturer and Associate Dean of the Bible Institute of Los Angeles, California.

Covetousness, Debt, Extortion, Forerunner, Lying, Poverty, Sons of God (in NT), Wealth, and other articles.

Ewing, Rev. William, M.A., D.D., Minister of Grange United Free Church, Edinburgh, Scotland. Bashan, Bethsaida, Capernaum, Decapolis, Edom, Galilee, Gennesaret (Land of), Gilead, Hermon, Judah, Kenites, Midian, Peraea, Pisgah, Samaria, Shephelah, Tiberias, Trachonitis, and a large number of other articles (mainly topographical).

FAIRBANKS, ARTHUR, PH.D., LITT.D., Director of the Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, Massachusetts.

Greece (Religion in Ancient).

FARMER, JONES HUGHES, B.A., LL.D., Dean in Theology and Professor of New Testament and Patristic Greek, McMaster University, Toronto, Canada. Mark (John), Mark (Gospel of).

FARR, F. K., D.D., Professor of New Testament Exegesis and Introduction, Lane Seminary, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Adam in OT and Apocrypha, Cain, Elijah, and other articles.

FAULKNER, REV. JOHN ALFRED, M.A., D.D., Professor of Historical Theology, Drew Theological Seminary, Madison, New Jersey.

Justification.

FINDLAY, REV. ADAM FYFE, M.A., Minister of Bristo United Free Church, Edinburgh, Scotland. Apocryphal Acts.

FINDLAY, REV. GEORGE GILLANDERS, M.A., D.D., Professor of New Testament Exegesis and Classics at Headingley College, Leeds, England. Galatians (Epistle to). FLETCHER, LAZARUS, M.A., PH.D., LL.D., F.R.S., Director Natural History Departments of the British Museum, London, S.W., England. Stones (Precious).

FORRESTER, REV. ELDRED JOHN, B.A., D.D., Head of the Department of the Bible and Lecturer in American History, Mercer University, Macon, Georgia.

Church Government, Esau, Innocence, Jealousy, Reverence, and other articles.

Fortune, Prof. A.W., B.D., M.A., Department of New Testament in the College of the Bible, Lexington, Kentucky.

Alphaeus, Babylon in NT, Children of Israel, Deutero-canonical Books, Eve in NT, and other articles.

Fulton, A. S., M.A., Assistant in the Department of Oriental Printed Books and MSS, British Museum, London. Havilah, Kedar, Nebaioth, Ophir, and other

articles.

Geden, Rev. Alfred S., M.A., D.D., Professor of Old Testament Languages and Literature and of Comparative Religion at the Wesleyan College, Richmond, Surrey, England. Joshua, Judges, Ruth, Samuel, and the Books corresponding to those names.

Genung, Rev. John Franklin, D.D., L.H.D., Ph.D., Professor of Literary and Biblical Interpretation, Amherst College, Amherst, Massachusetts.

Adam in OT, Hezekiah and all succeeding

kings of Judah, Job, Job (Book of), Proverb, Proverbs (Book of), and other articles.

Gerberding, Rev. G. H., M.A., D.D., Professor of Practical Theology in the Theological Seminary of the Evangelical Lutheran Church, Maywood, Illinois.

Catechist (Catechumen), Rehearse, Search, Train, and several brief articles.

GOODSPEED, EDGAR J., PH.D., Associate Professor of Biblical and Patristic Greek, The University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. Ostraca, Papyrus.

Grant, Rev. Alexander C., M.A., Missionary of the United Free Church of Scotland, Rajputana, India. Eber, Elder (in NT), Eli, and a few brief articles.

Gray, Rev. James M., D.D., Minister in the Reformed Episcopal Church, Dean of Moody Bible Institute, Chicago, Illinois. Bless, Desired of All Nations, Evangelist, Experience, Peter (Simon), and other articles.

Gummey, Rev. Henry Riley, Jr., M.A., D.D., Rector of St. James' Church, Chaplain to the Bishop of Pennsylvania, Downington, Pennsylvania.

Lord's Supper (Eucharist).

HARRY, JOSEPH EDWARD, Ph.D., Professor of Greek, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Achaia, Almost, Antiochus I-VII, Areopagus, Athens, Corinth, Dionysus (Bacchus), Patmos, Searching the Scriptures, and other articles.

HAYES, DOREMUS ALMY, Ph.D., S.T.D., LL.D., Professor of New Testament Interpretation, The Graduate School of Theology, Garrett Biblical Institute, Evanston, Illinois. James (Epistle of), Philippians (Epistle to).

- Heidel, William Arthur, M.A., Ph.D., Professor of Greek Language and Literature, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut.
 Colony, Government, Greece (Graecia), Hellenism (Hellenist), Mediterranean Sca, Senate (Senator), and other articles.
- HIRSCH, REV. FRANK E., M.A., D.D., LL.D., Formerly President Charles City College, Charles City, Iowa; Pastor of Dayton's Bluff (Ger.) Methodist Episcopal Church, St. Paul, Minnesota.

Courts (Judicial), Crimes, Inheritance, Law (Judicial), Lawyer, Punishments, Scribes, Tribute, and numerous other articles.

- Hodge, Rev. Caspar Wistar, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Systematic Theology, Princeton Theological Seminary, Princeton, New Jersey. Faithfulness, Foreknowledge, Imputation, Unchangeableness.
- Hough, Rev. Lynn Harold, B.A., D.D., Professor of Historical Theology, Garrett Biblical Institute, Evanston, Illinois.

 Servant of Jehovah (the Lord).
- HOVEY, REV. GEORGE RICE, M.A., D.D., President of Virginia Union University, and Professor of Theology, Richmond, Virginia.

 Doorkeeper, Firepan, Flagon, Hadad, and other articles.
- Hunter, Rev. S. F., M.A., B.D., Minister of St. Stephen's Presbyterian Church, Ipswich, Queensland, and Lecturer in Old Testament Language and Exegesis in Emmanuel College, Brisbane, within the University of Queensland, Queensland, Australia.

Ahava, Array, Asunder, Bar-Jesus, Bethabara, Eleazar, Epaphras, Lydia, Philip (Evangelist), and a large number of the shorter articles.

- HUTCHISON, JOHN, M.A., LL.D., Rector Emeritus of the High School of Glasgow, Scotland. English Versions of the Bible, Apocryphal and Other Early Gospels, and numerous other articles.
- ISAACS, MRS. ELLA DAVIS, M.A., Cincinnati, Ohio. Family Relationships (part), Feasts and Fasts, Fringes, Gershon (Gershonites), Linen, Shamgar, and other articles.
- ISAACS, NATHAN, LL.B., M.A., PH.D., Professor of Law, University of Cincinnati and Cincinnati Law School, Cincinnati, Ohio. Assistant Editor of this Encyclopaedia in the Hebrew Language. Family Relationships (part), Gallery, Order, Passover, Primogeniture, Rahab, Sceptre, Urim and Thummim, and other articles.
- IVERACH, REV. JAMES, M.A., D.D., Principal and Professor of New Testament Language and Literature in the United Free Church College, Aberdeen, Scotland.

Gospels (The Synoptic), John (The Apostle), John (Gospel of).

- JACOBS, REV. HENRY E., D.D., LL.D., Author and Editor of Commentaries, etc; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
 - Absolution, Andronicus, Appeal, Barnabas, Brethren of the Lord, Chastening (Chastisement), Community of Goods, Confession, Heresy, Temperance, and numerous other articles.
- Joy, Alfred H., Ph.B., M.A., F.R.A.S., Professor of Astronomy and Director of the Observatory, Syrian Protestant College, Beirut, Syria. Cloud, Dew, Earthquake, Heat, Mirage, Rain, Snow, Weather, and similar articles.

- Kaiser, Lewis, Professor of Old Testament and Life of Christ in the German Department of Rochester Theological Seminary, Rochester, New York. Book of Life, Cruelty, and other articles.
- Kapp, Rev. Jacob W., M.A., D.D., Pastor of First English Lutheran Church, Cincinnati, Ohio. Aeon, Atheism, Benediction, Boy, and other articles.
- Kerr, Rev. Colin M., B.Sc., B.D., M.A., Ph.D., Minister of Church of Scotland at Kettins, Coupar Angus, Scotland; Formerly Professor of Political Philosophy in Scottish Churches College, Calcutta.

Biographical articles on Andrew, Bartholomew, Caiaphas, Gamaliel, Judas Iscariot, Nicodemus, Thomas, and others.

KINSELLA, ARTHUR JAMES, M.A., Instructor in Greek, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio. Assistant Editor of this Encyclopaedia in the Greek Language.

Demetrius, Samos, Samothrace, and other articles.

KNUDSON, REV. ALBERT C., D.D., Ph.D., Professor of Hebrew and Old Testament Exegesis in Boston University School of Theology, Boston, Massachusetts. Judges (Period of).

Kurtz, Rev. Daniel Webster, M.A., D.D., President of McPherson College, McPherson, Kansas.

Lord's Supper (according to the Church of the Brethren, otherwise called Dunkers), Trine (Triune) Immersion, Washing of Feet.

Kyle, Rev. Prof. Melvin Grove, D.D., Ll.D., Permanent Lecturer on Biblical Archaeology in Xenia Theological Seminary; Archaeological Editor of the Sunday School Times, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Archaeology and Criticism, Ir-ha-heres, Joseph, Moses, Nile, On (Heliopolis), Pharaoh, Plagues of Egypt, Tell el-Amarna Tablets, and other articles.

LAMBERT, REV. J. C., M.A., D.D., Minister of the United Free Church of Scotland, Braeheads, Fenwick, Scotland.

Fenwick, Scotland.

Agape, Apostle, Beatitudes, Church, Healing (Gifts of), Holiness, Praise, Prayer, Sacraments, Spiritual Gifts.

LAW, REV. ROBERT, M.A., D.D., Professor of New Testament Literature, Knox College, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. Elect Lady, Johannine Theology, John (Epis-

tles of).

Lees, Rev. John A., Pastor of St. James' Congregational Church, Hamilton, Scotland.
Magog, Michael, Michal, Miriam, Naaman, Nadab, Nethinim, and many other articles.

LEVERTOFF, PAUL, B.D., Professor of Old Testament and Talmudic Literature at Institutum Delitzschianum at Leipzig, Germany.

First-fruits, Judge, Oath, Proselyte, Sanhedrin, Synagogue, Tithe, Vow, Witness.

Lewis, Charles Smith, B.A., B.D., Professor of New Testament in the Western Theological Seminary, Chicago, Illinois.

Colossians (Epistle to), Ephesians (Epistle to), Philemon (Epistle to).

Lewis, Rev. Thomas, B.D., M.A., Principal of Memorial College (Congregational), Brecon, South Wales. Blindness (Judicial), Curse, Fasting, Nursing,

Ordinance, Prison, and other articles.

- LINDSAY, REV. JAMES, B.Sc., M.A., D.D., F.R.S.L., F.R.S.E., F.G.S., M.R.A.S., Theological and Philosophic Author; Irvine, Scotland.
 - Anthropomorphism, Biblical Theology, Creation, Creature, Eternal, Eternity, Predestination.
- LINDSAY, the late REV. THOMAS M., M.A., D.D., LL.D., Principal and Professor of Church His-tory in United Free Church College, Glasgow, Scotland.

Baptism (Non-Immersionist View), Ministry.

- LITTMAN, ENNO, PH.D., Professor of Semitic Philology in the University of Göttingen, Germany. Ethiopic Language.
- LONGACRE, LINDSAY B., B.D., Ph.D., Professor, Department of Old Testament, Iliff School of Theology, University Park, Colorado. Nehushtan.
- LOTZ, WILHELM, D.TH., PH.D., Professor of Theology in the University of Erlangen, Erlangen, Germany. Ark of the Covenant, and other articles.
- LOWNDES, REV. ARTHUR, D.D., S.T.D., LL.D., Secretary of Christian Unity Foundation, New York City, New York. Bishop (Anglican View).
- LUERING, HEINRICH LUDWIG EMIL, Ph.D., Professor of Dogmatic Theology and New Testament Greek in the Martin Theological Seminary of the Methodist Episcopal Church, Frankfurt am Main, Germany. Contributor of articles on the various parts of

the body, and other subjects.

- MACALISTER, ALEXANDER, M.D., M.A., D.Sc., LL.D., F.R.S., F.S.A., Professor of Anatomy in Cambridge University, Cambridge, England. Balm, Blindness, Diseases, Healing, Leprosy, Longevity, Medicine, and other articles of a similar character.
- MACK, REV. EDWARD, M.A., D.D., McCormick Professor of Old Testament Interpretation, Union Theological Seminary, Richmond, Virginia. Assistant to the Managing Editor in the preparation of this Encyclopaedia.

Aaron, Chronology of OT, Covenant (Book of), God (Names of), Presbyter, Semites (Semitic

Religion), and other articles.

- Maclaren, John J., D.C.L., LL.D., Justice of Court of Appeal, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. Jesus Christ (Arrest and Trial of).
- Marais, Johannes I., B.A., D.D., Senior Professor of Theological Seminary of the Dutch Reformed Church at Stellenbosch, Capetown, South Africa. Anthropology, Heart, Mind, Psychology, Soul, Spirit.
- MARGOLIS, MAX L., PH.D., Professor of Biblical Philology, Dropsie College, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Caleb, Cherubim, College, Dagon, Abner, Dark Sayings, Deborah, and other articles.

MASTERMAN, ERNEST W. G., M.D., F.R.C.S., F.R.G.S., Medical Superintendent of the English Mission Hospital, Jerusalem, and Honorable Secretary for Jerusalem and Palestine, for the Palestine Exploration Fund; Jerusalem, Syria. Botany, Jerusalem, and a large number of articles on botanical, topographical, and other

subjects.

Maunder, E. Walter, F.R.A.S., for forty years Superintendent of the Solar Department of the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, London, England. Astrology, Astronomy, and other articles.

McAllister, Rev. J. Gray, B.A., D.D., Professor of Biblical Introduction, English Bible and Biblical Theology, Presbyterian Theological Seminary of Kentucky, Louisville, Kentucky. Hodesh, Hodevah, Hodiah, and other articles.

M'CAIG, REV. ARCHIBALD, B.A., LL.D., Principal and Theological Tutor, Pastors' College, London, S.E., England.

Covenant (The New), King (Christ as), Law in the New Testament, and other articles.

McConnell, Francis J., D.D., Ph.D., LL.D., Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, Denver, Colorado. Redeemer (Redemption), Righteousness, Sin.

McGlothlin, Rev. William Joseph, M.A., D.D., Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of Church History in Southern Baptist Theological Seminary, Louisville, Kentucky.

Bondage, Sacrifice (Human), Servant.

- McPheeters, Rev. William Marcellus, D.D., LL.D., Professor of Old Testament Literature and Exegesis, Columbia Theological Seminary (Presbyterian), Columbia, South Carolina. Scorn, Simple, Sluggard, Theocracy, Translation.
- MEYER, REV. HENRY H., M.A., D.D., Editor Sunday School Publications for the Methodist Episcopal Church; Secretary Commission on Christian Education of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America; Member Gesell-schaft für wissenschaftliche Paedagogik (Germany); Cincinnati, Ohio, and New York City, New York. Education.
- MILLAR, REV. JAMES, B.D., Minister of Church of Scotland, at New Cumnock, Ayrshire, Scotland. Amen, Asaph, Hymn, Instruments of Music, Music, Song, and related articles.
- MILLER, REV. RUSSELL BENJAMIN, M.A., B.D., Ph.D., Professor of Biblical Literature, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio. Communion, John the Baptist, Lord's Prayer, Sermon on the Mount, and other articles.
- MÖLLER, PASTOR WILHELM, Pastor Licentiat der Theologie, Wittenberg, Bz. Halle, Germany. Atonement (Day of), Azazel, Exodus (Book of), Ezekiel, Genesis, Leviticus.
- MOOREHEAD, the late REV. WILLIAM G., D.D., LL.D., Professor in the Xenia Theological Seminary, President of the Faculty, Chair of Biblical Theology, Xenia, Ohio.

 Jude, Millennium (Premillennial View), 1 Peter,

2 Peter, Priest, Priesthood, Tongues of Fire, Type.

Morro, William Charles, B.D., M.A., Ph.D., Head of Ministerial Department and Reeves Memorial Chair of Biblical Literature, Butler College, Indianapolis, Indiana. Body (Spiritual), Forgiveness, Lawgiver, Way.

Mosiman, Samuel K., M.A., B.D., Ph.D., President Blufton College, Instructor in Old Testament Languages and Interpretation, Bluffton,

Ahab, Ahaziah, Elah, Jehoram (Joram), Jehoshaphat, Jeroboam I, Omri, Rehoboam,

Zimri.

Moule, Rt. Rev. Handley Carr Glyn, D.D., Bishop of Durham, England.

Elect, Election, Faith, Perseverance, Romans (Epistle to), Sinlessness, Unbelief, Unbeliever, Witness of the Spirit, World (General).

Mullins, E. Y., D.D., Ll.D., President Southern Baptist Theological Seminary, Louisville, Kentucky. Assistant Editor of this Encyclopaedia. Advocate, Baptism of the Holy Spirit, Comforter, Holy Spirit, Paraclete.

NICOL, Rt. REV. THOMAS, D.D., Professor of Divinity and Biblical Criticism in the University of Aberdeen; Moderator of the Grand Assembly of the Church of Scotland; Aberdeen, Scotland. Armor (Arms), Army, Ben-hadad, Captivity, Chemosh, Dispersion (The), Latin Version (The Old), Ships and Boats, Syriac Versions, War (Warfare), and other articles.

Nuelsen, John L., D.D., Ll.D., Bishop of Methodist Episcopal Church, Kilchberg bei Zürich, Switzerland. Assistant Editor of this Encyclopaedia.

Conversion, Regeneration.

Oko, Adolph S., Librarian, Hebrew Union College, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Commentaries (Hebrew).

ORELLI, the late CONRAD VON, Ph.D., Doctor of Theology, Professor in Ordinary of Old Testament and History of Religion at the University of Basel, Basel, Switzerland.

Israel (History of the People), Israel (Religion of), Jeremiah, Lamentations (Book of), Micah, Prophecy (Prophets).

Orr, the late Rev. James, M.A., D.D., Professor of Apologetics and Theology at Theological College of United Free Church, Glasgow, Scotland. Editor-in-Chief of this Encyclopaedia.

Apostles' Creed, Apostolic Fathers, Baptismal Apostles' Creed, Apostolic Fathers, Baptismal Regeneration, Bible (The), Caesar, Candlestick (Golden), Christianity (Historical and Doctrinal), Christs (False), Commentaries, Concordance, Criticism of the Bible, Endor (Witch of), Eschatology of the OT, Father (God The), God (Image of), Hands (Imposition of), Hell, Immortality, Infinite (Infinitude), Jesus Christ, Knowledge, Man of Sin, Moses (Song of), Prison (Spirits in), Punishment (Everlasting), Revelation of John, Serment (Everlasting), Revelation of John, Serpent Worship, Seventy Weeks, Synagogue (The Great), Tabernacle (A. Structure and History), Temple (A. Structure and History), Unquenchable Fire, World (Cosmological), and hundreds of short articles.

PATCH, JAMES A., B.S., Professor of Chemistry in the Syrian Protestant College, Beirut, Syria. Agriculture, Brick, Brimstone, Colors, Crafts, Dyeing, Embroidery, Fishing, Fuller, Gardener, Metallurgy, Oil, Pottery, Shepherd, Weaving, and other articles.

Petrie, William Matthew Flinders, D.C.L., Ph.D., Litt.D., LL.D., F.R.S., F.B.A., Hon. F.S.A. (Scot.), Hon. A.R.I.B.A., M.R.I.A., M. Amer. Phil. Soc., Edwards Professor of Egyptology, University College, London, England. Egypt, Memphis.

PINCHES, THEOPHILUS GOLDRIDGE, LL.D., M.R.A.S., Lecturer in Assyrian at University College, London, and Liverpool Institute of Archaeology; late of the Department of Egyptian and Assyrian Antiquities, British Museum, London, England. Africa, Amraphel, Arioch, Babel (Babylon), Cyrus, Elam (Elamites), Hammurabi, Nineveh, Table of Nations, and several other articles.

Pollard, Rev. Edward Bagby, M.A., D.D., Ph.D., Professor of Homiletics, Crozer Theological Seminary, Chester, Pennsylvania. Familiar, Maid, Rabbi, Self-surrender, Tribulation, Usury, and other articles.

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Easter, Money, Parthians, Phoenicia, Scythians, Sidon, Syrians, Tammuz, Time, Tyre, Weights and Measures, and other articles.

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the law $\dots 2704^{ m b}$	cf Cuckoo
Scrip2705 ^b	Sea, The Molten, or
cf Bag377a (Eager)	Brazen
Scripture	cf Temple2930 ^a (Caldecott; Orr)
cf Bible459 ^b (Orr)	Sea-monster2707a (Day)
Scriptures, Search the	of Dragon
cf Search the Scrip-	cf Jackal1548a (Day)
tures	cf Water-spout
Scroll	Sea of the Philistines
cf Roll	
Sculpture and Inscriptions	cf Mediterranean Sea. 2026 ^b (Heidel) Sea of the Plain (Arabah)
At Carchemish 577 ^b (Pinches)	
Scum	cf Dead Sea801 ^a (Wright) Sea, Red2538 ^b (Wright)
cf Rust	Sea, Salt
Scurvy	of Dead Sea801° (Wright)
Scythians	Sea of Sodom (Sodomit-
cf Jeremiah	ish)
cf Parthians	cf Dead Sea801 ^a (Wright)
cf Zephaniah, Book of 3145° (Eiselen)	Sea of Tiberias
Scythopolis	cf Galilee, Sea of 1165 ^a (Ewing)
cf Beth-shean 452 ^b (Ewing)	Sea, Western
Sea	cf Mediterranean Sea 2026 ^b (Heidel)
cf Sea of Jazer2707 ^b	Seah
Sea, Adriatic	cf Weights and Meas-
cf Adria	ures3079a (Porter)
Sea of Arabah	Seal
cf Dead Sea801 ^a (Wright)	Among the Hebrews2708b
Sea, Brazen	Baptism as
cf Sea, The Molten 2708 ^a (Caldecott)	Circumcision as 2709 ^b
Sea of Chinnereth	Metaphorical use 2709 ^a
cf Galilee, Sea of 1165° (Ewing)	cf Mystery

Seal—continued	
Prevalence in antiquity	
Sedition	
cf Print. .2455 (Richardson) cf Ring. .2594* (Crannell) cf Sealed Fountain. .2709* cf Text of the Old Seduction. .7456 (Hirsch) Seduction. .7486 (Hirsch) Seduction. .7480 (Hirsch) cf Purishments. .2504 (Hirsch) Seduction. .7480 (Hirsch) Seduction. .7120 (Hirsch) <	
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cf Sealed Fountain. 2709b cf Text of the Old Testament. 9957b (Weir) Uses of sealing 2709b cf Jerusalem . 1611a (Masterman) cf Seal. 2709b (Edwards) Sealskin	,
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18—620 (VI); 2574	GEN 33	4.27—911 (5,9)
Gen 23	10—2918ь	11—1054; 2520³ 18—1738
1—2304	GEN 34	
8533 (2)	1—1551 (b)	GEN 48
16-2081	3—1868 ^b	5—2556 ^b
Gen 24	25—2793 (1)	8—598 (2)
26-3110 (2)	Gen 35	13—1334
31—1819	2—1532 ^b ; 2523 (2)	GEN 49
4020	5—1551 (b)	11552
53—1331 ^b	22—2416 ^b	3-1376 (2); 2453 (3); 2572 (1)
60—487 (3)	28—2302b	4—310
67—2691 ^b	GEN 36	6—1236 ^b
Gen 25	31—2303	10—620 (VI); 1858 ^b ; 2768 ^b
8-974 (4)	GEN 37	12—2052
19—2554 (1)	2—1738 ^b	18—1553 (3)
23—1114	3—878 (3)	Gen 50
$26-2302^{b}$	9—310 (6)	2—530; 974 (4)
$30-144^{b}$	27—2301	3—911 (5)
31-2453 (3)	28—2416 ^b	5—976 (1)

Gen 50—continued	Ex 9	Ex 18—continued
17—1133 (2)	1-2405 (5)	21—1287 ^b ; 1675 (5)
20—2484 (6)	3-2094b	26—208
26—911 (6)	16—2406 ^b	
	27—2559	Ex 19
Ex 1	Ex 10	4—885 ^b ; 1858; 2643 (1)
1—1055	7—2406 (1); 2819 ^b	51922 (3); 2682 (1)
8-3154	8—2643	6—1800 (1); 2439 8—2019 (3)
11-520; 1064; 2086; 2539b	23—1891	15—1003 (7)
15—2166 ^b	24-2405 (9)	16—2997 (2)
16—2862 ^b	Ex 11	` '
Ex 2	11128b	Ex 20
3—242; 736 (13); 2084 (2);	2—1257	1—26; 1020 (a); 1332 (1); 2090 ^b
2817 ^b	3—1067 (2)	2—2065
5—1053 (3); 2360 ^b		3—202
10—2084 (2)2	Ex 12	4—1535 (4) 5—1376; 1858
15-2085	6—1103 (2)	6—1933 (2); 2946 (4)
Ex 3	7—1929 (2)	8—2632b
	21—2022b; 2257b	10—2469 (4)
2—5322	34—877ь	12—1095 (5); 2944 (I)
5—404 (2); 1125 (b) 8—76	36-2086	13-2667 (5)
10—2085 (5)	37—1056; 1065 (5); 2539 ^b	17—733 ^b
13—1088 (1); 1266 (5); 3034	41—1055	20—110
14—1254 ^b ; 1535	43—1853 (b)	22—2201
18—2643	48—656 ^b	24—109; 839 (7); 1539; 2643 (2);
19—1128 ^b ; 1129 ^b	Ex 13	2644 (7); 2897 ^b
Ex 4	2—1114; 2453 (4); 2682 (1)	25110 (1)
	6—2257 (7)	Ex 21
4—2449 ^b 6—1867	7—2167	2—1331 (1); 2635 (2)
10—1067 (2)	9—127 ^b ; 2393 (3)	6-341; 1270 (2); 2301 (5)
11—2093	14—2532 (b)	7—863
19—2085 ^b	19—976 (1); 2591 ^b	82555b
22-609 (5); 1515 (b); 2403b;	Ex 14	12—2305 (3)
2826 (2)	2—913 ^b ; 2050; 2086 ^b ; 2396 (1)	15—1331 (1) 20—764
24-2912	19—395	22—1418
25-490; 657	21—2539 (4); 25402	25—2455b
Ex 5	Ex 15	
3—2643	42086 ^b	Ex 22
6—1883 (9)	8-2540; 2841 (1)	7.10—1332 (1)
21—2700b; 2818	11—1535 ^b ; 2682 (1)	18—1964
Ex 6	18—1800 (1)	20—1858 26—2409; 2917 ^b
	27—2087 (5)	27—421 ^b ; 877 (b)
3—1535; 2300 (2) 7—2039 ^b	Ex 16	
12—1067 (2)	1—2087 (5)	Ex 23
30—657 (4)	12-2015 (3)	10-74 (1)
* *	13—2301 (4)	11—2090b; 2635
Ex 7	14—1147 ^b	14—542; 1255 (ii) 16—3024 (2)
4—1128 ^b	22—2632b	192052 ^b
11—942 (1)	27—2634	29—2147 ^b
16—2643	Ex 17	32—764; 3008 ^b
19—524 (3); 2311 (6)	2—2943	,
Ex 8	7—2301 ^b ; 2303 (4)	Ex 24
9—1239 (3)	8—1066 (1)	3—1858; 2653 (2); 2655 (1)
15—1338	11—912	4—108; 463 (1 <i>b</i>); 2643 (1)
18—942 (1)	14—2169	6—2846 ^b
19—1111 ^b	Ex 18	7—556; 731 (3) 8—2022; 2025; 2668 ^b
22—2477 (1)	11—1535 12—108; 1674 (3); 2643 (11)	17—2802b
24—1120	114-100, 1074 (8), 4048 (11)	2. =00=

Ex 25			
8-839; 1079 9-234 (1); 2264b 9-2129 9-214 (2); 2303 33-100 (b) 17-244 13-1867 (3) 45-1896 10-2515b 13-1867 (3) 45-1896 47-2449 12-3024 (2) 20-2181b; 2182 20-2052 20-3005b 14-2440 (1); 2444 (3) 3-2841 (1) 4-962 Ex 28 1-2-430 (1); 2444 (3) 3-2841 (1) 4-962 Ex 38 11-14 18-1003 12-2439; 2445 (2) 20-3041 (3) 2-962 Ex 39 12-1101 Ex 10 1-244 (3) 3-2949 40-495 (b) 12-112 1-2643 (3) 2-515b 14-276 18-2818 20-2411 4-516 (3) 14-2245 15-3886 11-1857 Ex 30 11-1857 Ex 30 11-1857 Lev 1 12-2074 (2) 15-388 10-1857 11-322 (1); 2080b 11-322 (1); 2080b 12-2022; 2531 16-2918 (2) 12-2022; 2531 16-2918 (2) 17-336 (14) 18-1111b Ex 31 18-1111b Ex 32 1-2643 (4) 12-2666 (5) 12-27(1) 35-5746 (14) 12-2858 12-212b 12-2858 12-212b 12-2858 13-2866 (1) 22-2990 12-2022; 2531 Ex 31 Lev 5 11-322 (1); 2080b 12-212 (1); 2080b 13-366 (5) 14-366 (5) 15-366 (6) 15-364 (6) 15-366 (1) 22-2922 (3) 11-2643 (4) 22-2923 (3) 23-886 (1) 22-2929 (3) 22-2929 (2) 22-29	Ex 25	Ex 34	Lev 11—continued
9—2129 Lev 13 22—1852 (2); 2303 12—3008b 17—244 13—1807 (3) 8—284 (2) 29—3005b 47—2449 47—	5—2814	5—1237	35-2530
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33-100 (b) Ex 27 -234 (2) 20-2181b; 2182 29-3005b Ex 28 Ex 38 1-2440 (1); 2444 (3) 3-2841 (1) 4-062 12-2439; 2445 (2) 20-3041 (3) 20-2052 Ex 38 1-2439; 2445 (2) 20-3041 (3) 20-2000 20-301 (3) 20-2000 20-301 (3) 20-2000 20-301 (3) 20-2000 20-301 (4) 20-3041 (3) 20-2000 20-301 (4) 20-3041 (3) 20-2000 20-301 (4) 20-3041 (3) 20-2000 20-311 (1) 20-3041 (3) 20-2000 20-311 (1) 20-3041 (3) 20-2000 20-311 (1) 20-3041 (3) 20-3000 20-31 (4) 20-3041 (3) 20-3000 20-31 (4) 20-3041 (3) 20-3000 20-31 (4) 20-3041 (3) 20-3000 20-31 (4) 20-3041 (3) 20-3000 20-31 (4) 20-3041 (3) 20-3000 20-31 (1) 20-3041 (3) 20-3000 20-31 (1) 20-3041 (3) 20-3000 20-31 (1) 20-3020 (2) 20-31 (2) 20-302 (2) 21-828 29-327 20-327 20-327 20-327 20-327 20-327 20-327 20-327 20-327 20-327 20-328 20-327 20-3	9—234 (1); 2264 ^b	9—2129	Lev 13
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Ex 28		22-3024 (2)	47-2449
20-2181°; 2182		26-2052	Lev 14
Ex 28 Ex 36 Ex 36 33-2449 34-1868 (2) 34-2440 (1); 2444 (1) 35-30776 Ex 38 11-14 18-1003 29-2020 2-962 2-962 2-671 (9); 1079 4-3266	20—2181°; 2182	29—3005 ^b	14_886 (1)
1—2440 (1); 2444 (3) 3—2841 (1) 4—962 4—962 12—2439; 2445 (2) 20—3041 (3) 29—2020 30—2019 (4) 36—2900b 40—495 (b) Ex 29 1—2643 (3) 2—515² 3—2844 (5) 3—2845 (5) 3—2845 (7) 3—2845 (8) 1—2643 (3) 2—515² 3—2844 (5) 3—2845 (7) 3—3758 (7	Ex 28	Ex 35	, ,
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Sample S		* /	Lev 17
20-2441 44-2682 (1) 44-2682 (1) 45-1079 Ex 30 11-1857 Lev 3 6-245 9-112 11-322 (1); 2080b 12-2022; 2531 16-2918 (2) 35-736 (14) Ex 31 Lev 6 Ex 32 1-2666 (5) 18-1111b Ex 32 1-2643 (4) 2-127 (1) 5-544 (5) 7-722b 9-2129; 2854 9-2129; 2854 12-2019b 14-2727 (11) 26-2449b 29-1333 1-2665b 30-2019b Ex 33 Lev 10 Lev 10 Lev 9 Lev 8 Lev 8 Lev 8 1-10; 2682b 1-2064 (4) 3-2129b Lev 10 Lev 10 Lev 20 Lev 21 Lev 21 Lev 21 Lev 20 Lev 21 Lev 21 Lev 21 Lev 21 Lev 21 Lev 21 Lev 22 Lev 22 Lev 22 Lev 21 Lev 22 Lev 22	• •	,	3-758
44—2682 (1) 14—2247b Lev 3 16—1857 Lev 18 Ex 30 11—1857 2111b 21=2074 (2) 6—245 Lev 4 Lev 19 2-1404² 9—112 1—2645 (c) 3—2439 (2) 15—488 (b) 12—2022; 2531 Lev 5 17—1351 (2) 16—2918 (2) 1—2666 (5) 18—1022 (b); 1029; 2133² 35—736 (14) 17—1309 19—2712b Ex 31 Lev 6 23—657 (4) 18—1111b 1—2666 (5) 26—2466 (1) Ex 32 Lev 7 28—657; 1127 (b); 2455b 1—2643 (4) 12—1857 31—944 2—127 (1) 38—1870 (2) 28—657; 1127 (b); 2455b 31—944 Lev 20 2—2074; 2390 4—229; 2854 9—2900b 0—2466 (1) 12—2019b 10—343 (2) 2—2074; 2390 29—1333 Lev 8 2—2074; 2390 30—2019b 22—2440 (4) 22—2592 (3) 30—2019b 22—2440 (4) 5—380b²; 1320 (4) 30—2019b 1—10; 2682b 4—529 3—2129b 4—529 10—2556 (4)			7—828
Ex 30 Ex 30 Lev 3 Lev 4 Lev 4 Lev 19 11—322 (1); 2080b 12—2022; 2531 16—2918 (2) 35—736 (14) Ex 31 Lev 5 12—2666 (5) 17—1309 Ex 32 Lev 7 12—666 (5) 12—2643 (4) 2—127 (1) 35—444 (5) 7—722b 9—2129; 2854 12—209b 12—2019b 10—343 (2) 22—2592 (3) 25—366 (4) 25—366 (4) 25—366 (4) 25—366 (4) 25—366 (4) 25—366 (4) 25—366 (4) 25—366 (4) 25—366 (4) 25—366 (4) 25—366 (4) 26—366 (5) 26—366 (5) 26—366 (1) 26—366 (5) 26—366 (1) 26—366 (5) 26—366 (1) 26—366		1	10—1857
Ex 30 6-245 9-112 11-322 (1); 2080b 12-2022; 2531 16-2918 (2) 35-736 (14) Ex 31 18-1111b Ex 32 Ex 32 1-2666 (5) 1-2666 (5) Ex 32 1-2643 (4) 2-127 (1) 5-544 (5) 7-722b 9-2129; 2854 12-2019b 12-	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *		Lev 18
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9—2900° 12—2019b 10—343 (2) 14—2727 (11) 26—2449b 29—1333 30—2019b 32—2310b Ex 33 1—2665b 3—2129b 10—343 (2) 23—886 (1) 26—516 Lev 9 22—2592 (3) 27—690 (2) Lev 21 5—380b²; 1320 (4) 18—2156 Lev 22 10—2556 (4) Lev 22		1 1	
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3—2129b		,	10-2556 (4)
4—2202			
- 44	4—2202	'	
7—2303; 2449 (III) Lev 11 5—1103			
11—2462 4—2864 8—2257			
18—1237 5—1339 10.23—1103			
20—1316 ^b ; 2723 (3) 13—885 ^b 14—2247 ^b	20—1316°; 2723 (3)	15-880	14-2247

Lev 23—continued	Nu 5	Nu 18—continued
.52257 (7)	1·1—1572; 2169b; 2591b	6—2020
34—1854	14—2842	19—2556 ^b
40-2236 (3)		21—757
` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` `	Nu 6	30—76 (b)
Lev 24	1—1320 (3); 2124 ^b	, ,
11—3017 ^b	3—881	Nu 19
14—2853 (6)	18—2645	3—2169 ^b
16—1858	22—2440 (4)	8-390b
19—2504 ^b	23—1913 (2)	11—2169ь
LEV 25	Nu 8	14—1533
1—1870	5390 ^b	Nu 20
2-2635b	7—2169 ^b	1-2166; 2303 (4)
6-74 (1)	19—2020	5—2169
8-542	Nu 9	11—2843
9-305 (4)		12-2682b
12—74 (2)	12166 (1)	22—1421 (3)
15—1756 (2)	Nu 10	28—2300 (b)
18—1757	3—2168	
23—1468 ^b	10—1103 (1)	Nu 21
25—2427 (4)	14-2168 (3)	8—1455 (6)
26—2541	35—245; 2190 (5)	9—2789ь
32—757 ^b	Nu 11	14—2169
34—75 (7)		17—2830ь
39-2301 (5)	1-3034 (1)	27—120; 2470
	5—1514 (3); 2311 (6)	29—1255
47—1272	10—3113 (1)	Nu 22
48—2555 (3)	25—2842	5—293 (b)
51—2022	Nu 12	34—2559 (2)
Lev 26	1-769; 2556; 3152 ^b	
1—1454 (b)	3-2090	Nu 23
4-505 (3); 2526 (3)	6-2462; 2577 (1); 2578 (3);	5—378 (2)
5-3051	2581 ^b	10—975; 1623
11—2837ь	8—1237	13—2168 (2)
16-78; 487	Nu 13	19—2337 ^b ; 3034 (3)
22—2147 ^b	22—2169ь	22—3085
23—2545 ^b	23—1123	23—2466 (2)
31-2818		Nu 24
34-2635 (4)	28662 (2) 29120	2-310 (8); 378 (2); 2460 (2)
38—2164 (ii)		5—103
41—1079	33—84; 143 (3)	7—311 (9); 2169
42—75 (6)	Nu 14	8-3085
46—2023; 1870	18—1021 (a)	17—308; 629 (3); 2702; 2848 (
LEV 27	20-322	21—2138 ^b
	29-323	Nu 25
14—2682 (1)	42—243 (b)	
16—75 (4)	45—2302b	1-2778 (1)
17—1756 (2)	Nu 15	Nυ 27
$31-2530^{b}$	1	8-526; 2554 (1)
34—1870	301292 (3); 2651; 2666 (5)	14—2682 ^b
37.4	32—2169	16—2495 (4); 2497 (4)
Nu 1	37—2917 ⁶	17—2763 ^b
18—2295	Nu 16	
20—610ь	3-2019 (4)	Nu 28
Nu 3	10-839	19—2257 (7)
11—1113 ^b	22-2497 (4)	Nu 29
12—2682 (1)		7-322 (3)
40-25312	Nu 17	
43—2167 ^b	2-244 (4)	Nu 31
51—2022; 2541	10—3116	16—1770
•	Nu 18	49—2168 (4)
Nu 4	2—1868 (b)	Nu 32
8-2814	3-2307b; 2448 (1)	10—322 (b)
19-2019 (4)		

Nu 33	D _T 11—continued	DT 20
2—2164 (2)	14—505 (3)	1-256 (6)
7—2050	16—202	10-764
38—2; 2300 (3); 2302 ^b	20—2900 ^b	16—35; 1536; 2306 (8)
55—2974	DT 12	Dт 21
Nυ 35	3—2212	1—2651
$5-2634^{b}$	5—1265 6—2897 ^b	9—2645 (IV)
19—764; 2555 (3)	8—2167 (3)	12—418 (6) 15—478 (b)
31—2697	10—838; 839 ^b	15—478 (0)
32—2546 (3)	23—2837 ^b	22—1662 (1)
$33-322 \ (b)$	30-764	23—2567 (4)
D _T 1	Dт 13	D _T 22
	1—875	6—2138 ^b
28—234 (b); 550 (2); 662 (2)	17—3034 (1)	9—2712 ^b
Dт 4	Dт 14	12—2917ь
7—2574	1—380 ^b	19—864 (4)
19—2081 ^b ; 2514	$2-2294^{b}$	22-2508 (1)
30—2558 ^b	12—885 ^b	231998
32—2065; 2311 (5)	21—2052	Dт 23
DT 5	22—757	15—1856
1—1020 (a); 2168 (2)	28—2427 (4)	18—271 (b); 2682 (1)
15—2944 (I)	DT 15	19—1257; 2133
16—747	1—2635 (2)	Dт 24
18—1095 ^b	4—2420	1—864 (b); 2592 (3)
24—1237 (4)	11—101 (b)	12-2409
D T 6	12—2427 (4); 2666 (4)	13—421 ^b
4-741; 1088; 1933	15—2541	14—1022
5—1029	17—341	16-36; 838; 2665 (2)
6—2303	Dr 16	20-2181b; 2185 (2) ²
7—2104 (2)	1-542	DT 25
8—127 ^b	8—2257 (7)	2—1856
9—2900 ^b 14—202	18—726 19—488 (b)	4—1022; 1367 ^b ; 2102
16—2301 ^b	21—108 (b); 2643 (2)	5—526
25—2591 ^b	22—2234; 1454 ^b	9—1125 (b); 2779 ^b
D _T 7	D _T 17	Dт 26
	2—1858	12-2427 (4)
2—1536; 3008 ^b 3—1129 ^b	3—2514b	` '
6—613 (4); 1922 (3)	7—2853 (6)	Dт 27
24—2112	8—208	5—839b; 2896 (4)
25—2942 ^b	14—1800 (3); 2306	11—890
D _T 8	16—1423 (3)	Dт 28
3—2943 ^b	D _T 18	1—973 (1); 2665
4—1125 (b)	6-2449b; 2450	13—2903ь
9—2044 ^b	8—2264	22—486 ^b
Dт 9	9—296; 942; 944	27—301 (d)
2-84 (b)	10—1963 (b); 2466 (1); 3098	28—1961 (1)
6—2854	11—2761 ^b	35—1104
10—1111 ^b	15—617 (III); 2022; 2040 ^b ; 2462 (3); 2517 ^b ; 2578 (3);	37—2470 (3) 49—885 ^b
Dr 10	2921 (8)	58—3017 ^b
6—2300 (b)	18—2093; 2578	59—1376
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16—657 ^b	Dт 19	
Dr 11		2—2168 (2)
	1-2546 (3)	5—837 23—522 ⁶²
8973 (1) 101126; 1493	6—2555 (3) 14—2212	27—3113 (1)
11—2525 ^b	15—1670 (1)	29—2104 (2); 2312
11 2020	TO TOTO (1)	

Dr 30	Josн 9	Jgs 8
6-657 (3)	4510 ^b	2—1234b
.1—2666 (4)	23—1226	14—463 (c)
	Jose 10	22-1517b
D _T 31	12-448 (3)	23—2965 ^b
9—463; 555 ^b ; 836 (6)	24—1126; 2129	24—1777; 2918 ^b
.02635 (3)	33—2232 (d)	25877b
19—2093		27—675; 14562
22—840	Josн 11	
24—1854 (4)	$1-1750 \ (b)$	Jgs 9
26—1886 (14)	21—2229 (2)	7—29 (III); 1085; 1754
Dт 32	Josh 13	8—2184 ^b ; 2243 (1)
2—505	3—2768	9—1534 (6)
4—1266 (b)	$5-3000^{b}$	13—3088 (2)
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7—2310 (3)	44—2227	53—2052
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3—2184 ^b	10—1223b; 2232 (d)	1—884 ^b ; 1775
4—1796 ^b		Jgs 11
5—1623; 3035 (5)	Josн 17	
22—978; 2761 ^b	$14-506 \ (b)$	24—1255 (a)
342709	Josн 18	30—1256
D _T 33	7—2450	34—1777
2—2998	10—1884 (11)	39—1587
3—1125 ^b	Josh 20	Jgs 14
12—2780 ^b	3—2555	6-2842
16—532²	Jos н 22	18240 ^b ; 1367 ^b
19—735		Jgs 15
21—1859	9 –108 ^b	3—212
27—975; 1011 (2); 1460 (3);	29—838	8—1394 ^b
3037	Josh 24	15—600; 2168 (4)
DT 34	14—1514 ^b	
	26—2089 (1); 2920 (2)	Jgs 16
7—911 (7) 10—2462; 2577 (2); 2578 (3)	T 4	4-2676
10-2402, 2377 (2), 2373 (3)	Jgs 1	21—2456 (6)
Josh 2	1—3040ь	31—1518
1—2525	Jgs 2	Jgs 17
1—2323 16—2212 ^b	2—3008 ^b	6—1776
	7—1427	7—2449 ^b
Josh 3	Jgs 4	13—2450
15—1745 (2); 2212 (2)	8—3100b	Jgs 18
Josн 4	18—1557 ^b ; 2556 ^b	19—2093
	Jgs 5	27—2044 ^b
3—1745 (b)	21055	Jgs 19
Josн 5	14—3116	16—1432 (4)
$2-656^{b}$	15—2710	19—3088 (2)
$3-657^{b}$	17687 (2)	` '
11—2247 ^b	19—2229 (2)	Jgs 20
15—404 (3); 1125 ^b	23—2037ь	16—1169 (2)
Josh 6	24—1558; 2556 ^b	26—1099 ^b
	30-735 (5); 884	
	30-130 (0), 001	
12786 ^b	Jgs 6	Ruth 1
1—2786 ^b 16—2525	Jgs 6	Ruтн 1 1—2214 (3)
1—2786 ^b 16—2525 26—722 (1); 1389; 2713		1—2214 (3)
1—2786 ^b 16—2525	Jgs 6 4—1055 11—1227	1—2214 (3) Ruth 2
1—2786 ^b 16—2525 26—722 (1); 1389; 2713	Jgs 6 4—1055 11—1227 34—2842	1—2214 (3)
1—2786 ^b 16—2525 26—722 (1); 1389; 2713 _{Јозн} 7 5—3075	Jgs 6 4—1055 11—1227 34—2842 36—332	1—2214 (3) Ruth 2
1—2786 ^b 16—2525 26—722 (1); 1389; 2713 Josh 7 5—3075 20—2559 (2)	Jgs 6 4—1055 11—1227 34—2842 36—332 Jgs 7	1—2214 (3)
1—2786 ^b 16—2525 26—722 (1); 1389; 2713 _{Јоѕн} 7	Jgs 6 4—1055 11—1227 34—2842 36—332 Jgs 7 1—2082	1—2214 (3)
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)	25—477	19—2019 (3)
5—2542 ^b			19—2019 (3)
7—1236		JER 5	Jer 15
8—2395 ^b		5—3127	1-2019 (4)
21-2547(1))	16—2515 ^b	
	Isa 61	17—1123	JER 16
1_618 - 20	0202; 2433 (5); 2456	24—505 (3)	11—1589 (b)
	18; 3014 (5)	26—1143 ^b	16—1115
		Jer 6	19—1258 (3)
3—1321 (7))		
$8-2648^{b}$		1-2924 (1)	JER 17
	Isa 62	10-657b	1—1885b; 2297b2; 2900b; 3114b
4-2508 (4))	14—1349	3119^{2}
11—1932 (2)		20—2559ь	6—2247 ^b
		28514	10—2710ь
	Isa 63	29—2545ь	11-2254
1—1089b; 2	2592; 3087 (2)	Jer 7	18—2632b
9-1932 (2)); 3014 (5)		23—2854
$10-2842^{b}$		12—2769; 2891 (4); 2894	26—2649
	Isa 64	16—1589	
c 0504b	18A 04	18—2514 ^b	JER 18
6-2524b		21—2643 (1); 2648 (b); 2897 (5)	2-89; 2424b; 2426b; 2461b
$8-2426^{b}$		22—1538; 2666 ^b	5—2484 (2)
	Isa 65	28—3026 ^b	14—1863
1-609 (5)		31—1113 ^{b2} ; 1256 (e); 2666 ^b	22—2819 ^b
4-861 (ii)		Jer 8	
5—2155 ^b ; 2	2666 ^b	6—2558	JER 19
11-299 (4);		7—2863 ^b ; 2874 ^b	2—89
16—115 ^b		8—1082 (2); 1590; 3089 (2)	5—1113 ^b ; 2075 (4)
17—977 (2);	1354 (9)	11—1349	112426b
21—3051	, 1001 (0)		Y 00
21-0001	Y 00	JER 9	JER 20
	Isa 66	3—3026 ^b	2-2456 (5)
1-2190 (3))	17-530	7—2460
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18-322 (3)		26-418; 657 (4)	Jer 22
22-977 (2)			
24-723; 978	8	JER 10	13—1022
,		1—1590 (b)	23—2207
	JER 1	2—300 (b); 303 (b)	30—1577 (3)
5 0405 (h)		13—315 (6)	Jer 23
5-2495 (b))	17—2788 ^b	
9—2093		20-2948	2—2921 (9)
$11-308^{b}$		242113 (1)	5—2020 (5); 2040 ^b
		JER 11	6—2465
$18-2897^{b}$			9—881 (IV); 2047 ^b
	Jer 2		1
	Jer 2	6-2433 (5)	13—2672 ^b
18—2897ь	JER 2	6—2433 (5) 13—1256	13—2672 ^b 16—2459; 2579
18—2897 ^b 2—997 ^b 13—659 (3)	Jer 2	6-2433 (5)	
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18—2897 ^b 2—997 ^b 13—659 (3) 18—2768 22—2820 ^b 28—1256 (iii		6-2433 (5) 13-1256 15-2897 ^b 20-1589 Jer 12	16—2459; 2579 23—2192 (6) 24—2190 ^b 25—2460 (3)
18—2897 ^b 2—997 ^b 13—659 (3) 18—2768 22—2820 ^b		6—2433 (5) 13—1256 15—2897 ^b 20—1589	16—2459; 2579 23—2192 (6) 24—2190 ^b

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2—1109 (4)	2—2248	29—2093
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9—2470 (3)	30—3147 ^b	Lam 4 2—2426 ^b
3 21.0 (0)		2-2420
Jer 25	Jer 37	Ezk 1
5—2559 (3)	5—573 (11)	
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15—1074	21-2578 (4)	Ezk 2
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6—2769	3—1962 (1); 2522	14-2460 (2); 2579
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5—1071 <i>(b)</i>	1—2050; 2239 ^b	Ezk 5
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30 2000 (0)	JER 51	Ezk 13
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39-468 (2)	31—1577 ^b	Ezk 14
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	32—1072	DNL 1
1—2878 (2)	32-1072	1785 (5)
$26-2453$ (4); 2666^{b} $41-2682^{b}$	Ezk 34	3—2030
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27-2040 ^b ; 2768 ^b	23—1081; 2682 ^b	3—875
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1—1292		21—878 (4)
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3—517 ^b ; 2923 4—2181	11—1140	3—1012 (10)
12—675	16—2682 ^b	23—223
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33—881 (IV)	22—522	30—2128 (5)
41—2015 (III)	Егк 39	35—2189 (5); 2479b; 2483 (4)
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2—2461	21—1238	1-368 (40)
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25—1072	2—1078 (d)	DNL 6
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17—2829 ^b	Hos 7 1—2672 ^b	Am 2
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25—2039	10—1109 (4)	6—66 (1); 2695 (2)
27—982 ^b	Hos 10	7—124 (5); 1130
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1—786	5—542; 1448	10—545
2—1099 (b)	11—669 ^b ; 2102 ^b ; 2409 ^b	12—121 (4)
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20—456 (2)	1—2683 (1)	4—124 ^b
$21-2453^{b}$	2-545	6-505 (3)
D _{NL} 11	4—1572	11—123 ^b
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28—456 (4)	Hos 12	6—123ь
31—376; 982 ^b	1—2183	8-311 (10); 313 (2)
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6-306 (7)	Hos 13	2652 ^b ; 2666 ^b ; 2684 (5)
11—982 ^b	2-542b; 5452	24—3075
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Hos 3	13—10996	12—124 (5)
$1-2527^2$	14—2682 (1)	13—542b; 1537 (6)
4—1456	JOEL 2	14—125; 2460 (4); 2877
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38—1644; 2565 (1)	2042 ^b ; 2827 (5)	3-534 (2)
40—1115 (2)	17—624 (2); 1067 ^b ; 1119 (5) 18—482; 651; 652 ² ; 1315 (7);	15—2805
41—1728; 2502	1648 (5); 2350; 2667 (4)	18—619
42—2067; 2515	19—474 ^b ; 1050; 1133 (5); 1793 ^b ;	19—2565 (1) 20—1486 (11)
43—828	1794; 1795 (4); 1796 (4)	22-394 (3)
46—518 ^b ; 1741 (c); 2002	21—2565 (1)	25—335 (3); 1028
M _T 13	22—1649; 2043	26—482 (1); 1294 ^b
3—420 ^b	24-619; 761b; 881b; 1785 (1)	28—1135 (12); 1785 (1); 2022;
11—1805 ^b ; 2021 ^b ; 2105; 2244	25—1889 (1); 2541 ^b	2043; 2531; 2653 ² ; 2837 ^b
14—2517 (2)	27—609 (2); 2571 (9)	29—406 ^b
18—2244 ^b	28—1262 (5)	Мт 21
19—2694	M _T 17	
22—612 ^b		9—2042
24—2053; 2479 ^b	2—1891 ⁶ 4—2898	12383 ^b ; 1846 ^b 181109 (4)
30—1976 (3)	5—609 (2)	19—1655 (4)
31—2101 ^b	9-619; 2565 (1)	22—2431
33—1862 ^b ; 2243 (1) 35—1479 ^b	11-2562	23—336 ^b
37—154 ^b	19—1349 (2)	25—394
39—980	20-2102; 2189 (4)	29—2558 ^b
40—616 (1); 3038	21—26; 2432	31—1340
41—989 ^b	23—2043	33—2346
47—1115 ^b	24—2176; 2918 ^b	34—2251 (4)
54—2021	27—1649 ^b ; 1846 ^b ; 2080 ^b	42—619
55—519; 1632	Мт 18	43—1262 (5) 45—1656
Mт 14	2—2668 (6)	
2—2042ь	3—399²; 1785 ^b	Мт 22
5—1646 (1)	4-1439 (c)	4—3854
6—1169 (5)	6—397; 2052 ^b ; 2129	5—1998 ^b
13—452 ^b	8—990b; 1889 (1); 2668	11—2548
15—515	10—610	12—882 14—2010 (2)
20—1144; 2015	11—619; 2320 ^b	16—1380; 1383 ^b
23—2431ь	12—78	17—1847; 2920 (4)
24—2207	15-1050; 1133	23—25632; 2659
36—128	17—651; 654 ^b ; 2667 (4); 2920 ^b	25—2661
51—1660 (3)	18—474 ^b ; 653; 1796; 2350 19—75	29—468b; 1476 (5)
M _T 15	20—336 ^b	30—494
1—1846 (a)	21—1133; 2244 (5)	31-972 (1)
2-412b; 1628 (3); 2363; 3004b	26—61	32—975
111847 (4)	34—1133 (3)	35—1846 (c); 2133
14—2726 (8)	35—1133 (5); 2668	37—835 ^b ; 1029 (3); 2056 (3)
16—2429	_	39—1933 ^b
19—1028	Мт 19	40—2946 ^b
20—3038 ^b	1—1096 (10)	42—2042b
23—2102 ^b	3-865; 1340; 1845	44—2346
24—2320ь	4—468 (3); 2416 (1)	45—1656 (2)

M _T 23	MT 26—continued	Mĸ 1
1—1845	29—1925 (2); 1927 (a); 2637 ^b	1—1281
2336 (2)	30—1323; 2430	4—1134 (7); 2558 ^b
3—2667 (4)	36—2432 (2)	7—1125 ^b
4458 (2); 474 ^b	38—2497	8-387; 394 (3); 619 (4); 2548
7—2665	39—2479 ^b	10—390; 1410 ^b ; 3016
8—2350	47—726 (4)	11—609 (2)
12—1439 (c)	53—1766 ^b	12—1635; 2943
13—1028	541476 ^b	15—1420 (2); 2558 ^b ; 2559 ²
15—206 ^b ; 1656; 2468		26572; 2667 (2)
17—2682 (2)	57—1660 (4) 59—1670 (6)	16—1117; 1639 (3)
22—2172b	61—1637 ^b	21—3111 ^b
23—136; 1088; 2364; 2591 (1);	62—1671 (8)	22—336 (2)
2799 (7)	63—609 (2); 1845 (d); 2042 ^b ;	24—828 ^b ; 2123
24—2129 ^b ; 2864	2173 (4); 2346	27—2021
27—2222 (7)	64—263 (1); 983 ^b ; 2251 (III);	34—2668 (8)
33—2219 (1)	2829 ^b	45—1640 ^b
34—2058 ^b	65—2827ь	Mĸ 2
353129 ^b	66—1310	
38983	67—1169; 2660b; 2742 (7)	3—2236 ^b
39619	69—1661	4—423 (2); 2222 (7)
	70—2172b	5—1640b; 2668²
Мт 24	71—2123	8—2346
3980		10-336 (c); 2021b; 2022
4982 ^b	72—1887 (4)	17—2783ь
5—619	M T 27	18—2668 ^b
$6-2968^{b}$		19—1641
8—981 (2)	2—2458	21—26; 1148 (1)
18—877 (3)	3—2558 ^b ; 2559 (2)	22—509 ^b ; 2814; 3087 (4)
24—942; 1887 (5); 2129 ^b	4-1661 (c); 2559 (2)	23-3073 (3)
27—986 (4)	6-89	26—8; 85
28—886	7—2425	27—1004; 1029 (a); 1642 (a)
29—833; 983; 1792 (1)	9—1766 (4)	28—2631 (3); 2829; 2946 ^b
30—263 (1); 616 (1); 2829 ^b	17—2885 (3)	20 2001 (0), 2011, 111
32—1109 ^b	19—1662 (2)	Мк 3
36—1792 ^b ; 2345 ^b ; 3016 (10)	27—1173ь	1—3098ь
41—516 (6); 736 (8); 2052	35—1169 (3)	4—1642b; 1858
	38—2972	5-2571 (6); 3113 (4)
48—1042	39—529	6—1284 (3); 1380; 1383b
49—880; 881 (3)	42—2365; 2943 ^b	13—1710
Мт 25	46—891 ^b ; 2347 (1); 2432 (3)	14—2058; 2199 ^b
27—383ь; 2080ь	48—1446 ^b	17—1707
31—616 (1); 2021 ^b ; 2346; 2502 ^b ;		1
. 1	50—489; 2445	21-1412; 2002
2829 (3)	51—2892 (1)	22—423; 2694 (3)
41—743; 2502; 2503; 3038	52—1664	28—486; 1412
46—1889; 2571 (8); 2668	54—609 (1); 2827 (4)	29—782; 2502b
Мт 26	62—2437	30—1133
2-619	63—1664; 2565 (1)	31—518 ^b ; 2002
	66—531 (3); 2709 (3)	341645
5—2661 (2)	3.5 00	Mĸ 4
6-2795	Mr 28	
8—2320	10—2188	11—2105
11—2421	14—2458	12—2244; 2471 (3)
12—2346 ^b	16—2368 ^b ·	17—2324 (4)
17—1658 (1)	18—336 ^b ; 394 ^b ; 395; 396 ³ ; 616;	26—1806 (6); 2479 ^b
20—385 (2)	1666 (2); 2021b; 2829 (9)	32—2101 ^b
23—516; 2015; 2258 (10)		Мк 5
24-2043	19—388; 391 (4); 392b; 653;	
26-2022	742; 1100 ^b ; 1899; 2053;	9—1645 (2); 2004
27—766 ^b ; 1928	2346b; 2637 (3); 2842; 2922	12—2564 (4)
28—323; 489 (3); 731 ² ; 1135 (12);	(II); 3011 (2); 3017 ^b ; 3020 ³ ;	15—2820ь
1785 (1); 2652b; 2653 (2);	3021 (22)	211284
2654 (3)	20-266	30—1646 (3)
2004 (0)		

		T
Mk 5—continued	Mk 10—continued	MK 14—continued
38—531 (6)	25—2129 ^b	22-2022; 2432 (2); 2668b
41—2904	32—2022	23—1928
41-2304	33—619	24—731 (2); 2025; 2652 (1);
Mĸ 6	1	
$5-1486^{b}$	34—2565	2653 (2); 2655 (1)
6—1646 (4)	35—1654 ^b	27—2519
8—377; 517; 1433 (5)	38—394 (3)	36—59
9-2431 (1)	42—335 (3)	43—726 (4)
13—2783 ^b	45—1135 (12); 2022; 2530 (1);	51—2178 ^b
18—526	26532; 2830 (3)	58—2565 (1)
	46—406 ^b	61—2346
21—478	Μκ 11	62-2043; 2290 (1)
22—1169 ^b	1	66—983
Mĸ 7	12021b	67—2123
1—2363; 3073 (3)	12—1109 (5)	72—2349
2-3038	14—1655 (4)	MK 15
3—412b; 2507b; 3004b	15—137 ^b	14—1661 ^b
4-390; 3942	21—767 ^b	16—1173 ^b
6—2851b	28—336 ^b	17—1404 ^b
7389	30—394 (3)	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
10—2582 (3)	Mĸ 12	22—2886 ^b
18—1847 (4)		23—3087 ^b
19—819	6—336 ^b	26—2021 ^b
20—1647	8—2022	27—2972
22—2805	12—1656 (a)	29—78 (5)
26—2886 ^b	13—1380; 1383 ^b	34—2347; 2432 (3)
32—882 ^b	14—1847; 2920 (4)	36—1446 ^b
	18—2563 (III)	37—489
33—2846	20—2661 (2)	38—2892
34—2432	24—1476 (5)	39—609 (1)
Mĸ 8	25—986; 2565	42—2437
15—1383 ^b ; 1648 (4)	28—2133	44762
22—488; 1070 ^b ; 1645 ^b	29-1933 (2)	Mĸ 16
$23-1648^{b}$	30—2056	9—184; 396; 751 (c)
27—2021	31—1846 (c)	11—2567ь
29—619 (4); 2827 (5)	36—754 ^b ; 1475	15—391 (4); 394 ^b ; 2053; 2637
31—1284 ^b ; 2022; 2346; 2565 (1)	38—2665	16—395
34—2657	40-2705	17—2996ь
38—990; 2043	41—383b; 605 (5)	18—2415
M- 0	44—1657	19—263 (2); 615
Мк 9	Мк 13	10 200 (2), 010
1-1262 (5)		Lk 1
5—2898	2—2851 ^b	1—753b
7—609 (2)	3—76 (1)	2—1936 (2)
$9-2565 (1); 3055^{b}$	5—983	1
12—2022; 2562	6—877 (3); 983 ^b	3—3053 (2)
17—882 ^b	7—2250b	5-2445 (1)
29—829ь	8—981 (2); 1307 (5)	10—112; 1434
31619 (4)	22—986; 1887 (5)	14—477 (1)
33—1649 ^b	26—2043	15—393 ^b
35—2667 (4)	28—1109ь	17—155 ^b
38-1707	30—982; 1262 (5); 2251 (4)	31—694 (4); 2335 (17)
41—1433 (5)	$32-486;$ $989;$ $1792;$ $2345^{b};$	32—1198 (2)
42-881 ^b ; 2052; 2129	2828 (8); 3016 (10)	$35-1410^{\rm b};$ $1630^{\rm b};$ 2827 (4);
43—722 ^b ; 2502	39—2693 (2)	3016
50—966 ^b ; 2664 ^b	37 44	39—3054 (2)
,	Mĸ 14	46-2497
Mk 10	3—2795	48—3102 (1)
2—1999 (5)	42320	53517 (2)
5—1477	7—2421	68-2042
15—2291	8—2022; 2346 ^b	77—1134 (10)
$17-1654^{\rm b}$	12—1658 (1)	79—324
21—2668	16—2021b	80—1709

Lk 2	Lk 6—continued	Lk 11—continued
1—332²; 2600 (1)	22—1050	13—1028; 2347
2—45; 1632b; 1741	26—2429	15—423
7—519; 1433; 2003	27—525 (2); 3091 (5)	20—1111 ^b ; 2668; 3016 ^b
8—1470 (5); 2222 (7)	29—600; 877 ^b	21—2532; 2667 (3)
21—1846	37—1132 ^b	262004
24—1633 (2)	Lk 7	29—1309 ^b ; 1728; 2347
25-1005; 1631; 1806 (1); 2042		31-2515
27—1114	5—2229b; 2622	34-2805
35—1632 (3)	25—2525 ^b	38—389; 390 (2)
40—1634	29—2920 ^b	41—101 ⁶
46—726 (3); 1859	30—396ь	43-2665
49—2346	32—1168 ^b	49—2058; 3092
51—2003 ^b	34-2009; 2346 ^b ; 2920 ^b ; 3088	51—3129 ^b
	(2); 3091 (5)	
52—1290 ^b ; 1291 (3)	36—1135; 1644 (d)	Lk 12
Lk 3	37—2004 ² ; 2806	6-2839 ^b
1—2458	44—414 ^b ; 1125 ^b ; 3072 ^b	7—1320 (3); 2189 (5)
2—137	46—1004	8—336 ^b
32558 ^b	47—2668 (7)	10—486; 1412
	50—2667; 3102 ^b	16—1861
7—2571 (6)	30—2007; 3102°	25—2850
11—877 (3)	Lk 8	31—26 (2)
12—2789 ^b ; 2920 ^b	2—2006 (V)	32—1262; 1420 (2); 2668 (6)
15—2042 ^b	10—2105; 2244	
$16-394$ (3); 401 (4); 1125^{b} ;	16—423 (3)	35—2968 (2)
2548 ^b ; 2684 ^b	19—518 ^b ; 1741 (c)	36—1815
21—2479 ^b ; 3016	i a constant and a co	42—1795 (5); 2854
22—609 (2); 1410 ^b	28—828	45—881
27—3147 (2)	35—2820 ^b	47—33 (1); 1309 ^b ; 2504 (4)
38 —141 ^b ; 146 ^b ; 609 (1); 2826 (2)	Lk 9	50-394 (3); 2176 (3)
	1—1067ь	55—3086 (3)
T A	1	
Lk 4	20-2827 (5)	T 40
	20—2827 (5) 21—1648 (5)	Lk 13
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1)	21—1648 (5)	Lk 13 1—2397; 2559 ^b
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5)	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1)	
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b	1—2397; 2559ь
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b 5—2944	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b 33—2898	1—2397; 2559 ^b 2—813
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b 5—2944 6—2696 (3)	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b 33—2898 34—2222	1—2397; 2559 ^b 2—813 6—1109 (5)
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b 5—2944 6—2696 (3) 8—1635 ^b	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b 33—2898 34—2222 35—609 (2)	1—2397; 2559 ^b 2—813 6—1109 (5) 7—1108 (1) 15—1981 ^b
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b 5—2944 6—2696 (3) 8—1635 ^b 12—1635 (3)	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b 33—2898 34—2222 35—609 (2) 45—618	1—2397; 2559 ^b 2—813 6—1109 (5) 7—1108 (1) 15—1981 ^b 16—2694 (3)
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b 5—2944 6—2696 (3) 8—1635 ^b 12—1635 (3) 16—323; 1639 (2)	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b 33—2898 34—2222 35—609 (2) 45—618 49.54—1707	1—2397; 2559 ^b 2—813 6—1109 (5) 7—1108 (1) 15—1981 ^b 16—2694 (3) 19—2101 ^b
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b 5—2944 6—2696 (3) 8—1635 ^b 12—1635 (3) 16—323; 1639 (2) 18—2439	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b 33—2898 34—2222 35—609 (2) 45—618 49.54—1707 55—2842	1—2397; 2559 ^b 2—813 6—1109 (5) 7—1108 (1) 15—1981 ^b 16—2694 (3) 19—2101 ^b 23—2503 ^b
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b 5—2944 6—2696 (3) 8—1635 ^b 12—1635 (3) 16—323; 1639 (2) 18—2439 26—3132 ^b	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b 33—2898 34—2222 35—609 (2) 45—618 49.54—1707 55—2842 58—1645 ^b	1—2397; 2559 ^b 2—813 6—1109 (5) 7—1108 (1) 15—1981 ^b 16—2694 (3) 19—2101 ^b 23—2503 ^b 29—1262 (5)
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b 5—2944 6—2696 (3) 8—1635 ^b 12—1635 (3) 16—323; 1639 (2) 18—2439	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b 33—2898 34—2222 35—609 (2) 45—618 49.54—1707 55—2842	1—2397; 2559 ^b 2—813 6—1109 (5) 7—1108 (1) 15—1981 ^b 16—2694 (3) 19—2101 ^b 23—2503 ^b 29—1262 (5) 32—1673 (7)
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b 5—2944 6—2696 (3) 8—1635 ^b 12—1635 (3) 16—323; 1639 (2) 18—2439 26—3132 ^b	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b 33—2898 34—2222 35—609 (2) 45—618 49.54—1707 55—2842 58—1645 ^b 62—1645 ^b ; 2409 ^b	1—2397; 2559 ^b 2—813 6—1109 (5) 7—1108 (1) 15—1981 ^b 16—2694 (3) 19—2101 ^b 23—2503 ^b 29—1262 (5)
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b 5—2944 6—2696 (3) 8—1635 ^b 12—1635 (3) 16—323; 1639 (2) 18—2439 26—3132 ^b 32—336 (2)	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b 33—2898 34—2222 35—609 (2) 45—618 49.54—1707 55—2842 58—1645 ^b 62—1645 ^b ; 2409 ^b Lk 10	1—2397; 2559 ^b 2—813 6—1109 (5) 7—1108 (1) 15—1981 ^b 16—2694 (3) 19—2101 ^b 23—2503 ^b 29—1262 (5) 32—1673 (7) Lk 14
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b 5—2944 6—2696 (3) 8—1635 ^b 12—1635 (3) 16—323; 1639 (2) 18—2439 26—3132 ^b 32—336 (2) 34—2123	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b 33—2898 34—2222 35—609 (2) 45—618 49.54—1707 55—2842 58—1645 ^b 62—1645 ^b ; 2409 ^b Lk 10 4—2665	1—2397; 2559 ^b 2—813 6—1109 (5) 7—1108 (1) 15—1981 ^b 16—2694 (3) 19—2101 ^b 23—2503 ^b 29—1262 (5) 32—1673 (7) Lk 14 7—1652 (c)
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b 5—2944 6—2696 (3) 8—1635 ^b 12—1635 (3) 16—323; 1639 (2) 18—2439 26—3132 ^b 32—336 (2) 34—2123 35—1067 ^b ; 1640	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b 33—2898 34—2222 35—609 (2) 45—618 49.54—1707 55—2842 58—1645 ^b 62—1645 ^b ; 2409 ^b Lk 10 4—2665 7—1030; 1395	1—2397; 2559 ^b 2—813 6—1109 (5) 7—1108 (1) 15—1981 ^b 16—2694 (3) 19—2101 ^b 23—2503 ^b 29—1262 (5) 32—1673 (7) LK 14 7—1652 (c) 8—3091 (5)
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b 5—2944 6—2696 (3) 8—1635 ^b 12—1635 (3) 16—323; 1639 (2) 18—2439 26—3132 ^b 32—336 (2) 34—2123 35—1067 ^b ; 1640 38—2063 41—828	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b 33—2898 34—2222 35—609 (2) 45—618 49.54—1707 55—2842 58—1645 ^b 62—1645 ^b ; 2409 ^b Lk 10 4—2665 7—1030; 1395 10—2133	1—2397; 2559 ^b 2—813 6—1109 (5) 7—1108 (1) 15—1981 ^b 16—2694 (3) 19—2101 ^b 23—2503 ^b 29—1262 (5) 32—1673 (7) LK 14 7—1652 (c) 8—3091 (5) 11—1028 ^b ; 1440
1—154 ^b ; 1411 ^b ; 1635 (1) 3—2943 (5) 4—1476; 1635 (3); 2346 ^b 5—2944 6—2696 (3) 8—1635 ^b 12—1635 (3) 16—323; 1639 (2) 18—2439 26—3132 ^b 32—336 (2) 34—2123 35—1067 ^b ; 1640 38—2063 41—828 Lk 5	21—1648 (5) 22—2565 (1) 24—1889 (1); 2320 ^b 33—2898 34—2222 35—609 (2) 45—618 49.54—1707 55—2842 58—1645 ^b 62—1645 ^b ; 2409 ^b Lk 10 4—2665 7—1030; 1395 10—2133 15—1315 (6)	1—2397; 2559 ^b 2—813 6—1109 (5) 7—1108 (1) 15—1981 ^b 16—2694 (3) 19—2101 ^b 23—2503 ^b 29—1262 (5) 32—1673 (7) Lk 14 7—1652 (c) 8—3091 (5) 11—1028 ^b ; 1440 13—385 (2)
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                                                                           (1)
21 - 2340
                                    34—264; 615<sup>b</sup>; 1783<sup>b</sup>; 2024
                                                                       10-2668 (2)
             Rom 6
                                    35 - 2543<sup>b</sup>
                                                                                    Rom 14
                                   37 - 701
 1-2292 (2); 2617 (5); 2670 (8);
                                                                        5-1920 (5)
                                    38 - 2454^{b}
     3011 (II)
                                                                        8-2683 (2)
                                   39-1263; 2686 (2)
 2-2291 (5); 2669 (4)
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10—616 (2)	1—1119; 1975 (1); 2105; 2682 ^b ;	1—203 (4); 2279
12—33	2842 ^b	2—2709ь
13—881 ^b	2—2052	5—519; 520b; 2278b; 2349b
15—1933ь	4-201	9—2102ь
20-819	13—799; 2669	10—2409 ^b
23—1309 ^b	142658	15—2339 ^b
Roм 15	15.—990	16-2433 (3)
	17—2670 (8)	24—1172 (e); 1173
4—1481 (14)	21-691	26—88; 1172 ^b
8—1090 (2)	1 Cor 4	27—492 (2); 1172 (g); 2329;
$10-1478^{52}$ 16-2657 (3); 2683	5-2429; 2572 (11); 2669	2560 ^b ; 2669
18—2844	6-1110	1 Cor 10
19—982 ^b ; 1449 ²	8—1173 (4)	1—395 (3); 2637
23—206 (2)	9—1179 ^b	2—394 (3)
24—2260	12—1133 (2)	42843; 2845
26—2427 (4)	13—2180 ^b	5—2292 (2)
28—2709 ^b	15 -399; 2702 ^b	11980
	17—1023	12-26692
Rom 16	1 Cor 5	131090b; 2943
1—1433 (7); 2614 (2); 3103 (6)	1—1051	14—1448
2-2060; 2662	5—654 (4); 2670 (8)	16—487 ^b ; 688 (1); 1659; 1927 ^b
6-2001 (5)	7—798 ^b ; 889; 1823; 1923 (4);	17—1728 (d)
7—132 (a); 2058	2024; 2653; 2685 (8)	20—690 (3); 2292 (2) 21—2898 ^b
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10—538 (7)	10—1005 (4)	1 Cor 11
11—2120		2—3004 (2); 3047
13—90 (1); 2625 ^b	1 Cor 6	5—1348 (6) 7—146—(4): 080: 1451—(2):
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20—2129; 2695	7—818; 877 ^b	8.9—53 (4)
22—1070	9—2250 (4)	10—134 (6)
23—1433 (6); 2854	11—395; 2548 ^b ; 2684 ^b	15—733
25—2105	13—2564 ^b ; 2565 16—1478 ^b	20—70 (5)
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1 Cor 1	19 -2669 (3); 2892 (1)	23—70; 618; 2789ь
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2—652 (4); 2593; 2682 (2); 2683 ² ; 2685 (1)		25—731 (2); 2653 (2)
3—2043 ^b	1 Cor 7	26—2658
8—2292 (1)	7—2278 ^b	27—1310; 1922 (3)
12—201	8—1038 (4)	28—1929
13—389	9—2929b	29—1927 (c); 2292 (2)
14—397 (5)	10—1999 (5); 2290 (1) 11—2536 ^b	30-992 (6); 2670 (8)
16—396 (4)		1 Cor 12
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18—761 ^b ; 2427 ^b	15—866 (2); 1999 ^b	4—3019 (16)
$22-2789^{\rm b}$	23—2024; 2532	10—28443; 2996
23—626 (4)	26—981 (2)	12—2030; 2542 (3)
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1—2105; 2967ь	1—1242 (2)	27—652 28—2843
5—1444 (5)	3—1130	
6-3091 ^b	4—3014 (6)	1 Cor 13
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12—2686; 2845 (1)	6—1914 (1); 2024; 3019	2—467 (c); 1242 (2)
13—461; 2580 ^b	8—881 ^b 9—2867	3—744
14—1816; 2721; 2845 ^b	,	4—1439 ^b
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22—53 (2); 991; 1093; 2023b; 2498 (9); 2562; 2684 (1); 2565 (2); 2498 (9); 2562; 2684 (5); 27—2546 (1) (2); 29—392 (2); 397 (6); 2929 (2) (2); 397 (6); 2929 (2) (2); 381—2686 (3); 31.172 (3) (3); 32—2563 (5) (4)—2587 (3); 44—492 (4); 493b; 1451; 2338 (1)—2685 (1); 2497b (2); 2497b (2); 2497b (2); 2250 (4); 2564 (3); 2550²; 2633; 2669 (4); 2550² (2); 2497b (2);	21-811b; 973 (3); 1463; 2340b;	2426b; 2497 (3)	
10-145 (b); 19/4 (2); 19/8 (2) 19/8	2503	10—2564	1
237 (37) (315; 2249 (1); 2565 (24-1805; 2023b; 2053b; 2504 (5) (719; 9887; 989 (711); 2497 (3); 2564 (4) (2-670; 992 (6) (6-1315 (2-2560) (6-1	22—53 (2); 991; 1093; 2023 ^b ;	16—145 (b); 1974 (2); 1975 (2)	1
2 Cor 5 27—2546 (1) 29—392 (2); 397 (6); 2292 (2) 31—2686 31—2686 32—189 (3); 1172 (3) 33—2563 (5) 35—615; 988b; 2089 (6) 37—1461 (3) 38—461 (3) 44—492 (4); 493b; 1451; 2338 45—50; 53 (3); 1914 (1); 2495 46—1975 (1); 2121b 47—989b; 1015; 2340b 49—988 30—1119 (5); 1804b; 2105b; 2250 (4); 2564 42—2582 (3) 4 Cor 16 1—2633 2—1919 (3) 8—3111 2—201 2—201 2—201 2—205 4—2885 (1) 4—2685 (1) 4—2685 (1) 4—2685 (1) 4—2685 (1) 4—28969 4—2842 2—267b 4—2842 5—2560b 11—2348; 2949b 11—2348; 2949b 11—2348; 2949b 11—2348; 2948 (3); 2550b; 2633; 2669 (4) 18—321b; 620 (2); 1135 (12); 2023b; 1135b; 2655b 20—115; 2434 (9) 21—72 (2); 1464; 1465; 1630b; 20—2173 (4) 21—2275 4—495 (2) 4—495 (2) 5—3026 6—1461; 2966b 7—2058 10—2427 (3) 11—2685 (1) 4—1481; 2245 (2) 8—2969	2498 (9); 2562; 2684	17—988	
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(2); 2497 ^b (46—1975 (1); 2121 ^b (47—989 ^b ; 1015; 2340 ^b (49—988 (50—1119 (5); 1804 ^b ; 2105 ^b ; 2250 (4); 2564 (52—257 (44—2582 (3)) 1 Cor 16 1—2633 2—1919 (3) 8—3111 2—201 (22—1051) 2 Cor 1 1—2685 (1) 4—1481; 2245 (2) 8—2969 17—398 (1); 742; 2548 (3); 2550 ^c ; 2633; 2669 (4) 18—321 ^b ; 620 (2); 1135 (12); 2023 ^b ; 2467; 2537 (2) 19—323 ^b ; 1135 ^b ; 2655 ^b 20—21; 2434 (9) 21—233 ^b ; 1135 ^b ; 2655 ^b 20—115; 2434 (9) 21—72 (2); 1464; 1465; 1630 ^b ; 20—2173 (4) 21—2275 GAL 2 4—495 (2) 5—3026 6—1461; 2966 ^b 7—2058 10—2427 (3) 11—2093 16—2892 (1) 2 Cor 7 11—2275 GAL 2 4—495 (2) 5—3026 6—1461; 2966 ^b 7—2058 10—2427 (4) 11—2278 ^b ; 2350 12—207 (3) 20—323 ^b ; 2024; 2291 (5); 2548 ^b 2550 (6); 2656 (2); 2669 (4) 2668 (1) 2666 (2); 2669 (4) 2668 (2); 2669 (4) 2669 (1) 2668 (2); 2669 (4) 2669 (1) 2668 (2); 2669 (4) 367 37 38 311 30—323 ^b ; 2024; 2291 (5); 2548 ^b 2550 (6); 2656 (2); 2669 (4) 30—323 ^b ; 2024; 2291 (5); 2548 ^b 2650 (6); 2656 (2); 2669 (4) 30—323 ^b ; 2024; 2291 (5); 2548 ^b 2650 (6); 2656 (2); 2669 (4) 30—323 ^b ; 2024; 2669 (4)			$14-435^{b}$; 742 ; 1417 ; 2023^{b} ;
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1—2085 (1) 4—1481; 2245 (2) 8—2969 20—323 ^b ; 2024; 2291 (5); 2548 ^b 2550 (6); 2656 (2); 2669 (4) 2623 (3); 2624 ^b ; 2625 (1)		·	·
8—2969 10—1133 (4) 2550 (6); 2656 (2); 2669 (4)			20—323 ^b ; 2024; 2291 (5); 2548 ^b ;
0-2909 (2), 2694b, 2695 (1)	-		2550 (6); 2656 (2); 2669 (4);
U-2010 (0/) 2003		* *	
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Gal 3	Gal 6	Ерн 4
1—3097ь	1—1975 (1); 2670 (8); 2801 (13);	1—956 (2); 2683
2-1850	2842	4—1914 (1)
$6-1465^{b}$	6—2292 (1)	5—394
7—399	767 (5); 2502; 2570	6—1262; 2288
81039	8—692 ^b ; 722 ^b ; 987 (3)	8-264; 265 (IX); 1478 ^b
11—1313 (2)	11—2974	9—2340 ^b
13-761 (4); 2024; 2289 (3);	14—761 ^b ; 2024	13—610 ^b ; 1023; 1149
2532 ² ; 2541; 2654; 2655 ^b ;	15—398 (1); 742 ^b ; 2548 (3)	15—2030; 2684 ^b ; 3026 ^b
2656	$16-925^{b}$	16-492 (3)
14-2657; 2669 (3)	17—2455 ^b	17—2548b; 2668 (2)
15—729 ^b ; 1464; 1927 (2)		18—2056; 3025 ^b
16—1478 ^{b2} ; 2363 (6); 2519 ^b ;	Ерн 1	21—3025 ^b
2712 ^b ;	1—1837ь	22-399; 1975 (3)
19—616 ^b ; 1782 ^b ; 2023	3—11302	23-2842
21—1783 (1)	4-613 (2); 2435 (4)	24—146 (5)
23-59 (1)	5—2556b	26-3113 (4)
24-865; 1020 (1); 2702 ^b	7—2024; 2531 ^b ; 2541; 2634;	29-533
26—2836	2654	30—2709 ^{b2} ; 2842 ^b
27—389; 398 (2); 2670 (8)	8—467 (1)	32-1024b
28—1106 ^b ; 2817 (6)	9—2562	
-	10-957; 991; 1094; 2503; 2504;	Ерн 5
Gal 4	2654 (2).	1—609 (3); 3099 ^b
2—1850; 2854	13—27092	2—2024; 2291 ² ; 2685 (8); 2700 ^b ;
3-495 (2); 1783; 2625 (2)	14-401b; 2550 (4)	2818
4-492 (4); 610 (5); 626; 1149;	18—3025 ^b	3-2662
1464; 1627; 2023 ^b ; 2340 ^b	19—615; 1023b	4-1624
5—59 (1); 2024; 2274; 2532;	20—264; 615 ^{b2}	5—2250
2556; 2654	22—2030	6—2023b; 2571 (6)
6-609 (2); 2550 (4); 2669 (4);	23—1140	14—1478 ^b
2683 (2)		18-401; 881
9-426	Ерн 2	19—2845
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12—2974	2—88 ^b ; 2497 (7)	23—2030
14—2277	3—399 (4); 1975 (1); 2056; 2571	25—651 (3)
$17-65^{b}$	(6); 2668 (2); 2798 (3)	26-394 (4); 3952; 398 (2); 399;
19—2684ь	5—398 (1)	652 (4); 2684 ^b
21—21; 98; 1317 (6); 1510 (6);	6—264; 615; 1933; 2564	27-3114
2292 (6)	8-926	32—2105; 2636 ^b
22—1490 (3); 2691 ^b	11—957 ^b ; 1838 (3)	T
24—2277	12—2574	Ерн 6
25—1317 (6)	13—2654 (2)	4—397b; 2280 (3)
29—1509 (3)	14—3023 ^b	5—2817 (6)
Gal 5	15—953	6—1070 ^b
	16—761 ^b ; 2023; 2538 (3)	$12-492$ (4); 1173 (<i>i</i>); 1352^{b} ;
1—58 (II); 495 (2)	19—1804 ^b ; 2273 (2)	2842 ^b
3—2469 (4) 5—990 ^b	20-482 (1)	15—2437
6—467 (c); 1567; 1784; 2631	Ерн 3	16—2789
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17—1119 ^b	13—1238 (2)	12—2484 (6)
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20—1377	15—2548 ^b	2622b
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22—1918; 1933 (1); 2261 ^b ; 2291	18-517	23—992 (6); 1315
(1); 2357 (1); 2509 (6);	19—1914 (1)	27—661 (3); 2372b; 2497
2684 ^b	20—2189 (6)	28-2320
24—761 ^b ; 2668 (2)	21—1199 ^b ; 1892 (4)	29—2657 (2)
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PHIL 2	Col 2	1 Thess 4
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5—336b; 2338 (1);, 2374 (4);	2—2105	3—2684 (5); 2685 (8); 2967 ^b
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3056 (3)	5—257	6—2571 (7)
6—264 (3); 420; 615 ^b ; 1293;	6-2685 (8)	8-2669 (3)
2023^{b} ; 2176 (2); 2457^{b} ;	8—207 (5); 2383; 2625; 3004 (3)	13—380 ^b ; 987; 992
3035	9—1264 (8); 1269 ^b ; 1451 (4); 2341	14—283; 2567 (5)
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9—468 (2); 2504 (5)	11—396; 677 ^b ; 1633 (2); 2292 (2)	16—981 (1); 986; 1315; 2564 (4);
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13—398 19—2260 ^b	15—2289 (1); 3022 ^b 16—1920 (5); 2631 (4)	17—989; 2054
20—2374	18—1440; 2056; 2557	1 Thess 5
22—2985 (21)	19—2273 (2)	2—986 (4)
24—2366 (1)	20—2288	3—981 (2)
` ,	21—197 (2); 1242 (1)	6—2820b
PHIL 3		9—2571 (6)
1—657 (3); 696 ^b ; 2370 ^b	Соь 3	10—2683 12—2060
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989 ^b ; 2273 (2); 2372 ^b	16—2845	6—2571 (7)
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1451; 1796; 2338; 2564	Col 4	10—616 (1) 11—990 ^b
	10—1939 (4)	
PHIL 4	16—195; 958 (4); 1837 (3); 2267 ^b	2 Thess 2
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8—2429 ^b	12567	4—982b
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13—2669 (4) 15—2373 (4)	3—990 ^b	$7-2105^{b}$
18—2658 (4): 2700°: 2818: 2845	4—2292 (1)	9—986; 2694ь
18—2658 (4); 2700 ^b ; 2818; 2845 22—537	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	10—3026ь
18—2658 (4); 2700°; 2818; 2845 22—537		10—3026 ^b 13—742; 3019 (16)
22—537	9—707 (2); 2054 ^b ; 2558 (3) 10—264 (4); 2571 (6)	10—3026ь
22—537 Col 1	9-707 (2); 2054 ^b ; 2558 (3) 10-264 (4); 2571 (6) 1 Thess 2	10—3026 ^b 13—742; 3019 (16)
22—537 Col 1 6—982 ^b	9—707 (2); 2054 ^b ; 2558 (3) 10—264 (4); 2571 (6) 1 Thess 2 2—2370	10—3026 ^b 13—742; 3019 (16) 15—3004 (2)
22—537 Col 1	9-707 (2); 2054 ^b ; 2558 (3) 10-264 (4); 2571 (6) 1 Thess 2 2-2370 4-2434 (2)	10—3026 ^b 13—742; 3019 (16) 15—3004 (2) 2 Thess 3 3—1090 ^b 6—3004 (2)
22—537 Col 1 6—982 ^b 7—955	9—707 (2); 2054 ^b ; 2558 (3) 10—264 (4); 2571 (6) 1 Thess 2 2—2370	10—3026 ^b 13—742; 3019 (16) 15—3004 (2) 2 Thess 3 3—1090 ^b 6—3004 (2) 10—2670 (8)
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Col 1 6—982 ^b 7—955 9—2056 ^b 11—1918 ^b 13—2250 (4); 2532 ^b 14—2024	9-707 (2); 2054 ^b ; 2558 (3) 10-264 (4); 2571 (6) 1 Thess 2 2-2370 4-2434 (2) 6-2429 8-2841 (1)	10—3026 ^b 13—742; 3019 (16) 15—3004 (2) 2 Thess 3 3—1090 ^b 6—3004 (2) 10—2670 (8) 12—2970 14—1051; 2267 ^b
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אָבִיב	9a; 541b	ۣ ڟۣڋٙڎ <u>ٙ</u>	5 ^b		382a
אַב ִרגַיִל	} _{9ь}	אָבֵל הַשִּׁטִים	6ª		595a; 2408a
אַבִּרגַל	90	אָבֵל כְּרָמִים	5 ^b ; 2013 ^a ; 2407 ^a		2067a; 3046a
אַבידָן	9a; 1338a	אָבל מְחוֹלָה	6^{n}	אַדְבָּאֵל אַדְבָּאֵל	
אַבִידָע	9ª	אָבֵל מַיִם	6^{a}		1447b
מַבנָּה	100	אָבֵל מִצְרַים	6^{a}		1447 ^b
צַברָּהוּ	} 10 ^a	\$⊊7	494°; 591°; 722°;		see DTX
אַבִיהוּא	•		1893 ^b ; 1984 ^b ; 2007 ^a ; 2758 ^b ;	1118	1264 ^b ; 1266 ^a ; 1919 ^a ; 2007 ^b ; 2389 ^b ; 2908 ^a
אָברהוּד	10 ^a		2856°; 2999°; 3079°; 3155°	צַדוֹרַיִם	
אַבִּיהַיִל	10 ^a	אָבַּוּ] 478b; 2050a; 2862b	1	1050a; 1167a; 1278b;
אֲבִיחַיִל		אֹבֶּוֹ	3082b		2154°; 2775°;
	890b; 2130a; 2420a, b	צַבָּנָה		אַדַלְּיָא	3113ª
אָבִרּוֹנֶה			591a; 890b		2524 ^b ; 2861 ^a
	see אַבִיהַיִל	אַבְנֵר אַבְנֵר)		48b; 49b; 54a; 140b;
אַבִרטוּב		בינר אַבִינֵר	14b; 18a	_ +	144 ^b ; 145 ^a ; 287 ^b ;
אֲבִרטֵל			745 ^b ; 2847 ^b		488 ^b ; 819 ^b ; 2015 ^a ; 2337 ^a ; 2404 ^a ;
يُخذِرُם			485b; 2405a		2835b; 2861a;
צַבִּימָאל			890 ^b		3109^{b}
אַבימֶלֶה			1446 ^b	אָרם	$675^{\rm b}$; $1254^{\rm b}$; $2524^{\rm b}$
	12a; 434b	צַבָקה		צֶּדִם	49b; 899a
אֲבִרנֹעַם	12 ^b	1	1267ª	צָּדרב] 20 , 550
•	see אַבְנֵר		1267a; 2400a	אֶדֶם	2856b; 2857a;
ؿڂۯۉڡ	7ь	אֶבְרָה	,	אַדְמָה	2861 ^{a, b}
	9°; 1574°	אַבְרָתַם		1	49b; 54a; 144b; 667a;
אֲבִי־עַלְבֹּוֹן			22 ^b ; 1739 ^b	, ,, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	724a; 887a; 1307a;
אָבִיר	1254 ^b ; 1265 ^a ; 1267 ^a ;	אַבְרָם אַבְרָם	*		1442b; 1826b;
	2189 ^a	مَ الْمُرْدُ ال	3448	I	2000a
			UTTO		

אַדמוֹנִי	see אַרְבוֹנִי	אוֹבִיל	2177ь	אַזוֹב	1445 ^b
	54b; 2133a	אובל	2595a; 2867a; 3032a;	אַזוֹר	
אֲדָמִים		,	3074b	אַזְכָּרָה	
וְאַרְבוֹנִי			514 ^a ; 1112 ^b	1 111	343°; 1152°; 1248°
אַדְמוֹנִי (אַדְמוֹנִי	2524ь	پخزت	733b; 1548a; 1941b; 1942a		1081 ^b
אַדְמָתָא		אהזר	3042 ^b	·	65 ^a ; 886 ^a
	28214		2045 ^a ; 3042 ^b	אָבַּן שָׁאֶרָה אָבַּן שָׁאֶרָה	
	see אָדוֹן		1041 ^b	אַזְנוֹת תָּבוֹר אַזְנוֹת תָּבוֹר	
<u> </u>			see ⊅∷k		2206 ^b
	57a; 430b; 598a;		1124a,b	אַנַכָּרָה אַנִּירָה	
, ,	1252a; 1254b;	אָריל מְרֹדַהְ			2868 ^b
	1264 ^b ; 1266 ^a ; 1780 ^a ; 1919 ^a		1265 ^b	בְּיֵי אֶזְרוֹעַ אֶזְרוֹעַ	
אַד'ני־בֶּזֶק			3032a		417 ^a ; 1418 ^a ; 1826 ^b ;
אַדֹניָה	ŀ		1438b; 2421a;	11,115	2467 ^b
אַדֹּניָהוּ	57ª	מלם	2935 ^b ; 3033 ^a	אָזְרָחִי	1085a
אַדֹנִי־עֶדֶק	58ª	1	1124 ^b	цķ	6 ^b ;78 ^b ;525 ^{a,b} ;526 ^a ;
אַדניקם			2188 ^b		1351 ^b ; 1436 ^b ; 1799 ^a ; 2554 ^b
אַדֹנִירָם	58ª	1	1279 ^a ; 2193 ^a ; 2194 ^a ;	Zin His	739 ^a ; 868 ^b ; 1548 ^{a,b} ;
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	2975 ^b	ארכר	2196a	كتلافا	83 ^b
	788a; 2077a	ארֹנָם	2194ª	څښد	1113ª
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אָדְרֶעִי	900_{P}	% द्वा	3038b	אָתוּר	2544 ^a
אַדֶּרֶת	1235b; 1984a; 2814a	אוֹפִיר)	אַחוֹת	
	432b; 1146a; 1931b;	אֹפִיר	2197ª	אַתוִּעֹר בַּיייינֿ	
אָהֵב		אופר		אַחוּמַי	
	1934ª	אוֹפָּן	3082*		376°; 1375°
	1934a	XĢ;	3002"		2554b; 2813a
	1931ь	אופר	see אופיר	1	1335 ^a ; 2422 ^b
	2181a	אוֹצֶר	254b; 587b; 2863a;	אָתָד <u>ייי</u> אָ	
いが対			3007b; 3008 ^a	אָתזַר אָתזַר	
225% 81 <u>1</u> 28		718	301 ^b ; 517 ^b ; 829 ^b ; 952 ^b ; 1120 ^a ;		
מָרוּד מבי			1890b; 1892a	אַתוֹגָרענ אָתוֹגָרָה	82 ^b
	2947 ^b		18b; 589a; 3039a	. <u>biú</u> ജ്	
حارات	701 ^a ; 1417 ^b ; 2181 ^a ; 2887 ^b ; 2888 ^b ;	אוֹרָה	1375a	<u> </u>	
,	2947^{b}	1	3039 ^b		83 ^b
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אָהֵלִיבָמָה		אורייהו	}		see חיקה
אַהָלִים	} 102°	1	1113a; 3040b	אַתוּלָּני)
אַהָלוֹת	J	1 ' '.	see אַרַוֹנְה	آ≷لائر لال بالارساد	(00 °
	1a; 2a	אות	1985 ^b ; 2063 ^a ; 2789 ^a ;	אַתירוּר	
אראַל	3032ª		2994°; 3070°;	אַדִירוֹ	
אוֹב	(509b; 690a; 862a; 944a; 1094b;	jan k di	3104b	אָתיתֻד פֿיניי	
28	2177b; 2466a;	1	1395 ^b	אַחִיטוּב	
	2814 ^a ; 3097 ^a	ال عالم	1070 ^b	1 = 00 (10)	00

אַתִּרלוּד	84 ^b	אָייוֹב	1679ь	אָרשַׁר	see רֹשָׁיָר
אַחִימוֹת	85 ^b	אָרזֶבֶל	1675 ^b	אָרתַר	1543 ^b
אַחיבֶלֶן	85ª	אֵרדָּ)	אָרתִראֵל	1543a, b
אַחִיבֵּן	}84 ^b	אַרכָה	1438 ^b	אָיתָמָר	1543a
אַחַימָן		אַיכָכָה	J	אַרתָּן	1010h. 1227h
אַחִיבַעץ	84 ^b	אָר־כָבוֹד	1446 ^b	يغرثار	(1014", 1007"
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אַח <i>ָ</i> יתפֶּל		מירון אַרלן	939a; 2949a		1442 ^b
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אַתַר	376a; 1121b	אַרלָם אַרלָם			2188b; 2189a;
אַחַר	83b; 86a; 2865a	יָבְּיִב אֵיל פָּארָן			2389 ^b ; 2949 ^a ; 3034 ^a
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with the same of t	80°; 86°		2830ь		927 ^b ; 1264 ^b ; 1267 ^a
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אַתשָׁרשׁ		אַרמִים		אֶלְדָעָה	
אַדַשְּׁתְּרִי אַדַשְׁתְּרִי			1467a; 1821a	אָלָה	56a; 767a; 1265b;
titiming	547 ^b ; 548 ^a ; 1423 ^b ; 2093 ^b	אָרעָזַר אָרפָה	1	אֵלָה	2172 ^b 916 ^b ; 2171 ^a ; 2407 ^a ;
אָטָד	317a; 2974a	אַפָּה	7.3U8U* ·	_	2949ª
•	1111ª		145a; 593a; 819b;		1265 ^b
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	1865a		1279°; 1432°; 1442°; 1508°;		1879a; 2475b
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אַנֶּה	88a; 477b; 1091b;		209b; 1070a		1533°; 1779°;
	1548°; 1814°	אָישׁ־טּוֹב	1911 _g		2835b; 2961a

2,12,12		
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if j と 1779b; 2012b	אַלִּישָׁע 934º; 1743º	אָקינָה 3047 ^b
לרל 541b; 939b	9376 אֱלִרשָׁפְט	אָבוּלץ 120b; 125b
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2082a; 2171a;	□>¾ 474 ^b ; 882 ^a	אַמְינוֹן see אַמִינוֹן
2172b; 2407a,b; 2902a; 2949a;	אָרלָם see אָלָם	אָמן; 766°; 1088°; 2170°; 2556°;
3128a	אַלְמָה see אָלֶם	2871 ^b
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לוש בוובי אַלוּשׁ	אָלְמָה ²⁷⁵² ² אָלֶם	عَمْدُك
940° אֶּלְזָבָד	100° אַלְמוֹדָד	אָמרנָה see אָמֶינָה
ליד, אַלַדו אָלַד 1110b	פֿעלָדָּ 976 אַלַּמֶּלֶדְּ	ו ארירוד
928° אֶלְחָנֶן	3084° אַלְמָנָה	אַבְיינוֹן 118º
9286 אֱלִראָב	אַלָּד see אָלֵּד	בּקרָנָם 1823°; 2872°
929 אַליאָל 929	אַלוני see אָלני	724 724b
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تخزیشت عربیشتر تخریمشت	_	ו אמציה
929 אֵלִידָּד	פֿאַלְנָתָן 939º אָלְנָתָן	אַמַאָּיָרְהּרָּ } 114°
928 אָלְיָדָע	938 אָלָסָר	אָבֵיר 210°; 340°; 588°;
	אָלְעָד 924b	591°; 1484°;
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אַליָּדה }65°; 930°	939• אֶּלְערּזַר	2459⁴ אֹמֶר
אָלְיָּהוּ	אַלְעָזָר 924ַь	٦፮፟፠ 1822♭
אַלירהנא ₃₀₀ אַלירהנא	پرلوره 1944 (پرلوره	ገ ጋጽ 1458 ^b
E 11 1 2 2 2 2	ۿڔٝڎڗٮ	אָמְרָה) אַמְרָה
אַלְיְהוֹעֵינֵי (אֶלְיְהוֹעֵינֵי (אֶלְיְהוֹעֵינֵי (אַלְיְהוֹעֵינֵי	קלְעָשָׂה 923°; 939 ^b	28396 אֶבֶירָה
אָלְיוֹעֵרנֵי (אֶלְיוֹעֵרנֵי	קֿלֶּאָ 583b; 734a; 882a;	1466° אָמְרֵר
929° אָלְרַחְבָּא	912^{a} ; 927^{b} ; 1056^{a} ; 1799^{a} ; 2793^{a} ;	יור אַמֹרִיר 119º
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923 אַכִּימֶלֶדְּ	פֿאַלְפּֿגַל 939 _°	126° אַמְרָפֶּל
929 אֶלְיָסָתּ	אָלִיצָפָן see אֶלִיצְפָן	1088 ^b ; 2414 ^a ; 3025 ^a
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929 אֱלֶּרְעֵרְרֵרָ	938° אֶלְקְשִׁר	117° אַמְתַּר
929 אֱלִיעָם	939 אֶלְתּוֹלֵד	is see ins
934 אַלִּיפַד	arkappa $arkappa$ $arkappa$ $arkappa$	ا پېږې } الم
923b אֱלִימֶּל	אָלְתְּכֵּה ⁹³⁹ ני	אַפָּרוּ
934° אַלִּיפְלֵהוּ פּ	פּפּפּ אֶלְתַּלְןּ	אָנָה 495º; 1354b; 2512º
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אַלרּעָפָּן (אֵלריעָפָּן ₃₈₈)	□\$ 663b; 778a; 2092a;	ארכר see אנר
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בּוּ־נָּכָר	435 ^b	בַּעַל הָנָן		בּקּקא	
בָּוּ־דָּקָר	434a	בַעַל חָצוֹר		בּקּקה	592b; 593a; 673a;
فؤثيا	145b; 527a, b; 1968a;	בַּעַל הֶרְמּוֹן		1	734°; 2406°; 2407°; 3045°
	2894ь		347 ^b	E54	941 ^b
<u>בּוֹרָב</u>		בִּעֵלִירַע			1472b; 1799a; 2710a
בַּכַּרִר		דַּינְיָּגָי בְּעַלְיָה			583b; 584a
בָּוְ־זוֹתֵת		בְיֵּיְלִיס בַּעֲלִיס		1	798 ^b ; 1375 ^b ; 2082 ^b
<u>څ</u> اريندر		בַבֵּיִּ ט בַּעַל מְעוֹן		1/2-	2083°
בָּוְ־חַיִּל				בּקרֵת	2704a
בּוֹבַינוֹל	438ª	בַּעַר פְּעוֹר		1	1472 ^b
<u> څا_</u> ٺون	438ª	בעל פּרָעִים		, ,	667°; 668°; 2041°
בָּנֶר	382b; 383a	בַעַל צְפוֹן		1	433 ^b
ו בְּפִר	528 ^b ; 2835 ^a	בַעַל שָׁלִשָּׁה		בָּר	1
. בהכר)	1 2 1	347ª	בַּר	
בַּנֵר־בְרַק	434a	בַּצְלַת בְאֵר		_	145b; 612b; 613b
בּנָיָה	527ª	בַּעַל הָמָר	348ª		738a, b; 1046a
ַ בְּלֶרָה	434ª	1	348a		1202a; 1968a
ַ בְּ כָּרָהוּ	404	l .	348ª	פֿלאָרָ ו בְּלאַרָּוּ	}2036 ^b
בַּנֵר נַצְּקוּ		בָּעַר	526 ^b	1	
בַנִים		בַּעַר	1125ª	1	see בֵּרת בִּרְאָר
בָּכְרָבִירן	438a	בַּצְרָא	348 ^a	בֿרָאיָה	
בַּכָרכה		בַּעִשָּׁא	348 ^b	1	1143s
בֿרָעָא		בַּעַשׂירָה	348a		1319b; 2405a
בּנְעָה	} 474 ^b	בֹץ	2000a	בֿרַד	439 ^b
בּוְ־עַמִּר בָּוָ־עַמִּר			2000 ^a	چَرت	612b; 613b
בָּסוֹדְיָ ה		1	459 ^b	ۋرىنڭ	407a; 487a
	440 ^b		1 3050a	ברושו	512b; 1111b
	2838a; 3050a		1 1122°; 2196°	ברוֹת	1111 ^b
•		בְּצַלְאֵל בָּצַלְאֵל			
• •	494 ^b			ברוֹתָה בּוֹתַי	∫ ^{440°}
	2358 ^a		$\left\{\frac{1}{1}\right\}$ 417a		478ъ
בָּערּכָה	458b; 1997a	i 917代学会	7 *	1	

בַּרְזֶּל	341b; 1348a; 1492a;	בּשָׁת	346a; 612a; 700b;	בַּבַּר	1150 ^b
22777	2181°; 3027°		1595 ^{a, b} ; 2748 ^a ; 2961 ^a	בָּבִים בִּ	1180 ^b
בּרְזַכֵּי	4	בַּת	210a; 663b; 2045a;	וְּבִרנָה וּבְרנָה	1123ь
•	1086b; 1148a		2554b; 3001a	ּבְרִעַ	511 ^b ; 2525 ^b
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ן בּּרִיתַ					511a
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-	309a; 404a		444 ^b ; 1972 ^b		1180 ^b
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• •	244b; 440a; 460b;	בָּתרוֹן			1180ъ
·	699a; 727a; 728a,b;	בַּת־שֶׁבַע בַּת־שֶׁבַע		נבן .	
	729b; 730a; 731a; 746a; 2556b;	בַת־שׁוּעַ		پَچَر	1150°; 1180°; 1392°; 1945°; 2013°
	3008b			ַּגְרָעָא ַ	12ª
בברנת			۲	ַּגְרָעָה גַּרְעָה	1392а, ь
1 기상	22 ^b ; 485 ^b ; 487 ^a ; 1815 ^a		2875 ^b	ַּגְרָעָּה בּרְעָּה	724 ^b ; 1224 ^b ; 1225 ^a ; 2082 ^a
17 2	1815ª	בְּאַרּאֵכ ֹ		ברעלי	1225b; 1392b
¥Ĵ	1815 ^a	1	1050°; 2875°		494 ^b ; 1120 ^b
בָּרַכְאֵל	402 ^b	1 1 1	1050a; 2875b		1225 ^b
בְּרָכָה	439 ^a ; 487 ^b ; 658 ^a ; 1881 ^a ; 2419 ^b	الثقاد	340 ^b ; 1272 ^b ; 1683 ^b ; 1810 ^a ; 2022 ^a ;	- •	1050a
ברכה	658a; 1117a; 1610b;	L	2416a; 2530a, b	پ چר	145ª
' '₹ ⊹ं⊤	1808 ^a ; 2419 ^b ; 2791 ^a	283	16 ^a ; 2506 ^a ; 2555 ^a ; 3036 ^a	ڸ۫ڿڔ	145°; 1180°
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בָּרָע <i>ַ</i>			2530b		see גְבוּרָה
•	1235°; 1892°; 2859°	يي	411°; 505°; 941°; 2594 ^b		1151 ^a
,		<u> </u>	1390 ^a		1821 ^b ; 2067 ^a
ברנה בֿנֿל		<u> </u>	417a; 568a	1	1224 ^b
בַּרָקוֹס		בַּב	1907ь; 1908ь	ż	1437ª
	2974ª	וב	000h. 1951.		710 ^a
,	2856 ^b ; 2857 ^a	גוב	829b; 1251a	1	1152^{a}
<u>خُ</u> لَاد	667 ^b ; 668 ^a ; 1143 ^a ; 1981 ^b ; 2506 ^b		568a; 1985b; 2000a	בָּד	1151°; 1152°
בָּרְשֵׁע	477ь		1049 ^b	1	3007b
בְּשׂוֹר	441 ^a		1050a; 1369a	ַּבָּדְבָּדָר <i>ָ</i> ה	769 ^b
	494a; 2256b	גָּבֹהָ יריי	1390°		see נְּדרּד
בִּשָׁלָם		נָברהַ יכרל		בַּרָה ייי ייי	
בָּעָיֹם		7112	503°; 511°; 1826°; 1894°		see הַבָּר גַּרָה
	381b; 2178b; 2544b;	גָברּלָ ה	503a; 511a; 672a;		382ª
בַּשִׂמָת	2818 ^a ; 2840 ^a	גְּבָלָה בּהוֹר	J 1826 ^b 145 ^a ; 255 ^b ; 312 ^b ;	בְּרַרָּר	254b; 1150b; 1152a
	411a	, ,,	491a; 593a; 1224b;	ַנְּדָרָה בְּיָרָה	J
			1264b; 1267a;	בָּדוּל ו	724a; 1294a; 1389b;
•	2039a		1308 ^a ; 1570 ^b ; 1606 ^b ; 2189 ^a ;	בָּדל) 2026°; 2441°
144	287b; 1118b; 2433a; 2813b; 2814a;	גַבוּרָה	3045 ^b	נְּדִּנְיה נְדִּנִיה	}X49 ^a
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4 1 1 100.00	BOO 17 7 1 - 7	1 477		1 1190	500

ּבְּדִיר	1248ь; 1797ь	וֹּרָה	3083a	ַּנְלָה '	65a; 459a; 852a;
בָּוָדר בָּוָדר	1153a	<u>בּרר־בַּעַל</u>	1310ь		1052°; 2196°; 2415°; 2581°, b
हुरूट	1153a	ן ברש	GGOb	ו בּלה	
בַּדִּראֵכ	1153ª	ל בָּרשׁ	669ь	בלא בלא	2581a
בְּרָיָה בּרְיָה	383a	TĀ	2093a	בלה בלה	see גּוֹלֶה
لإنش	1249ª	فأثر	3007ь	גלה	1
וּבַל	522b; 1050a; 1965a, b	בֿדַד	769b; 2415b; 2751b	ברלה.	1231ь
בְּדִל	1146 ^b	בָּדֵד	1179ь	גלה	511ь
בּהַל	1226 ^b ; 2157 ^a	בֿוַל	704b; 747b; 3051a	' בְּלֹדִּל	
בָּדֹל	see גָּדוֹל	בּזַם	1473a; 1907b; 1908b;	בּלָל	\61%
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לְּדַלְיָה	1181a		1180 ^a		2751ь
צּבּלְּהִיר	1226 ^a		862b		1234a; 2597a,b;
בָּרַע	316b; 769b		1179b; 1222a	בּלִירוֹ	
בִּרעוֹן	1226b; 1228b	·	2936*	בָּלִרל	
בּדְעֹנִי	1228ª	י בּוְרֵי בּרוִי	1233a	בְּלִרלָה	1121a; 1163a; 2594b
בָּדַה	485 ^b		see גרחוֹן	בְּלִילָה	
בָּדַר	669b; 1106b; 2007a	בייין בַּתוֹן			1167b; 1183a; 2377a
ۋڙاد	1181ь	1	see גיקול	1	1167ª
בְדֹיר	1182°	ינָּבוּל הייייי	Pec in a	בָּלְיַת	1276 ^b
בְּדוֹר	1102		671 ^b	בָּלֵל	688a; 2597a; 3081b
בָּדֵר	1106 ^b ; 1366 ^b ; 1367 ^a	ַ דַּטַלָּת בָּטֶלָת	071-	בָּלֶל	1154ª
וְּבֶרֶה	2757 ^b		, 1153 ^ь	בּלֵלֵר	1229ь
וּלֶבֶרָ ה	1181 ^b ; 1366 ^b ; 1367 ^a	1	1153 ^b	בַּלִבורד	
לְּדֵרוֹת	1181 ^b		see גוֹר	בַּלְעֵד	897a; 1163a; 1229b;
لأتاذر	1181 ^b	1	1153b; 1394a; 1909a;		1350b
נְּבֵרוֹתֵים גְּבֵרוֹתֵים	1182ª	בָּר		1	1229b; 1231a; 2068b
فإثي	766 ^b	_	2804b	1	1983°; 2475°; 3126°
<u>ڊ</u> ٺي	2026a		1228 ^b	1	242a; 2627a
	1442 ^b		1162ª	l , ·	765ª
_	1250a; 1907b; 1908b	בְּרל)	בַּמָּד	1173 ^b
	1273°	ברל) [/hha	בְּמַרְל במרל	435a
בָּרָה			see גלה	בְּבֵּרְיכִ בְּבִרִּלָה	445 ^b ; 1173 ^b
גרָדָר	1290ª	בּרכַרת	1232a	1	1231 ^b
ברר :	1215°; 1341°; 2319°	בָּרר	591a; 1893b; 2408a	1	511a; 3076b
בר	,		see 73	1 .	
	492a; 722b	בּרשָׁדָּ	1219ь		547 ^b ; 584 ^a ; 1339 ^a
	1273°; 2980°, b	בַּל	1350b; 3081b		1183 ^b
גּוֹלֶ ה	(1)09", 000 , 1004	בְּלָא	see בְּלָה	ַבַּמְלִראָל י	
בַּלָ ה	},	בּלָב	1320ь		1276ь
•	1273 ^b	וּלִבֹעַ	1229 ^b	וְּכֵּרְרָה וְּכֵּרְרָה	(1100)
•	1310 ^b	1	2597ь; 3082ь	ָּהְבָּרֶרָדּהּ בְּּכֵּירְרָדּהּ	
-	848 ^b		1163a; 1231a; 3082b;		1174a; 1808a
בּרּפָה	492a; 722b		see also בֿרת הַגּּלְנָּל		748°; 2972° 2972°
	1310b; 1895a; 2467b;	גְּלִגֹּלֶת	1275a; 1348a; 2415b;	1	748a
7,4			2416 ^a ; 2814 ^b	1	1215 ^b
גרר	1895ª	€ \$٦ ا	2813 ^b ; 2814 ^a	ا <u>، تمارغ</u>	±#**€

تَقِيّ \$1174 ع	1219 בַּרְשׁוֹרָ	2422 ^b ; 2459 ^a ; 2534 ^b ; 2581 ^b ;
بغفي	ካካወች 522°; 1219 ^b	2839 ^b ; 3105 ^a
724 182b; 518a; 554b; 560b	77103 269b; 1220a	ֶּדֶבֶּר 2094b; 2348a; 2403a; 2405a
לֶנֶלֶן מַנֶּלֶן נְנֶלֶן מַנְיַלָּן מַנְיַלָּן מַנְיַלָּן מַנְיַלָּן מַנְיִילָּן מַנְיִילָּן	口切录 492a; 1175b; 1219b; 2525b; 2781a	בבטק דְבִיר see דְבָר
3007 לְבָּכַדּ	٦٣٠ (1175 ; 1219 عَلْمُ عَلَّمُ عَلَيْمُ عَلَيْمُ عَلَيْمُ عَلَيْمُ عَلَيْمُ عَلَيْمُ عَلَيْمُ عَلَيْمُ عَلَيْ	יי פון אין אין פון פון פון פון פון פון פון פון פון פו
키다카 3007 ^b ; 3008 ^{a, b}	رَيِّرَةُ 1280°، 1281°	דְבֹרָה see דְּבֹרָה
נְּנְתוֹן וּנְתוֹן וּנְתוֹן	×pwi 1232°	יין אין אפר יין בין מון 2774 ^b
לְבָּקְתוּרִי } בּבְּתוּרִי }	지철 1177º; 2045º; 3086♭	אָרָר 843 ^b
1248 לעָה	וַנַת הַחָפֶר	יְּבְיְרָת 776°, דְּבְרַת
לָעֵל 6b; 818a; 2541a	לְּהָה הַפֶּר 1178ª; 1232ª	יביי 1123°; 1418°; 2237°;
לַלַל 1150°	ጉጋ 1232°; 2095°	3050a
ገ ጀቅ 2535°	1232•	រាឃុំឆ្មា 528°; 776°
בּעָרָה 2535°	2488 נְּתִית	77, 776 ^b ; 777 ^a ; 1114 ^b ;
עַעַלַ 1150°	לֶּהֶל 1221 בָּהֶר	1115a; 3082b
בּלְהָם 11756	יבת־רְפוֹלְן 1178°; 1221b	ቫርት 1114 ^b ; 1115°; 3082 ^b
1390°		776 ^b ; 2389 ^b
[한] 2237b; 2821b; 3049b	2399ь דָאָבוֹן	יהָל (310b; 3070b
קבּוֹ 1279 ^b	577 קאָג ק	720b; 722a
לְּפְרִית 522b; 1279b	ודאב	בּר 2813 בְּנַר 2813 בְּנַר
בר 2467 ⁶ ; 2468 ^a ; 2556 ^b ; 2866 ^a 2866	8676 דראַג	77 2923b
גרר see גר	ַדּאָנָה 577ь; 1354°, ה	1248 בְּרָה
1217 בֿרָאַ	កង្កុះ 477 ^b ; 1121 ^a ; 3062 ^b	ן יְּדָנֶה [יְדְנֶה \$816 ^b
בּרֶב 2706⁴	קאָה see קאָה	816 הְּלֶנִם 816
בָּבֶב 1175⁴	□ □ 1 417b	ו אבררת
מַרְנְּרוֹת 2129 בַּרְנְּרוֹת	コラオ 818*; 2814b	אָרָבָּים {867⁵
ּבְרְבְּשִׁר 1232 בְּרְבְּשִׁר	7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	を 19 ^b
הָלָה (605b; 1217b; 3081a	423°; 813°; 1423° [דבֹרֶת	דּמָג see דּרֹמֵג
גור see גֹרָה	ו הביל:	⊐গ্ৰ 2399 ^b
לְּרֵלֹיָ 2093°; 2129°	8726 מֶרִירוֹן	הב see דוֹב
יָּבְרֹדְ	לביר (604 ^b ; 813 ^b ; 1405 ^{a,b} ; 2198 ^b ; 2930 ^b ;	1115 ^b تَرْد
ברות (1219 ^b ; 1470 ^a	21986; 29306; ביר 2931a,b; 2932a; ביר 2931a,b; 2932a;	নিট্নন 1116°; 1419°
1218° בְּרַדִּים	2933b; 2938b	777 \432b; 1981a; 2555a;
נְּזְרֵי see נְּרְזִי	843b דּלְלָּה 1100b 1100b 1400c	¬¬¬ 3035°
341°; 2998 ⁶	1109 ^b ; 1122 ^b ; 1426 ^a אַנְלֵים 843 ^b	ገስጥ 412 ^b ; 413 ^a ; 541 ^a ; 1793 ^b ; 2423 ^a
قِرَط عُلَّادِ عَامَةً عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْ قَرْمُ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَل	בִּית דְּבָלָתַיִם see דְּבְלָתַיִם	לָּנָרָ }
ַנֶּטֶּ בּ בּרְבִיר 1175 בּרָבִיר	PDJ 668b; 1338a	ئۇرىي ئەرىي
בּיְבֵּי 1775 בּיִבְּי 606°; 722°; 2196°;	2821 בָּבֶּק	הוֹדָה 332 ^b ; 2555•
2975 ^b	יי יי ברק 1121b; 1338º	ੀ ਸੀਸ 867 ⁶
נָרוֹן see נָרוֹן	יבר (174 ^b ; 1253 ^a ; 1983 ^a ;	הוֹדֶנָהוּ 867 ^b
ブ ユュ 849º	2112a; 2198b; 2411a; 2459a;	1981 הרבר
לְרֵר 605₺	2411"; 2459"; 2515a; 2550b	867b הוֹדֵי
לֶּרֶר 1217 ^b	קבר (5a; 423a; 496a; 533a;	וּרָהְ 1468⁴
#בוֹע 1219° בּבּע בּבּע בּבּע בּבּע בּבּע בּבּע בּבּע בּבּע בּבּע בּבּע בּבּע בּבּע בּבּע בּבּע בּבּע בּבּע בּ	577 ^b ; 679 ^b ; 730 ^a ; 789 ^b ; 817 ^a ; 883 ^b ;	777 2783a, b
1049 לְּלֶשֶׁה	905°; 1439°;	2506b; 3072b
1219 בּרְשׁׁם	1982a; 2009a; l	<u> </u>

קורד see דור	פּלִילָה 820⁵	788 בּרָבַע
1419•; 1839 הּוֹכְּיפַת	ַ בַּלְבֶּה 513⊳	רַדָּר 2974°; 2975°
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ַבָּמָשֶׂק see דּרְמָשֶׁק	דּלְעָן 849°.	יי (1881 אָרוֹר 1881 אָרוֹר 1881 אָרוֹר
3075 ^b	778° דַּלְפּוֹן	ַּלְרָנֶנֶשׁ 788° בְּלְרָנֶנֶשׁ
ገም 381°	יייי 1107°; 1468° דָּבַּק	קרף 1248°; 2975°
717)	ייין 1107°, 1468° בּלֶּקָת 1107°; 1468°	ন্টুর 706°; 769°; 799°;
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1990 1990s	1861 ^b ; 3122 ^b	2200b; 2263a;
הור 869 ^b ; 1326°	□¬ 488b; 490a; 675b;	2411°; 3075° 788°; 2077°
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ן הרש	2404°; 3050°	, ,
בּרֹשׁׁל 2511b; 2975b; 3156a	「	ブララ 788*
קֿרטֿי /	ן 145b; 146a; 1098b;	789 בּרְקוֹן
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1469º דְּרַלְ		אליבון איין 870 ₪
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% ⊃७ 526 ^b	766°; 1815°; 2191°; 2581°; 2702°	2822ª
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ארן און אין אין ארן ארן ארן ארן ארן ארן ארן ארן ארן אר	וְדְרְבוֹן 1248 הָרְבוֹן 1248 הַ	নভূতন 1006°; 1314°

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	רַנָת	see הָרָא	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	see קמון	,	3128b; 3134a
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	הוֹהָם	1403ª	הַמְנִידְּ הַמְנִידְּ		וְבַּדְיָה יִבַּדְיָה	(0140", 0100"
	דולר	78 ^b	ביהי וי המרכה	(009"	וְבַּוֹינָה <i>וּ</i>	
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	רולך	2590ь		1393 ^a ; 2628 ^a		3128 ^b
	הוֹשָׁבָע	1431°; 2759b		1374 ^b	זְבוּל	
	הוֹשָׁעַ	1424°; 1431°; 1743°;		594°; 706°; 1147°	זָבָל	J
		2202ª		see אָלֶלְפּוֹנִי	יְברּלרּךְ 	
	הוֹשֵׁצְיָה		* * * *	see Yip		1623a; 3135a
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	ਜ਼ਾਹ	1087 ^a ; 1204 ^b ; 1254 ^b ; 1267 ^b ; 1336 ^a ;		1392 ^{a, b}	זְברּלֹנִי 	
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•	הַרכָל	1405b; 1438a; 2208a;		288a; 746a; 2094a	זבר	3128 ^b
		2930 ^{a,b} ; 2931 ^{a,b} ; 2932 ^b ; 2933 ^b ;		5a; 696a	יַב זָבִידָה	
		2935b; 2938b	הַרִיסָה		1	3134°
	דינקל	800a		1421 ^b		3135a
	ביכָּוֹן	1374ь		1337a	1	see זְבוּל
	הָירָ	1393°; 3080°		517a	1	
	يَوْرَت	2767ª	່ວລໍລໍ	302a; 665a,b; 1491a; 1492a	1	see זברלרן
	הַל	459°; 1141°; 1395°	יָרָר יִ	1392 ^b	1	1153b
	הָלְאָּה	4595, 1141-, 1595	֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓		1	1793 ^b
	הַלִּיכָה	3075ь	1	1337a		2438b
	הלה	522b; 706a; 1051b;	הַאּרָרי	1		1106a
	, •	1121b; 1141a;		1342^{a}	71	111b; 709a; 1087b; 1274a; 2045a;
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	הלו	3007ь		2072b	ם ביוֹם	3131 ^b
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		491a; 587a; 680b;			זר	2411 ⁿ
	- *	1105a; 1239a;		٦	17	see 777
		1323°; 1445°; 1941°; 1960°;	וֹכָוֹ	3046^{b}		1542ь; 2399ь
		2256b	יָהֵב יָהָ	2871b; 3044a	זוֹב	1542 ^b

ן זהד 2438 ^b	ן זְמוֹרֶה	חַבָּן 3146₺
777 / 2400	זְמֹרָה 513b; 2156a; 2818a	ַּרְתִּל 3147⁴
לדְּרָם 3159⁴	ן זְבוֹר	מְּרָתְיָהְ 3147°
ההֵת 3155°	מַלִם 3132 בַּקְלֹם	□╗; 1120°; 2781°; 2929b
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777 2525a	ן זָמָר	יָרָע 246 ^b ; 2501 ^b
777 2108b; 2865a; 2866b	זְמָרָה ³¹⁴³ ° זְמָרָה [ערע 580°; 2712°; 2982°
⋈ ग़ॕॗ 3133ª	וְזְמִירֶה וֹ	יבע 2519 ^b
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3109ª	קבר 592 ^b ; 2429 ^a	יייי ודריע
אַקּלָת 3וַקּלָת 3וַקּלָת	ֿלֶּכֶּר 592º; 1249º; 3149º;	1122°; 2501b בָּרָעוֹן
ירר 541b; 724a; 3153a	3155 ^b ; 3156 ^a	יריע see זריער
דיז 17 ⁶ ; 3084°	זָּמָיר see זָמָר	PŢ 2846b
ሽርን፣ 3084°; 3153°	זמרר, see זמר	יבר 762°; 2819 ^b
זי ו ה 3153°	זְּמְרָה 441b; 2029b	ער דר 3147°
זיק א 3153° זיקא	זָמָיר see זְמָרָה	ברת 2838 ^b ; 3079°
7 3148 זיע	וְמוֹרָה see וְמֹרָה	እትጥ <u>፲</u> 3133°
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וְ זִיקָה .	2903ء پُرَتِ	
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Ρ <u>Ι</u>]	2525 ^b	סוב 504 ^b
ከ <u>ተ</u> 1122 ^b ; 2181 ^b ; 2184 ^a ;	ַ זָּכוֹתָ 3132°	1402 הֹבָב
2185 ^b	ַלָּרָךְ 1426°	¬¬¬ 1586°
. זֹרְתָּן 3148º	זעָה 2874ь	778- הַבּוּלָא
קה ה-668 קבר 1470 ⁶	זְעָרָן 3128 בּ	לבוֹר (599⁴; 1313 תְבוֹר
•	न् रा 1069°	ا توزن
709°; 764°; 1232°; 2860°; 2862°	קֿעַם 819°	ַלָּרָה ∤526 בּּבָּה
רד 1971 ^b	קֿעַד 11456	ب خئ ا
קרר 3128b; 3129a	₽₹ 764°	בְּלָה } 1311a; 1402b
3128b; 3129a	កាភ្ញុំ 242°; 2401°; 2817°	שַבָּבָת
קבָן 522b; 1971b; 2557a;	PI or PI see TPT	לבל 2179º; 2408º; 3007º
3128a; 3134a	71°; 130°; 131°; 418°; 923°; 1287°;	$(382^{a}; 672^{a}; 709^{b};$
77. 2030b; 2557a; 2701b;	2183 ^b ; 2719 ^b	724°; 981°; 1344°; 1894°; 2207°, °;
3140 أَيْرُ	וְאָנָ 71°	בּבֶּל 2422b; 2623b;
קרָ 1106b; 1971b	PP! 2044°; 2506°; 2545°	2836 ^b
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2538° זכָרָר 149° זכָרָר	אָרֶבְּכֶל 3147º	2408 בלל
\	דר 3132b; 3147a	יותבקה אפוני פודאף פודיי
ַזְּכַרְּלָהְ 3135°; 3136°	1097b; 1456b; 2864b	לבל 421°; 2774b; 2775° מבל 2775° מבל 2775°
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ּ זְלְעָפָּה	ا بَرْحِہ ا	1311º בקוק הבקוק הבקוק הבקוק
לקה 3149ь	יְרוֹעָה see יְרוֹעָה	727 691°; 724°; 942°
745b; 747a; 953a;	וַרְזִיר 868º	קבֶּה פֿ91º; 942º; 1354º; 1964º; 2079º
1880b; 3083b; 3149b	יַבֶּת 2773 יַבָּת	קבֶּר 1106a
1	· "T	

בַּרְלָּכָה 2846 בַּבְרְלָּכָה	ַהַּלְּחֵ 1419º; 1441º; 2972º;	1346 בְּוֹנֶה
מְבְרָה 1106°	2974° П)П 2974b	1388°; 2588° הַּזְירֹן
קברוֹן 1365°; 1366°	1	יוֹדְיוֹן 2581°; 3045°; 3057°
ל תַּבְרוֹנִי _{בּבָר} וֹנִי (בְּבָּרוֹנִי	1110a	1892 ^b קוֹליז
ן מֻבְרֹנָי ⅓1366	ገባ 128a; 1402a	קזיר 491°; 1339°; 2875°
1354 תֻבְרִי 1354 בּי	1345° חֲלִילָה	1388 הַזִּיר ווּ
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2237 קבת	בורל (מביל 2207a, b; 3007a, b	747 ^b ; 1337 ^b ; 1338 ^a ; 2558 ^a ;
(11020.11020.12170.	1439 חול 1439	2569 ^b ; 2871 ^b ;
2257°; 2639°, b;	2458 ^b ; 2688 ^b	$3045^{\rm b}$
à⊓ (2822°	מרקיה 1137°; 1140°	. 1402 תוְקר
1316°; 1907'ь; 1908° הָּלֶב	2402 בורס	ן הַזְּלַבָּה
يرفخ ي }1316ء	จาก 672°; 1344°; 2779°	חוֹקלָּהוּ וֹיִנְקּיָהוּ וֹיִנְקּיָהוּ
بأخران	חוּפְם 1441 הוּפְם	ן הווקקי (1385°; 1402°
ַלְגָל 587°; 1103°; 1405°;	23°; 1136°; 1446°;	ן יְתִזְּקיָהוּ ן
2822° הגור ן	ן אָדְן 1811 אַדְן	⊓ঢ় \512 ^b ; 513 ^a ; 523 ^b ;
• •	קרר {340°; 676°; 1441°	1419°; 1441°
קלר : 254°	קר וווי אור	장한 321a, b; 668a; 1101b;
תגורה ביים	חוֹר } _{585°}	1929 ^b ; 2179 ^b ;
תְלֶרָה בַּיִּ	חֹר חֹר	2506 ^b 1101 ^b ; 1306 ^b
1319 בוגל	בֵּית חורון see חורון	•
יוּבֵּל 1317 מוּבֵּל	חורי see חורי	米 ヴロ 2179 ^b ; 2806 ^a
מַבְּיָה 1319⁴	676a; 1442a	一
1319 תַּגְּית	1388 ^b ; 1442°	1069°; 2020°; 2504°; 2639°; 2642°;
קבַת 1313b	1394b; 1442° הוּרָם	27986 תְּטָאָרוֹ
517 ^b	וְרָן 1344° מַוְרָן	1384 ^ъ קֿטָב
קֿרָרד 586°; 1315°	ชาก 1343°	<u> </u>
1126 חָדַל 1126	השָׁר 1443° הוֹשָׁה	កច្កា 1122°; 1789°; 3082b
₹3108 شثر	יער דורעור 1443°	ਘੋਰਘਰ 1343 ^b
יוֹדְלֵּר 1315 בוֹדְלֵר 1315 בוֹדְלֵר	ן תוּשִׁים	1343 חֲמִימָא 1343 מַמִּימָא
ַחֶּדֶׁק 1366 ^b ; 2974•	חָשִׁים ∤1443 מוֹשִׁים	1343 חַטִּיל
1388 ^b ; 2981 ^a	ا مشر ا	וַקייפָא 1343 ^b
קֿרָר (312b; 591b; 1455b; 1490b; 1998b	תרשָם }	פול 97°; 145°; 208°; 418°; 503°; 604°;
1490 , 1935 מַרְרָדָּ 1316°; 1421b	مَشِّم	739°; 1888°;
ייס די 1145 ^b	1434°; 2594°; 2708°	1889a; 1905b;
	_ <u>_</u>	1906°; 2189°; 2495°; 3009°;
ייִה 731°; 2140°	التنقر 1345ه	3084ª
ガラ 303ª; 1403ª; 2081ª; 2140ʰ; 2811ª;	لِيَانُ يَعْرِ	1266ء التربع
2982a	תְּדָהָ 2156a; 2411a; 2581a;	ا ترزب
កឃុំក្កុ 1314 ⁶	2712 ^b n;n 517 ^b	מיאָל 1389° היאָל
מבת 1314 ^b		789a; 1170b; 1171a;
1402 חובה	הֹוֶה 631b; 674a; 783b; 1152a; 1439a;	1337 ^b ; 2469 ^b ; 2471 ^a ; 2515 ^a ;
ארג 314b; 656b; 694b	1447b; 2581a;	2591a
קָּהָ 1266a	2713a	קָהָ 418b; 421b; 1888a;
つうり 599a; 1040a; 1266a;	תְּוָאֵל see תְּוָהאֵל	2515 ^a ; 2538 ^b ; 2558 ^a ; 2587 ^b
1345°; 3001°;	177 1347b	1905 קֿרֶה 1905 בֿרָיָה
3049b; 3083b	7777 2581°, b; 3057b	קרל (176a; 528a; 1137a;
יַלְּיר נָאָיר 411º; 1345º	בודה 2156°; 2581°	1140°; 2930°;
1439° חודי	ן הַוֹיאֶל 1347 הַוֹיאֵל	2937ه

				
	see הול	اخازر (الخازر) 1405ء	הַמּוֹר	$\begin{cases} 287^a; & 678^b; & 941^b; \\ & 1332^b; & 1350^b; \end{cases}$
תַּיִּכ	382a; 491a; 1127a; 1279a: 2590b:	וחכן	חַמר דַ	2052 ^b
	1279 ^a ; 2590 ^b ; 3005 ^a ; 3045 ^b ;	1437°; 2412°	חֲמוֹת	05560
	3057b; 3076a	1321ף בְּלַח	הַמֹת	} 2556ª
ַ תֵּילָם תֵילָם)	תלְלִי 854°; 1305°; 1306°; 2783°	הֹמֶט	1106 ^b ; 1906 ^a ; 1907 ^a ; 2688 ^b ; 2819 ^a
הלאם	1370 ^a	2095°; 2097° ה ליל	קּמְטָה	•
. •	1392ª	קלילָה (קוֹלִילָה 1097º; 1127º	הָמִיץ	
	182b; 554b	ىڭدۇك		695°; 2402°
תיק	•	לל 426°; 485°; 517°;	הַבְּלָּה	
מל	504b; 510b; 511a;	747^{b} ; 818^{a} ; 2458^{b} ; 3036^{a}		1324a
חלם	1839ª	לל 2458 קלל 2458 ב	l	1454 ^b ; 1533 ^b ; 2527 ^b
ק קייבה		חָלִילָה see חָלָלָה	, ,	3051°
הירם		874ª; 1370ª תֻּלֶּם 874 מֶלֶם		763 ^b ; 778 ^a
תיום	715945	יַלְמִרשׁ 1119ʰ; 2596٩		883b; 1122a; 1306a;
	2093a; 2917b	קלן 1374°	, /= /,	1832°; 2469°
	1116a; 1419a	סבֶר 593⊳	הֹבֶּיץ	3051a; 3087a
תַּכִּילָה תַּכִּילָה		רוב מוֹלֶם 1370°	חָבֵּר	287a; 676a; 1141b
בֿלג <i>י</i> נ הבּליי	1313 ^b	ייבר 1942º; 2553b	דוֶבֶּר	3086ь
<u>ה</u> בליל		וחלע	דַמַר דַמַר	3086ь
	2813 ^b ; 3089 ^a	1370 ליילין	דַמֹר	see דַמוֹר
•	336 ^a ; 765 ^b ; 766 ^a ;	יילין 1797b; 1917a,b	דוֹמֶר	667a; 1350b; 1418a;
ر ب. ا	783b; 789b; 2868a;	סֻלַּק 860⁴; 2422⁴		2000°; 2817°; 3080°
	3089a; 3098a	קלק 1468 ^b ; 2422 ^b	חמר	242a; 667a; 2401b;
ָדָּכְמָּה	1124 ^b ; 1541 ^a ; 2191 ^a ; 2471 ^a ; 2474 ^b ;	1322 תָּלֶּק	*	2817ь
	3089*; 3097*	1307⁴; 2247 הֻלְקָה 1307 מָלֶ		126a; 1374b
הַכְמוֹנִי	1313ь	לַקַר 1370 הַלְּקַר 1370	חָבִישׁ	} ₁₁₁₇ 6
תל	see הֵיל	ו חלמיה	تنخشد	}
הול	see חול	וֹקלְקְיָּהוּ 1370º; 1392º	_ `	2590a
ָדֶלְאָה	1369b; 2627a; 2706a	1370 חַלְקַת 1370 חַלְ	شكش	255a; 1340b; 2590a
חֶלֶב	441b; 1099b; 1101b;	ן װּלְפַתּ (נוּלְבַתּ	للخرشد	see קֹמֵשׁ
חלב	{ 1110 ^b ; 1294 ^a ; 1370 ^a ; 1999 ^b	1370 באָרִים 1370 באָרִים	המֶת	509b; 2814a; 3088a
	1123b; 2051b	128°; 1323°; 2069°; 2556°	בולית ביי	1324 ^b
- : :	1370° ·	□ 68 ^b ; 1352 ^a	הַמֹת	see חַמוֹת
	1370°	הַמָה see הַמָּא	בֿמַת	941a; 1325a
ָּהֶלְבִּנָ ּה		(חמאה	חַמַת דֹאר	1326a
	71a; 3108b	1123b; 2052a	מול	127 ^b ; 1102 ^a ; 1292 ^a ; 1374 ^b
בולֶד	1370°	קבר (433°; 820°; 1941°; 1942°	הוכדה	1374 ^b
הוֹלֶד	1106b; 1906a; 1907b;	אַרָּה 1942 קּמְרָה 832b; 2534b; 3074a	_	2948 ^b
	2074°; 3076°	1374 הַמְדָּן	1	136b; 1336a
	1439ª	(חמה		953°; 1336°; 1374°
	1370a	2415b; 2418a [בקא	1	1336ь
ינוליני	578 ^a ; 854 ^a ; 1305 ^b ; 1306 ^a ; 1468 ^a ;	הַבְּה 301 ^b	קינות	
	1675b; 2207a,b;	1326 קבראל	1	940a
<u></u> L	2783a	ו דוכיהריל (1336ª
	517a	13326 ביניטל	1	252 ^{a, b}
בילום הלום	1874 ⁸	1452 חַמּוֹן 1452	1	3005ª
הַלם	,	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	. 'g = ' _q '	

בוֹלכֿא	1617 ^b	חָפִץ	820a; 1343a; 3096b	חַצַר שׁוּעָל	1347ª
בולכֿע	816 ^b ; 1951 ^a ; 1952 ^a ;	מפֿגו	27b; 820b; 2408b;	מק	see תיק
ناؤم	1953a 1145a; 1471a; 2156b; 3063a	ָּ הָפָּצִי־בָהּ 		pin pin	706°; 769°; 883°; 1852°, b; 2016°;
ַדַנ ַ בְרָאָל			2074°; 2293°	757	2201 ^a 581 ^b
	1147 ^{a, b}	1	267a; 700b	1	769 ^b ; 2201 ^a
	1292b; 1490b; 2035b;	ľ	1375ª	בולנפֿא האליי	
	2402a		1375a	1	1289 ^b ; 1858 ^b ; 2156 ^b ;
	137ª; 1333ª	בַּבַנִם		PE';'	2702a; 2743a;
בונּלָאֵל	1333ª		1389ª		3119ª
בונני	1333a	הַפְּשׁרִת	(2/44)		2710 ^a
בונּנְיָה	}129ª; 1333ª	. הָפְשִׁית היי		י הַלַּק	1370b; 1439a
בֿוַבַּלְנָ <i>רוּ</i> וּ	,	1,0	252°; 789°; 1293°; 2746°	חוקק	
הָנֵס	1335 ^b	ייל	see Tin	1 4	2710a
בונת	818a;1270a;1445a,b;	בֿעַב	1905. 0007.		2710 ^a
בֿולפֿע	,3036 ^a	בו אב	}1385a; 2007a	. דור	see חוֹר
	1107a; 2866a	קצור ק	1347ь	ئر	see חור
	1336 ^a	המור חובשה	1347ь	ر ټره	see דּבְרוֹן
, .	1934 ^a	קצוֹת	2050^{a}	. בונר	
= -	747 ^a ; 1278 ^a ; 1279 ^a ;	ּתָּצָּיר	2050°; 2078°	מֶרֶב	252 ^b ; 341 ^b ; 1815 ^b ; 2012 ^b
, ≜.^.	1292°; 1781°;	בולגי ביליטונע	} _{1343^b}	חרב	815 ^a ; 833 ^a
	1799 ^a ; 1934 ^{a, b} ; 2035 ^b ; 2402 ^a ;	באָר בּמָנַהְמִּר	1949	1	1352a
	2555a	חָצִיר	1122a; 1293a; 1375a;	ָתְרָבָּה קרָבָּה	
ַדַּסַדְיָה	1342°		1864 ^b	ו חַרְבוֹנָא	l
بزؤب	1424 ^a	١ '٠٠.	504b; 1839a	חַרָבוֹנָה	1337ь
קסיד	1002a; 1270a; 1428a;	l	246 ^b ; 1839 ^{a, b}		425°; 745°; 1473°;
	1527 ^b ; 1540 ^b ; 2044 ^a ; 2658 ^b ;	· .	382a; 1293b 1293b		1907b; 1908a .
	2659 ^b ; 2661 ^b	חַבָּץ	1293°	דָרַר דָי	1145ª
	2863 ^{a, b}	םَגُק! שַׁמָּר הַגָּקוּ! שַׁמָּר	1347 ^{a, b}	בַּרָבָה	577b; 1337a
חָסִיל	583a; 1473a; 1907b;		305°; 1103°; 2095°;	בוריבי	1340 ^b
ברכל דירובל	1908 ^b 1907 ^b ; 1908 ^b	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , 	2097a	הָרָה	669b; 1145b; 1306a
•	2102 ^a	ئقَرَ)	תַרְהַיָּה	1339a
•	2422 ^b		1346 ^b	ָ בַּררּבָל	2140a
	2590b; 3007b; 3008a	הַצֹרֵר		ַדָּרֶל]=110
בוסש היייו		תָצֵר יוָ	725a; 1346b; 2889a; 2932b; 2933a;	חרון ו	see בֵּית חוֹרוֹן
•	439b; 1821a		3001°; 3049°	דַרוּמַה	1341 ^b
ַ הַסְרָה הַסְרָה		בוַאַר־אַדְר	1346 ^b	חַרוּפָּר	1341 ^b
ָּדֶסְרוֹן הַסְרוֹן		הַבָּר בַּּהָה			1111a; 1274a; 1341b;
	1471a	חַבר הַתּיכוֹן	1347 ^a	הַלָּא) 1967 ^b ; 2976 ^a
_	587a; 669b	. * *	1388 ^b	הַרְחוּר	1339a
	566 ^a ; 591 ^b ; 669 ^b ;	מֿאַרוֹּיָן	1388 ^b ; 1793 ^{a, b}	עַרָתַס	
	1441 ^b ; 1998 ^b	בֿאַרוֹנִי		דור ליר	1108 ^b
ביפֿורל	1343a	_	1347 ^b ; 1811 ^a	1	3119 ⁿ
אַפּים			340b; 1347a; 1790a		2297ь
	1334 ^b	֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֓		1	see חָרִים
, , ,	1421 ^a	חַצַר סוּסָה		-	1568a; 3125b
בופֿב	1344 ^b	חַצַר עֵינָן	1346^{b}	لتازر	see אֶרֶא

בור (דוֹרָי (128a; 1421b; 2154a;	טָרָשׁ	1376ь	הָתָּית	2949 ^b
לחוֹרָר 2974 ₪ בוֹרָרי	הַבָּשׁ	811ª	חַתַל	2874a
תְרִים } 377 ^b ; 748 ^b	דוֹרָשׁ	1132a; 1507b; 2781a	שלילנים	2874a
חָרִם יִּיּרִים יִּיִּרִים יִּיִּרִים יִּיִּרִים		1421 ^b	מיטקו	1384ь
דֵתֵר־יוֹנִים אַ אַרָאיוֹן דֵּתַאיוֹן דֵּתָאיוֹן	شرثه	580 ^{a, b} ; 1968 ^b ;		427a; 430a; 943a; 2708a
יוֹילינט (1339 בּוֹלִינט (1339	תַרְשָּׁא	1341a	חֹתֶם	see ⊐הָוֹת
ריץ } 1123b: 1341a: 2052a	1	594°; 1909°	يُرتِهُ!	66 ^a ; 1674 ^b ; 2525 ^a ; 2556 ^a
k_ir,		581b; 769b; 1341a	תַתַר	849a
יִרישׁ 886º; 1307º	1	1339a; 1377a	המת	15a; 523a; 594a;
אַס אַס פּאַס בּאַריִשָּׁר מַער	761,	765 ^b ; 766 ^a ; 840 ^a ; 9 4 0 ^a ; 1 0 0 5 ^b ;		700ь
יהָרָדְּ 1437º		1127b; 1456a;	בות	1343 ^b
הָרוּל see הָרָל		1462 ^b ; 2813 ^b ; 2972 ^b ; 2975 ^a		
בַּקַ 1117b; 1132a; 1341a	קשֶׁב			ರ
בּרֶם (15 ^b ; 34 ^b ; 130 ^a ; 767 ^b ;	חַשָּׁבַרָּנָה			1110 ^b
□ □ □ ₹ 816 ^b ; 840 ^a ; 1050 ^b ; 1256 ^a	הַשָּׁבָה		מַבְאַל	
םרֵב 1115°; 1421b	ָדֶילָק הָשָׁבּוֹן		מַבָּאֵל	2887ь
בר 1339°; 2553°	חַשַּׁבְיָה	1	טָבוּ ל	883 ^b
תרמה 1422°	ביבירות הַשִּׁבְיָהוּ	7134Z°	מַבַת	418 ^b
1378 הרמון	בֿומָּבלני בֿיבֿביי		מָבַת	418b; 2924a
1378° הֶרְמוֹנִים	בַּלְּלָה הַשְּׁבְּלָּלָה		הַבָּת	1307ь
בּרְמִשׁ 2784 הַרְמִשׁ		2293 ^b	מַבְתָּה	
1337° וּוֹרֶן		1342 ^b	מַבְתַת	2980ª
תָרוֹן see תָרוֹן		see חושום	טָבַל	851ª
1423° דורנד	,	1126 ^b	מָבַלְיָהוּ	2924a
1423 הרכים		789a; 2177b	טָבַע	2594a; 2743b
1340 תַּרְנָפֶּר 1340 בּיִרְנָפֶּר	1.1	2016 ^a	מַבָּעוֹת	2887ª
(301b: 452b: 665b:	1	1342 ^b	ದಿಕ್ಕೆಗ	2594°; 2708°
1341°; 1376°;		see הרְשָׁב	מַבָרמּוֹן,	2902ª
מַרְסָה 1491°; 2193°;	1	see הישורם	מבּת	541b; 2924a
קרָס 1543°; 2423°; 2425°	ַ הַשָּׁרָת יֻרָּשָּׁרָם		ಬತ್ತರ	2887 ^b
ו חרסות	הַשָּׁבּוֹרְ		טָהוֹר	
1341 מרסית		927 ^b ; 2044 ^a ; 2859 ^a ;	קה'ר	1007, 2000
קרָת 485b; 819a; 2525b;	7,56,7	2860ª	טָהוֹר	1235 ^b
3089ª	חַשָּׁמַן	2454 ^b	מָתַר	667a,b; 668a; 2506b
בּלְרָת 2710b; 2982b; 3089ª	חַשָּׁמֹלָה		מוֹב	441b; 511a; 600b;
ดาูกุ 1339≞	חשֶׁן	517b; 518a; 1060a;		1110 ^b ; 1277 ^a ; 1278 ^b ; 1279 ^a ;
לְרַלְּ 834ª; 1917ª		2442a; 3041a		1799a; 2990a, b
יורוץ see קרץ	1	584a; 852a	טוב	1087b; 1277a,b;
מְרְאָבָה 382°	ئشط	(1110°		1279ª
דָריץ see הָרץ	ششدط		מוֹב אֲדֹנְיָּהוּ	
קרְצַּן; 3050° הַרְצַּן;	1 1 1 1	see אַםְישׁרּפָא	מוֹבָיָה	}2924a: 2990a, b
1239 הָרַק		578°; 588°; 1293°	מוביהו	
555 00.47h, 2001h	ئشت	1443ª	1	2841a
לובר (2247 ^b ; 3001 ^b		1384 ^b ; 1395 ^b	<u> </u>	2408 ^a
יוּיָן 2247°; 5001° קרָשׂ 887ь				
שׁרֶשׁ 887 ⁵ ערָשׁ 1421 ⁵ ;1456°;2007°;		1113a; 1350b		1147°; 2392°; 2393°
אָרָ שׂ 887 ^ь	ئۇت		מהר	1147 ^a ; 2392 ^b ; 2393 ^a 1392 ^b 1490 ^b

הודף 9400 יוסים 1573 יוסים 1574 יוסים 1573 יוסים	מחו	1307°	יבוס	1573a	יְדוּתוּוְ	1
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1105			וָבָם	1442 ^b		766°; 851°; 852°;
1567s; 2073s; 2073s; 2073s; 2073s; 2073s; 2073s; 2074s; 2017s	· ·					
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שַּבָּי 1448° לְּבָּיִרְהִי 1574 שׁפָּל 1458 שִּבְּיִר 1448° שִּבְּיִר 1578 שִּבְּיִר 1578 שִּבְּיִר 1586 שִּבְּיִר 1578 שִבְּיִר 1578 שִּבְּיִר 1586 שִּבְּיִר 1588 שִּבְּיִר 1588 שִּבְּיִר 1588 שִּבְּיִר 1588 שִּבְּיִר 1589 שִּבְּיִר 1589 שִּבְּיִר 1589 שִּבְּיִר 1589 שִּבְּיִר 1589 שִּבְּיִר 1589 שִּבְּיִר 1589 שִּבְּיִר 1589 שִּבְּיִר 1589 שִּבְּיִר 1580 שִּבְּיִר 1580 שִּבְּיִר 1580 שִּבְּיִר 1580 שִּבְּיִר 1580 שִּבְּיִר 1580 שִּבְּיִר 1580 שִבְּיִר 1580 שִּבְּיִר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבְיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִבּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבִּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבּיי 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִּבְּיר 1580 שִבּבְּיר 1580 שִבּבְּיר 1580 שִ	ניפַח	1334 ^b			-	
ל 11326 בין 11326 בין 14486 בין 11326 בין 14426 בין 14	\vec{u}	2874*	יִבְשָּׁם	1446 ^b		
שַּמָּל 569*; 2000°; 3123° בּיִּלְּיִרְהִיּ 2005b; 2009° בוווי 2055b; 2009° בוווי 2111° בוווי 2836b בוווי 1695° בוווי 2533b בוווי 1558° בוווי 2533b בוווי 1558° בוווי 2533b בוווי 1558° בוווי 1559° בוווי 1558°	הֿפּֿרָ	1132 ^b	רִנְאָל	1448a		
ליקרי (1695 במול במול במול במול (1695 במול במול במול במול במול במול במול במול	טִפְּסֵר	569a; 2000a; 3123a				
ליבלי הור הור ליבלי הור הור ליבלי הור הור ליבלי הור לי	مُرقو	2055ь; 2909а	ּיָגְבְּהָה	1695ª	• •	
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רורה של 1861b; 2439a בילי (1875; 1778b בילי (1875) בילי (1878b בילי (1875) בילי (1878b בילי (1878c בילי (1878b בילי (1878c ב	مُذرد	2836ь	רֶבוֹן	1305b; 1306a; 2836b		
לבל שביק (150° בילור ב	مُدَو	2533ь	בָברּר <i>ר</i>	1558a	أعالاته	1586 ^a ; 1675 ^a ; 1778 ^b
לבל ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי	مْدُد	1861b; 2439a	רָגָרעַ	1819 ^b	أراسان أراسا	1675°; 1778°
בּלְר שׁנְּיִנְיָה בְּלֹה בְּלִר שְׁנְרִיּהְאָ בְּלִּה בְּלִה בְּלִּה בְּלִּה בְּלִה בְּלִה בְּלִה בְּלִיה בְּלִה בְּלִיה בְּיִבְיה בְּיִב בְּיִּבְיה בְּיבְיה בְיבְיה בְּיבְּיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְיה בְּיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְּיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְּיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְּיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְּיה בְּיבְּיה בְּיבְּיה בְּיבְּיה בְיבְּיה בְּיבְּיה בְּיבְּיה בְּיבְּיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְּיבְּיה בְּיבְיבְיה בְּיבְיבְיה בְּיבְיה בְּיבְיבְיבְיה בְּיבְיבְיה בְּיבְיבְיבְיבְיבְיבְיבְיב בְּיבּיבְיבְיבְיבְיב בְּיבְּיבְיבְיבְיב בְּיבּיבְיבְיבְיב בְּיבְיבְיבְיבְיב בְּיבְּיבְיבְיב בְּיבְיבְּיבְיבְיב			רָבְּלִר	1695a	יהוה	1250°;1267°;1535°;
לאני, הורה נפי בארי הורה נפי בארי הורה נפי בארי הורה נפי בארי הורה נפי בארי הורה נפי בארי הורה נפי בארי בארי הורה נפי בארי בארי בארי בארי בארי בארי בארי באר	מַרְפָּלֵי	2914a	רָבֶעַ	1086ь		2601b; 2961a
לוניה (פּר אֹיִן יִידְיִה (פּר אַרָּרָה (פּר אַרַרְה (פּר אַר אַר אַר אַר אַר אַר אַר אַר אַר אַ		_	וְגַר שָּׂבְּדּרוּתָא		יהוה יוְרֶאֶה	1583 ^b
לוביר לובי		7 •			יהוה נפי	1584ª
באַרָּהָהּ (בְּאַרָּהּ (בְּאַרָּהּ (בְּאַרָּהּ (בְּאַרָּהּ (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרְה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרְה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּאַרָּה (בְּיִבְּה בּיוּב (בְּיבּיר (בְּיבּיר (בְּיִבּיר (בְּיִבּיר (בְּיּבּרְייִיר (בְּיבּיר (בְיּבּיר (בְּיִבּיר (בְּיבּר בּיבּייר (בְּיבּר בּיבּיר (בְּיבּיר (בְּיבּיר בּיבּיר ברוּב (בְּיבּר בּיבּיר (בְּיבּר בּיבּיר ברוּב (בְּיבּר בּיבּיר ברוּב (בְּיבּר בּיבּיר ברוּב (בְּיבּר בּיבּיר ברוּב בּיבּר ברוּב בּיבּר ברוּב בּיב בּיבוּב (בְּיבּר בּיבּיר ברוּב בּיבּיר ברוּב בּיבּיר ברוּב בּיב בּיבוּב בּיבוּיר ברוּב בּיבוּב בּיבוּיר ברוּב בוּבּיב בוּבּיב (בּיבּיר ברוּב בּיבוּב בּיבוּיר ברוּב בּיבוּב בּיבּיר ברוּב בּיביר ברוּב בּיבוּב בּיבוּב בוּבּיב בוּבייר ברוּב בבוּב בוּבּיב בוּב			''	741a; 769a; 1333b;	יהוה צְּדְּקֵנוּ	1584ª
לארר (אַנּיִרָר (אַנּיִר (אַנּיִר (אַנּיִר (אַנּיִר (אַנּיִר (אַנּיר (אַניר (אַר (אַניר (א		1940-		1334a; 1864b; 2235a; 2293a;	יהוה שָׁלוֹם	1584ª
לאַרָר (אַבָּרָר (אַבָּרָר (אַבָּרָר (אַבָּרָר (אַבָּרָר (אַבָּר (אַבּרָר (אַבּר (אַב (אַבּר (אַבּר (אַבּר (אַבּר (אַב (אַבּר (אַני (אַב (אַב (אַב (אַב (אַב (אַב (אַב (אַב				2742b; 2836b;	יהוה שָׁמָה	1584ª
לאַר יִדְּבָּשׁ (208b; 523b; 524a.b; 552a.b; 1120a; 552a.b; 1120a; 552a.b; 1120a; 2965b יִדְּר 2089b; 2145b; 2211a; 2595a; 2211a; 2595a; 2667a יִדְר 1550a יִידְר 1550a יִדְר 1550a יִדְר 1550a יִידְר 1550a יִדְר 1550a יִידְר 1550a יִידְר 1550a יִידְר 1550a יִידְר 1550a יִידְר 1550a יִידְרְר 1550a יִידְר 1550a יִידְר 1550a יִידְר 1550a יִידְר 1550a יִיד					יָרגוֹזֶבָ ד	1584ª
לאר (208b; 523b; 524a.b; 120a; 552a.b; 1120a; 2965b 1577a 1					יַהוֹתָנֶן	1577b; 1743b
לארי בארי בארי בארי בארי בארי בארי בארי ב	نُقَاد		-		יְהוֹיָדֶע	1569ь; 1578а
בְּדֵּר (בְּדֵּר (בְּדֵר (בְּדֵּר (בְּדֵר (בְּדִר (בְּדִר (בְּדִר (בְּדַר (בְּדִר (בְּר (בִּבְיר (בְּר (בְּדִר (בְּבִר (בְּר (בְר (בְּר (בּר (בּר (בּר (בּר (בּר (בּר (בּר (ב	سنيد		ָרָרָה		יְהוֹלֶכָין	1577ª
בַּר בַּרוֹי,רֵיב בַּאָרָיִר בַ בַּאַרָּיִר בַ בַּאַרָּיִר בַ בַּאַרָּיִר בַ בַּאַרָּיִר בַ בַּאַרָּיִר בַ בַּאַרָּיר בַ בַּאַרָּיִר בַ בַּאַרָּיר בַּאַרָּיר בַּאַרָּיר בַ בַּאַרָּיר בַּאַרָּיר בַ בַּאַרָיר בַ בַּאַרָּיר בַ בַּאַרָּיר בַ בַּאַרָּיר בַ בַּאַרָּיר בַ בַאַרָּיר בַ בַּאַרָּיר בַ בַּאַרָּיר בַ בַּאַרָּיר בַ בַּאַרָּיר בַּאַרָּיר בַ בַּאַרָּיר בַ בַּאַרָּיר בַ בַּאַרָּיר בַּאַרִיר בַּאַר בּאַר באַר באַר באַר באַר באַר באַר באַר ב	וֹיָרבּוּ ראַלרר	2089 ^b ; 2145 ^b ;	<u> বিদ্</u> যু)	יְהוֹיָקִים	1578°; 1743b
יאָשׁיִה 1586º בְּהַרְּכֵל בְּאָרִיה 1580º בְּהַרְּכֵל בְּאָרִיה 1580º בְּהַרְּכֵל בְּאַרִיה 1570º בְּהַרְּכָל בְּהַרְּכָל בְּיִרְיִּהְיִּהְ 1580º בְּהַרְּכָל בְּהַרְּכָל בְּיִרְיִּהְיִּהְ 1572º בְּהַרְּכָל בְּיִרְיִּהְיִּהְיִּהְיִּהְיִּהְיִּהְיִּהְיִּה	1 1964	, ,	רמר		יַהוֹנָרִר <u>ב</u>	1580a
י 1580º החלנֶדֶב 1580º לְיָעְהֵיר 1580º בּיחוֹנֶדֶב 1572º לְיִעְהָיר 1580º; 1730º. פֿיין 1580º; 1730º. פֿיין 1580º; 1730º. פֿיין 1580º; 1730º. פֿיין 1580º; 1730º. פֿיין 1580º; 1730º. פֿיין 1580º; 1730º. פֿיין 1580º; 1730º. פֿיין 1580º; 1730º. פֿיין 1580º	ראשיה	1	Į.	}1447ʰ; 1557ʰ		
יאָרְזְרֵי 1570 (יְאָרְזְרָי 1570 יְדְרֹוֹן 1570 יְדָרֹוֹן 1570 יִדְרֹוֹן 1570 יִדְרֹוֹן 1570 יִאָרְזְרֵי	ראשירהר	1751 ^b				
	-					

יְהוֹעַהִּרןְ 1574٠	יוֹנֵת אֶּלֶם 1730°; 2488°; 2830° רְחֹקִים	יְהַראֵלִר 1574 יְהַראֵלִר
יְהוֹעֲהָן 1574ь	•	לָתִרד 789ʰ; 833ʰ
יְהוֹאָדֶק 1584ь	רוֹנְתָּדֶ 1730°, b	הַלְּהָיָה 157 4 °
1580،; 1736 יְהוֹרֶם	מסה 1736 ^b ; 1737 ^a	ל יְחַל 1419 יָחַל
יְהוֹשֶׁבַע 1583 יְהוֹשֶׁבַע	יוֹסְפְּיָה 1753٥	יַחְלְאֵל 1558،; 1573 בַּחְלָאֵל
יִהוֹשֵׁבְעֵת 1581 יִהוֹשֵׁבְעֵת	יוֹעַאּלָה 1695°	1558 בַּחְלָאֵלִי
	רוֹעֵד 1688•	בַּוְמַרּר 817º,b; 2597º;
ן הולשוּעַ 1424°; 1583°; 1624°; רהולשָׁעַ 1626°; 1743°°, יהולשָּׁעַ	יוֹעָשׁי 1679ь	3066°; 3155°
יי דרישׁפָּט (1431°; 1581°; 1582°;	רוֹצָּדָק 1584⁵	ָּלְתְבֵּיר 1558 בַּתְבַיר
1583°; 2759°	יוֹקים 1727ª	יַלְאָלֵ 1558 בַּחְּצָאֵל
יְהַכֶּלְאֵל 1574 בְהַכֶּלְאֵל	יוֹרֶה 2525ь; 2982ь	יַלְּבְּאָלִי 1559°.
בהלם 2856 הלם 2857 מַהַלֹם	1732° יוֹרָה	ַלַקְּצִיאָל 1558 בַּקְּצִיאָל
2862a, b	1732 רוֹרֵי	יָּהַשׁ 1183 יָּהַשׁ
772 } ₁₅₅₈ a	רוֹרָם 1580°; 1732°; 1736°	11836 רַחָּשׁ
ٚڔڗۺ ڮ ۫ڔ	רושב הֶסֶד 1781 יושׁב הָסֶד	ַלַתָּת 1558•
רוֹאָב 1677⁴	יוֹשׁבְיָה 1743 יוֹשׁבְיָה	לְטָבּ (435b; 1276b; 1277a;
ראָד 1678°; 1695°	רוֹשָׁה 1743°	2813 ^b ; 3011 ^a יָּטְבָּה 1754 ^a
רוֹאָתָד 1678ª	רוֹשַׁוְרָהְ 1743-	יִּטְבָּתְה 1754°
רוֹאֵל 1448a; 1688a, b	רוֹשָׁפָּט־ 1743°	1707)
رانېن المناب المنابع المنابع المنابع المنابع المنابع المنابع المنابع المنابع المنابع المنابع المنابع المنابع ا	יוֹתָם 1754 יוֹתָם	1788 רוּטָה
ربغ	יְזִראֵל 1677•	יסהר 1544b; 1675°
1491 יוֹב 1491 יוֹב	1545 רַדְּיָה	ברך (879°; 1896°; 3086°;
רוֹבֶב 1688⁴	יָדרד 1572 ^b	3088ª
רוֹבֵל (רוֹבֵל 1422°; 1546b; 1756°;	יַזְלִיאָה 1545 יִזְלִיאָה	፯፫ 1334°
לבל 3100°	רַנְבָּרָה } 1675 }	יכל see יכול
2867°; 3074°	וְיַזְכְיָהוּר וֹיִן יְיַזְכְיָהוּר וֹיִן יְיַזְכְיָהוּר	יְכָנְיָה see יְכוֹנְיָה
1756° רּבָּל	עָדַע 28746	וֹרָסָת 170b; 241a; 799a;
יוֹזָבָר 1755٠	1545 יוְרָח 1545	2018b; 2408b; 2534b; 2535a;
יוֹזֶכֶר 1756°	1545 וְזְרַחְיָה 1545	2560b
רֹוְתָא 1695⁴	993°; 1677° רַזְרְעָאל	וְבָלְיָה see יִבְילִיה
רלהָכָּךְ 1695b; 1730a	רְזְרְעֵּאלִר 1677•	1547 יכין
יָּטָה see הַטָּק	יוְרְעֵאלִית 1677-	יכל, 328 איני
ַרוֹנְדָע 1727°	רָהָבָּה 1586°	וֹיָכוֹל
יוֹנָקים 1727°	לַתַּד 30376	ן יְכָלְיָה
1580*; 1727*	· 1777	יָּכֶלְיָרוּרְ 1573•
־1688 יוֹכֶבֶּד	נחבר (בחבר 1558b) בחבר (בחבר 1558b)	וְיְכִילְיָה
1586° רּבָּל	1558 בַּחְדִּראֵל	ן וְכָנְנָה
רוֹם 71°, 705°, 777°; 797°,798°,799°,5;	יְחְדְּיָהוּ 1574 יָחְדְּיָהוּ	יַּכְכְּרָהוּ 1577ª
1389 ^b ; 2049 ^a ;	יְהִראֵל see יְהַרְאֵלּ	לְיְכְוֹנְיָה
2982°; 3077°;	יַחַזִּראָל 1558 יַחַזִּראָל	יב'ד 418a; 426b; 522b; 821a; 1183b;
3126° 7,7 1572°	1559 בַּתְוָיָה	2034a; 2050a;
יוני, 1580º 1580º רוֹנֶרָב	יָחָזְקָאֵל 1071°; 1574°	2295a; 3007a
יוֹנָת 1730 (1727 ; 1730 דוֹנָת 871 (1727 דוֹנָת 1730 ביוֹנָת 1730 דוֹנָת 1730 ביוֹנָת 1730 ביוֹנָת 1730 ביוֹנָת ביוֹנִת ביוֹנָת ביוֹנית ביוֹנָת ביוֹנָת ביוֹנית ביוֹנ	ן יְתִוֹקיָה ₁₅₇₄ }	ָּלֶלֶד (לַּלֶד 512b; 606b; 1317a
יקור פור, דובר, דוסס באלינה 2395°	ייוֹלבּיני 12/40	יַלְהָּה 1232 יַלְהָּה
יְּרֶכֶּר 2535 יְרָכֶּר 1572°	1559° בַּקוֹרָה	15596 רָלוֹן
יי,: 1872 רונק 2947°	ורדוראר	יָלִרד 1418º; 2815º
יוֹנֶקֶת 513 ^b ; 2947°	1574°; 1586° (תוואל	קלק 1121b; 1221a; 1248a
* 184 010) 2011	" # = #	

ַבְּלֶּפֶּת 2701 בַּלֶּפֶּת	ָרַבְּוַיִר יַ	1546a; 1572a	ヹヹ゙゙ヹ	1968a
ָלֶּקְ 553b; 583a; 1473a;	רַעְזֵר	10±0-, 1072-	نخثد	1545b; 2181b
1907b; 1908b	רְעַנד	704 ^b	زغجك كسائد	1545 ^b
□, 128°; 1547°; 2026°;	רְעִראָל	1574а; 1586ь	نحدق	422a; 591b; 2863a
2037°; 2145°; 2153°; 2538°;	רָעִיר		رخثاط	1493b; 1843b
2706b; 2838a;		1675 ^a	ראָדור	
3082*	רִעַל	288 ^b	רַצַּרעַ	see יָּצוֹעַ
128°; 2093°		705ª	·	1337ь
יְבוּהָאֵל 1586 הַבּוּאָל			, -	145 ^b ; 1098 ^b ; 1968 ^{a,b} ;
יִמְימָה 1586 ^b	יָ עַנֶּר	592 ^b ; 817 ^{a,b} ; 1249 ^a ; 1557 ^b ; 1559 ^b ;	- 1	2425b; 2864a
לְבָּלֶּלְ, 128°; 1333°; 1567°;		3156ª	ڗڲ۫ڔ	1144 ^b ; 1456 ^a ; 1676 ^b
1865 ^b ; 2591 ^a ; 2838 ^a	רַעַלָּא	817 ^{a,b} ; 1249 ^a ; 1545 ^a	<u>ب\$</u> ئ	2030a
יָבְלִּלְבָּל 1568°; 2745°	רַצַּלָה	011 - , 1215 , 1016	<u>نڭ</u> نىر	1545b; 1676b
ו רוילא	רַעְלָם	1559ь	ָנֶקָב	3086ь
ימְלָה 1456 יִמְלָה	רַצַּכָּה	1548b; 2203a; 2205b;	נֿלבֿגֿאָכ	1586 ^b
		2697a; 3084b	ئظہ	1357ь
בְּלְלֵהְ 1568º בַּלְלֵהְ 1461b. 1677º		1568ª	וָקְדְעָם	1727ª
רְּלְּכְּהָ 1461b; 1677°		65°; 1086°; 1121°	ָיָק ָה	1559ь
יַּמְלֶע 1461 בּמְלֶע 1462	יָבַק	64 ^b ; 704 ^b ; 1141 ^a ; 1308 ^b	יָקוּת ִיא ֵל	1586 ^b
יַלְרָה 1466 יַלְרָה	רעהר	1549a; 1556a	ָרָק ִ קְּדָ	1727ь
ינות 1568 ⁶			יָקִים	1559ь
י נכולים	1	1545a; 1549a	וְקַמְיָה	1586ь
רָנֶרם see רָנָרם		435b; 1547b; 1559b	וַקַּמְעֶם	
975 לָבָּת	12:	1132a;1377a;1545b; 1812b; 3001b	ָרָק מְעָ ם	
ֶלְנָרִם (לְנָרִם 1568², b	יַעָרָה	1569 ^b	יָקְנְעָם	
יַכוּם יַנָרָם יַנָרָם	וַצַרָי אֹרְגִים		יַקּץ	
ָלָנָק 513b; 2947a	1	1572b; 2197a		1235 ^b ; 2434 ^b
רַלְשׁׁרְּם בַּיִּבְיִשׁרָם בַּיִּבְיִשׁרָם בַּיִּבְיִשׁרָם בַּיִבּיִים בַּיִּבּים בּיִבּים בּיִבּים בּיִבּים ב	יַצֶרָשָׁירָה			1418 ^b
בּיְלְשׁרוֹת 2206°; 2697°		1546ª	יָקשׁ יִ	1143a
יָסָד 1141b; 1307b		1546a; 1571a		1727 ^b
יסוד 4111°		1491°		1586 ^b ; 1727 ^b
רָסְכָּה 1508⁵	,	1087b; 1568b		
יסְמַכְיָהוּ 1511 יסְמַכְיָהוּ		1087 ^b ; 1278 ^b		see 777
יסת 1150b; 2116a; 2459a	רפור		200	1102a;2156a;2587b; 2949b
יַסֶר 2545٠	ָיבי. יָפוֹא	1731a	רָרָאַה	1102ª
יִע 2780⁵		518a		1492 ^b
י. 1547° בעבץ	1	1569ª	ַרָרָאַנֶּירה רַרְאַנֶּירה	
ָלַעַד 706°, לָעַד				1569 ^b
ו רלדידו	1	1569ª	1	1227a; 1595a
רהו see לְעְהָּוּ	1	1569 ^a	֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֓֞	
	1	1587ª ·	ָּיִרָבָּשָׁת יִרְבָּשָׁת	
לְעָּה 2780 ^b	1	2773 ^b	, , , , ,	
יִערֹאֵל 1675°		1568 ^b	1	831b; 1221a; 1248a
יערץ 1675°		1491a; 1587a; 1677a	1	1570a; 1587b
יְעַרָּרְ 1546°; 1559°	רַפְּתַּח־אַל		1	660a; 1732a; 1765a
י יָבְעִיר	رُ تر بع	1049b; 1107b; 1221a;	יָרָה דָּי	(1002": 2921"
יְערשׁ 1675 -		1248 ^a ; 1542 ^b ; 1603 ^b ; 3081 ^b ;	ِنْدِي <u>ة</u>	,
ַרַאָל 1546 בַּעַזִראָל 1546		3128ª	1 . *	1595 ^b
5=5775 1646s	and adjected	588 ^b	ירות	1570a
יוליקל 1546°		900		20.0

ן יָררּשָׁא יַררּשָׁה	1622a	ַרִּשְׁבּוֹ בְנֹב רִשְׁבִּי בְנֹב	1508 ^b	רָשָּׁר	1570a; 1623a; 2027b; 2591a; 2864a
֓֞֓֓֞֞֞֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓		ָי אָבָּי דְּיַבּ יִשְׂבַּח		רַשְּׂרָאֵל	
יָרוּשָׁלֵים יִרוּשָׁלֵים	1596°; 1966°; 2078°;	1 .		רַשַּׂרָאֵלֶה	1622ª
	2663ª		1571*	רָשָׁרוּדָ	
ְיָרוּשָׁגֹם 	9000 1 2000 9001	וֹנְשָׁבִי לֶחֶם	1571*	רָשָּׂשׂכָר	
11.7.°	303°; 1587°; 2081°; 2982 ^b	ישָבֵי לֶחֶבּ			2111a; 2207a; 2399a;
ירת	303a; 2081a	יָשֶׁבְעָּם		1	2743°; 2780°;
	see יְרִיתוֹ	יִשְׁבָּק			2847b; 3077b
	1595ª	نْشْخَكْشِد		-	1101a; 2202a
יְרַדְּוֹכְיאֵל		י רָשׁוּב		' '	2530°
	1570a	ַ רָשִׁירב	J		1050a; 1571a
רְרִראָּל		רַשְּׁינָה:	1511 ^a	1	1543b; 1674a
	1570a	רָשׁוֹתָיָה	1622 ^b	ַיִּתְמָּה יִ	
	1592°	רַשְּׁורִי	1508b; 1511a	רַקנִיאֵל	
-		רַשׁרַעַ	1622b; 1743a,b;		7 ^b ; 2557 ^{a, b}
ַרַבַב <u>ּר</u>	(1092"	•	1749ª	<u>ڈ</u> شر	709b; 1050a; 1674a;
ָרַרַבּ ּרוּנ בַּרַבּּרוּנִ		ישָׁיָם יִשְׂיָם	1493ь	רכיבי	2557 ^b ; 3098 ^b
دسمبر رُنديدار		ָרַשַּׁיַרִי יִי	1509a; 1623a		1543b
	1592*	אָרשַׁר	,		17b; 2590b
רַרד וֹה		יָשָׁיב יָשָׁיב	see רָשׁרָב		1674a
יְרִימוֹת. 	15010	ָרִשָּׁינֶּה.	1542 ^b	, .	896b; 1050a
יְרֵימוֹת		ر فِي دُ ١٠٠ ل	1012		1543 ^b
יְרֵבְּוֹת		רְשִׂירבִיאֵל	1623ª	, , , ,	1543ь
	767 ^b ; 2889 ^b	רְשִׁיבוֹן	831b; 1622a, b		1543b; 1593a
יָרִיעוֹת		רָשִׁיבוֹת	see בֵּית הַיְשִׁימוֹת	נשת	1674ª
נבנ	411a; 492a; 1917a, b; 2746b; 2972b	רָשָׁרשׁב	130 ^b		_
ירכא	2785°; 2972°;	רְשָׁרשַׁר	1622b		5
ְיָרֵ כְּה		רָשַׁם	1509ª	· •	2207a, b
ַרַ בוּר ג בַּרְבוּרג		רשָׁכָיא	1509ª	د تعد	1306a; 2207a, b
	see יְרִימֵוֹת	רשָׁבָּעאַל	1509a		(17 ^b ; 522 ^b ; 595 ^a ; 1236 ^b ; 1239 ^a ;
	1587 ^b	רִשְׁבָּעֵאלִי		כָּבַד	1294°; 1306°;
ָּוֹרְבְּינָה יַרְבְּינָה	١	ישמעיה	1	ַ כָּבֵד בָּבֵד	{ 1337 ^b ; 1338 ^a ; 1354 ^{a,b} ; 1418 ^b ;
ָּיִרְ בְּינָהוּ	11001 4 1000 4 2020	רשמעיהו	}1510 ^b	,	1905b; 2154a;
	1306a	ָרְשָׁמְרֵר ישָׁמְרֵר			2818ª
יַרְפָּאֵל יִרְפָּאֵל			282b; 1570a; 2817a	1	1306b
	2846ª	1	443b; 1507b; 2761a	1	see כבוד
, 11	1293°			ذَتِذُر	
	see בי הַיַּרְקוֹן	1	1622a; 2761a		1235b; 1236b; 1253b;
7	2051b	<u>.</u> با ب	340°; 820°; 1424°; 2700°	כָּבֹד	∫ 1418b; 1906a
ָּיָרְקְעָּם יַּיָרָ קִייִּן		רשער	1509ª		580b; 2850a
		יְשַׁעָיָה)		536ª
ָרָ <u>ט</u> ש	1369a;2420a;2422b; 2426b; 2868b	רשערהר	1495 ^b ; 1622 ^a	פַבּוֹן	536a
•		7	2856 ^b ;2857 ^a ;2860 ^b ;	בָּבַס	1148a; 3072b
* * *	1468 ^b 224 ^a	ं चरीत	2862b		599ª
	9a; 1468a; 2743b;	רַשְׁפָּה.	1511 ^a	כָּבָרָה	3076a
- <i>-</i> -#;	9 ^a ; 1408 ^a ; 2743 ^a , 2813 ^b	רָשַׂור	2406ь	כְּבָרָה	2976а
רָשֶּׁבְאָב	1622a	ڎۺٛڎ	1622a		1126a; 1215b; 1822b
ישׁב בַּשָּׁבָת	1743a	רשָׁר	2027b; 2591a	כַּבְשָׂה וֹ	1822 ^b

		·		
פּבְשָׁן	1149 ^b	כּֿנַלָּנ	655 ^b	קמוש 601°; 2070
כַּד	2401b; 2425b; 3075a	בַּלֵר	000-	קברש , ביים קבריש
כַּרְכֹּר	709a; 2858b; 2860b	כֵּילַת	1325 ^b	קבור (מבוך 765°; 1123°
כְּדָרְלֶ ע ֹמֶר	599ª	כּימָה	311b; 312a; 313a;	485° כְּמָרִיר
כֹה	1395ь		3146	رة (410°; 1118°; 1240°;
פָהָה	1086 ^b		2530ª	1438 ^b ; 1886 ^b ; 1887 ^a ; 2180 ^b ;
בַּהָת	1349ь; 1354ь		see בְּוֹר	2295°; 2404°;
פֿהַל	756b; 794b; 2436b;	ۆۋە	655 ^b ; 656 ^b ; 660 ^a ; 807 ^b ; 1930 ^a ;	2688 ^b
	2439°; 2441°; 2443°; 2450°;		1966b; 2076a;	553b ⊆¢⊓
	2454b; 2624b;		2210°; 2406°; 2407°; 2904°	קפור (791°; 2095°; 2097°; 2101°
-	3129s	בֹל .	·	701°; 1577° כָּנְרָהּדּ
_	650b; 765a	כּוֹל	585a; 705a; 1439a	לְּכָבֶּי 602 בְּבָּבֶּי
	253b; 254s		1127a; 2569b	ו פכניה
•	see TD		2456a	לְּבַנְרָהוּ €602 ﴿ בְּנַנְרָהוּ
2.12	696 ^a ; 1126 ^b ; 1308 ^b ; 1403 ^b	כּלְאָב	611 ^a	ブュラ 522b
כּרָּדָ	650b; 765b; 1098b;	כָּלְאַיִם	2712b	-ب -3072 <ِزِلِ ت
	2027ь; 2200ь	בֿבָּב	541°; 867b	קֿבַעַן 549°; 1202°; 3002°;
פּוֹבֵנְיָהוּ -:-		כָּלֵב	541a	, 3004ь
פרס	511b; 766a; 2206a; 2425b	כָּלֵב אֶפְרָתָה	541 ^b	לַנְבֶּנָה 602º כְּנַבֻּנָה
⊂וּר	1149 ^b	כָלָהָ	704b; 943a; 1086a;	י3002 קְנַעֲנֶר
כּוֹר	see Ti	כָּלָה	{ 1111b; 1199a; 1780b	721b קָנָם
כּוֹר־עָשָׁין	709ь		2846 ^b	887°; 943°; 1143°; 2814b; 3088b
פוֹרָשׁ	773b; 1507b		412b; 413a; 538a;	בּרוֹת (611 ^{a, b} ; 656 ^a ; 1165 ^b ;
פרש	767b; 768b; 769a;	_	600ь	2706 چۆرھ
in ministra una	1031s	כְּלוּבֵר 		ופסא
ك ا • لبا ١	768b; 769a; 2145b; 3146b	כְּלוּהֵר - י		303₺ (בֶּטֶה
פּרּשָׁרת	769ª		71a; 539b	\$1801b; 2710b; 2862b;
פושָׁד	768 ^b	כָּל־ חֹ זֶה -לי		2976⁴ کوچہ
כּרשַׁל	₹768 ^b	دِدِ	254 ^a ; 261 ^a ; 377 ^b ; 580 ^b ; 1150 ^a ;	הָּטָה 669⁵; 733°
רשְׂעָתֵים	, , ,		1483 ^b ; 1675 ^b ;	چوپر see چوت
פות	770a		2097 ^a ; 2425 ^b ; 2764 ^a ; 2867 ^b ;	לַפָּא see לַפָּה
בי ת ה	10900 1007		3049a; 3072a	733° כְּסוּת
	1832a; 1887a	פֿלָיָה	1797b; 2553b	(פֿסָרל 311a; 312a,b; 313a;
	37b; 614b	כַּלְיוֹדְ	611a	314 ^b ; 444 ^b ; 605 ^a ; 704 ^b ; 1124 ^{a, b}
בְּיָבְּי כְּזָיב	734a 27b	1 ' .:	704^{b}	700a; 1917a, b چَوْرُ
•	(בָּלִיל	1117b; 2320b; 2639a, b	רֹסְלֶה 700∗
ב <u>י−</u> כַּ <u>ה</u>	592°; 1106°; 1826°; 1906°, b; 1907°;	בלבל	2039 ² 5 541 ^a	541b; 1813b בּסְלֵּר
כות	2999ь		1111ª	612 בְּסְלוֹן 612 בּ
ָּבָ <u>ת</u> ַד	769 ^b		600 ^b	לוֹךְ הַסְלוֹךְ הַ 604 בְּסָלוֹךְ
	2208ª	1	267°; 700°	605 בְּסְבּוֹת
	432°; 830°; 1105°			581 בַּסְלָּחִים
בָּר	588 ^b ; 1062 ^b ; 1126 ^b ; 1438 ^b	כּלְמַד כלמד		DDD 2415b
כּידוֹן	252a; 606a; 1279b;	בליב <u>י</u> בְּלִמָּה		ກລູອຸລຸ 1117b; 1122a; 2840a
,	2108^{b}	בַּלְנֶה ביים		지한 832b
′.	6124		>546a, b	581b;1447b;2076a,b;
	1352a; 1436b; 1843b;	ַבַּלְנוֹ ברייים	•	2395°; 2792°;
خږ∟	2237a; 2701a	وفرثو ا	611a; 1219b	2793*

כָּסִפְּיָא	581 ^b	פַרְמִלִּי	579 ^b	לָאָה	1861 ^b ; 1868 ^b
בַּעַס	1305b; 1306a; 2486b	בַּרְמְלִית	579ь	1	see DX>
	1333b; 1334b; 1335a;	בַּרַע	1104b; 1865a		1821ь
	1404b; 2235a;	1	1865ª	לאם	1
	2293a; 2846a	1	723a	לאום	1121b; 2319a
	2596a	קָרָ ש וֹ			1868 ^b
 c đ u			see שֹׁרֵבׁ	1 .	1426b; 1907a
	1147в	בָּרְשָׁנָא כַּרְשָׁנָא	•	1	1426 ^b ; 1907 ^a
בב- כ בָּפִר ס		'''	728a,b; 746a; 769b;		•
	1895a; 1896a; 3049b	2.7.2	1086°; 1966°;		376 ^b ; 449 ^a ; 523 ^b ; 577 ^b ; 678 ^b ; 1350 ^b ;
בָב <u>ּירָה</u>			2256 ^b ; 3008 ^b		1351b; 2056a;
בּפֿכ			255b; 603a; 2379a,b	بالمعادم	3089
ڎؚڿٳ	1097*		1822 ^b ; 3155 ^b	לְבָאוֹת	
	599°; 2235°	خفرخت	,	7.5	3089 ^a 724 ^b ; 1350 ^b ; 2496 ^b
ڎؚڟٙڔ	137b; 321a,b; 668a;	פַשְוֹדִי	589b; 605a; 2147b;		,
	1069 ^a ; 1132 ^b ; 1133 ^a ; 2019 ^b ;	כַשְּׂהִרמָה	{ 2218 ^a ; 3039 ^a ; 3042 ^b	לְבוֹנֶה יייי	11111a;1144b;1145a; 1466b; 1864a;
	2020a; 2036a;	פַשְּׂנֵדִי	862b	ַלְבֹנֶה רְבֹנֶה	2639a, b
	2401b; 2506b; 2531a; 2536a;	כַשִּׁרל	342a; 1344a	ֹ לָבִרא	
	2808ª		439b; 815a; 1105a	לְבִיָּא	1895°; 3083°
ڎ۫ڞٛڔ	3049 ^b	בַּשַׁב	1964b; 3097a	לְבָאִים	1000,0000
פֿפָר	520b; 1279b; 2022a;	ਵੇਧਾਰ	3097 ^b	לָבָאוֹת .	
	2401 ^b ; 2530 ^{a, b} ; 2531 ^{a, b} ; 2651 ^a ;		896 ^b ; 968 ^a ; 1122 ^a	לָבַּוֹ	1111a
	2655a; 2697a;		896 ^b ; 968 ^a ; 1277 ^b	ּ לָבָּדָ	676. 1145. 1000h
	2817b; 3049b	, ,	723b; 831b; 3119a	ַ לָבַדָּ	676a; 1145a; 1862b
	326ª		2487a; 2628b	לָבָּוּ	1819 ^a
כְּפַר הָעַמּוֹנִי		ק. קחר	1	ַלַבָּדָ)
وَهَرُط	242 ^b ; 327 ^b ; 1063 ^a ; 2036 ^a	ב כתיר	605b; 1814b	1 ' -	1862 ^b
כַּפְתּוֹר	1	1	612°; 1814°	לְבָנָה	
בַּ כַּפָּתוֹר	568a; 1815b	1	1985 ^b		2421a
ב י כַּפָּ תּ ֹרָי			709 ^a ; 1274 ^a ; 3078 ^b	1	1881b; 2768a
•	569a; 1150a; 1822b;			לְבַנָּה	301 ^b ; see also לֶבָנָא
<u></u>	2527ь	בָּתְנֶת בְּיִנֶנֶת	669a; 876a,b; 877a; 1984a	לְבֵנֶה	
פֿר	709a; 3080a	1		1	see לְבוֹנָה
בּוֹר .	J	چاریدات	246 ^b ; 721 ^b ; 2780 ^{a, b} ; 3037 ^a	1	1862 ^b ; 3000 ^b
כַּרְבְּלָא		בַּתַר	762 ^{a, b}		1882ª
ۋرت	533ª	בֶּתֶּר	762 ^{a, b} ; 763 ^a	לָבַשׁ)
	603b; 739a	1	514 ^b	לָבֵשׁ	259b; 678b
כָּרוֹז	1375ª	בַּתַת	523a; 723b		see לְבוּשׁ
-	578b; 2379b; 2787a			1	1910a; 3080a
בְּרִית	603ª		5		1909a
•	694 ^b ; 1864 ^b	לאַ)		see לא דבר
פַּרְכֹּם	2661ª	לוא	1127°;2156°;2411°;	1 '.	1117 ^b ; 1235 ^a
בַּרְכְּמִי שׁ	576 ^b	לה	2961 ^b	לָ הָבָ ה לָהָבָה)
כַּרְכַּס	576 ^b ; 1423 ^b)	לָהֶבֶּת לִהֶבֶת	1348a
כָּרְכָּרָה	419a; 547b; 548a;	לא דְבַר לו דרר		יָהֶבֶּים לְהָבִים	
	2875ь	לוֹ דַבַר	1887a; 1909b		1821 ^b
בַּרְמִי		לַדָּבָר יַ			942a
	675b; 884a	ייייר ליבר	,	l .	942° see 👏
<u> </u>	579 ^a ; 2523 ^b	دُهُد ا	1306ª		BCC \$7

(להא	(לַיִּל	בורל see מואל
×> }1336 ^ь	ליל (798°; 2050°; 2145°;	מארם 486 ^b ; 490 ^b ; 2846 ^e
לף (לַרְלָה 2256 בַּרְלָה	ע במהם
לְּרָבֶּר } ₁₉₃₄ 6	לַרּלְיָא /	לאוֹמָה (בּאוֹמָה בּיִאוּמָה (בּאוּמָה 1101º; 2156º
לָבָר ֹיִלְבָּר ֹיִי	לילית 369°; 2206°; 2697°	(בְאוֹר
1935⁴ בוּד	יליש (1821 לַרָּשׁ 1822 בַּיִּרָשׁ 1825 הַיִּרָשׁ 1825 בַּיִּרָשׁ	בְאַר (בְאַר 1890 בְּאַר בְּה
לוּדָר) 1935° ב	1895°, ה'; 1896° (בריש 1820°)	בָאַרָה בָאַרָה
ر کائے فر	1919 לְלָאָה	קיאוּרָה 829 ^b
לָּרָה (לְּנָה 741°; 1865°; 1868°	לְמָד 2581ء; 2813ء לְמֶד	מאזן 3796
לרד (לרד 100a, b; 1942a; 2348a	לְמַרְאֵל (1865 - 1865)	מאָה see מאָה
1491a; 2408a; 2898a;	לְמוֹאֵל ְ יְמוֹאֵל	1815 מַאֲכֶלֶת
立 2900b; 2901a	ן לֶבֶידְּ 1823 (בֶּידָּ	1147 מַאֲכֹלֶת
לוּתָּית } 1935 ⁶	לְצָג (אָב 831b; 1843b; 2072b; 2703a	יַבְּיִקְיק 1127° מַאֲמָיק
לְחוֹת בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים ב	יינעג 2703° לעג	1260°; 1699° באמר
サブウ 1423a	לעַג בער 2072 לענ	ייב 1145°; 1868°
לוט 733°; 1929b	1819 בֹּעְרָה	מאור see מאר
לוֹטָלָ 1931b לוֹטָלָ 1935 לוֹטָל	י בֿעְרָן 1821 בֿעָרָן	בּאָרָב 115b
לור 1868 לור	לַבֶּנָה 1167°; 3109°; 3110° (בְּבֶנָה	יייבי בייבי 767° קיאַרָה
בוריי } 2446 ⁶ בוריי	לְּפִּיד (514°; 1112°; 1825°;	בְאוֹר see בְאֹרָה
	2999 رام	1273°; 3082° מַבוֹא
לְּרָתָּד 309º; 1868b	יוֹפּידוֹת 1839٠ לַפָּידוֹת	יים בול מברל 1120°
להן 1307°; 1910°; 2094° לין	לצוֹן 2703°	מבוע 3081 מבוע
' .	7学)2703*	בים פספר 2045° ביבקר
לרץ (115°; 831°; 2072°; 2703°	1822 לקום	700°; 1419 ^b
להחית see לחות	קק 533°; 1107°	1144 מִבְנָה
3098 خ⊓	לַקַּח (1087 \$666; לָקַח 1893° 1893° לּקָחָר	ביר 2016 ⁶
לַתַ 2122 לֵתַ	י אָרְוּיִי 1095 לְקָט 1234 ⁶	ן מִּלְּצֶּׁר (1136 ^b ; 1136 ^a ; 1137 ^a ;
לוּתַ see לָתָּ	기가 123도 기가 1839ʰ; 1907ʰ	מְבְּצָּרָה 1140°, 2045°
ו לחובר	1293 בָּקָשׁ 1293 בּיִקּשׁ	מְבְרָח 1148°
رْبَات الْمَارِيِّةِ الْمَاتِيِّةِ الْمَاتِيِّةِ الْمَاتِيِّةِ الْمَاتِيِّةِ الْمَاتِيِّةِ الْمَاتِيةِ الْمَات	לֹטֶּיד 1145 יֹטֶּיד	מַבְשָׂם 2045 מִבְשָׂם
לְּחָר 600°; 1572°	איר (לשרר) 348b; 416b; 474b;	494 _p
לֶּחֶם 514b; 1118b; 1122a;	לשל \ 1043°; 2994°;	רב כיג see ביג
2767a	לשנה (לשנה) 30786	1962° בַּלְבְּרִשׁׁ
לְתוּם see לְחָם	לְשָׁכָּה 591b; 1308b; 1470b;	1340°; 2027° 1340°
לחָמֶיל 1821 ^b	2747°	ישר ישר ישר ישר ביל מינדל
לוְקְמָּס 1821 לַחְבָּיִס	2859a; 2860b	מְלְהְּוֹל (מַנְהָּוֹל (מַנְהָּוֹל (מַנְהָּוֹל (מַנְהָּוֹל (2003°; 2501°) (מַנְהִּוֹל (2020°; 2501°)
בֿתַץ 2198 לַתַּץ	ر بير بير 2814 ^b	יביקריאל 1962 מַיְּדְּיִיאֵל
לְּחָשׁ 862b; 942b; 1964b; 2594b	לְשֵׁיע 1840º	f
עֿקשׁ 126b; 887a; 1964b; 2199a	ْرَبَةِ 1868°; 3080° (بَيَةِ	לינהל: 1137°; 1544b'; 1603b'; 1610b'; 1962a'; 3000b
942ъ לֶם	בי	מְנְהוֹל see מְנְהֹל
でう 1821²; 2102b	2863 מוֹאָבוּס 2863 מוֹאָבוּס	מְנְדָל see מְנְדָלָה
לְּטָאָה 1106b; 1906a; 1907a	1294°;1780°;2839°; 3048 ^b	מּלְדַּל־אֵל 2050° מִלְּדַּל־אֵל
למדשם 1868 למדשם	ו מאה	בילבל־בָּד 2050 מַלְנַבּל־בָּד
שׁלִים לֹים לֹים לֹים לֹים לֹים לֹים לֹים לֹ	אָרָה 1325°; 1440°; 2013°	בּלְבֹלֹב 1965 בְּלַבֹּלֹב
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קנגוֹר }2398∙ קנגוּר	בְּהִיר (בְּיהִיר (בְּיהִיר (בְּיהִיר (בְּיהִיר (בְיהִיר (בְיהִיר (בְיהִיר (בְיהִיר (בּיהִיר (בּיהִיר (בּיהִיר	ا (۱273°;2093°;2205°; الابتاء (۱273°;2093°;2205°;
(פָיגָר	1965 בַּהַלַלְאֵּל	ו היהלים
405° מגוררה	2456 מַהְפֶּכֶת	בריבים 1338°; 2864°
1965 ^b ; 2255 ^b	944b; 1102a; 1343a	מוֹקֵד 11126
יייי אייי 1905°, 2255 מְלְוֵרָה 341b	מָהִיר see מְהָר	1351 מוֹקָדָה 1351 מוֹק
2784 בְּלֶּל	אלי, אפר אלי, אפר אלי, אפר אלי, אפר אלי, אפר אלי, אפר אלי, אפר אלי, אפר אלי, אפר אלי, אפר אלי, אפר אלי, אפר אלי	
_ *		מוֹקְשׁ (1231 ^b ; 1352 ^a ; 1441 ^{a,b} ; 2180 ^a ;
לְּלֶּלְּהְ 555ª; 896ª; 1006ª; 1825ª; 2507Þ;	1966 מַהְרֵי	מקש , 3007
2597a,b; 2628b; 2910a; 3058a	מַתֵּר שָׁלֶל [2439ª] אוֹם בַּז (בְּתַּבֶר שָׁלֶל בְּאַ בַּז בְּאַלְל	בורר ⁵⁹⁴ °
אָבָן 820 ⁶	בוֹאָב 1810b; 2069a,b;	מוֹרָא
לְלָלֶן (בְּלֶבֶלֶ 252b; 253a; 2626b;	2207ª	እግጋ {2118a; 2082a; 2533b
ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי	מוֹאָבִי	(מוֹרָה
מַנְפָּה 2402°; 2808b	בּיָה 2069b; 2072b	מוֹרֶג $_{2976^{\circ}}$
מְלֵרָה 341b	מוֹאָבִית /	מרַג
2051 מִגְרוֹן	מודל see מואל	מוֹרָה (בוונה בוונה) מוֹרָה
בּוֹלֶרָפָּה 669º; 2976º	מוֹדַע בוֹרַע בוֹרַע	לייה א 119b; 331a; 2525b
	1810 בוֹדֶע	מוֹרָא see מוֹרָה
ביד 251°; 2016°; 2850°	1799•; 1810 מוֹדַעַת 1799•	ו מוריה
기년 / 독특별 021h 0707a, 0020a	מוֹט 402°; 3126b	2082 בוריָה
831b; 2707a; 2838a	מוֹטָה 382°; 1354°; 2850°;	מוֹרָשָׁה 1468 מוֹרָשָׁה
777 2016a; 2044b	3126ь	2082 מוֹרַשָּׁת גַּת
קרה 2016°;2045°;2545°; 2850°; 2918°;	ן בודל	-2081 מוֹרֶשׁׁתִּי
2994a; 3010b	מולל (656b: 1197b	מרש בורט בורש בורש בורש
1275° מַּדְהַבָּה	מוֹאל ^{656b} ; 1127b	ו מיושב
לידוֹן 1961 בָּידוֹן	קיל	משֶׁב 1313°
מְדוּרָה }	2073 מוֹלֶדָה	ו היהלינור
מְדְרָה	יילֶדֶת 1542ь; 1799 מוֹלֶדֶת	ביוֹשׁר }2094⁵
לְּדֵרָ 611²; 1337°; 1961°;	656 מולה	314 מוֹשְׁכָה
2018a	מוליד 486 ^b ; 2075 ^b	ייי 408°; 764°; 800°;
לרָדָן 514°; 2049° בּירָדָן 514°	מארם see מרם	848 ^b
מְלֵּרֶן 2049 מְלֵּרֶן	מוֹמָכָן see מוֹמָכָן	מוֹת }801°; 811°; 2746°
קדינה 896 ^b ; 1008 ^b ; 2485 ^b	מוס, די אין אין 1307b	מָנֶת , פור , מונית
לַּדְיָנֶר 514°; 2049°. בּיִדְיָנֶר	ומוֹמֵר	מרת לבן 2102°; 2488°; 2831°
2083 מְדֹכָה		2437⁴ מוֹמֶר
1961 בַּדְבֵּלְ	מוֹסֵרָה 2083b; 3127a	תְּלְבָּת 106 ^b ; 110 ^b ; 1522 ^b ;
פּרְמֵנָה 882º; 1961º	מֹסְרָה בּמִים בּמִים בּמִים	1534a
ַ 1961 מַדְמַנָּה	598 ^b ; 599 ^a ; 722 ^b ; 852 ^a ; 866 ^b ; 2535 ^a	3086 مِرْبَد
בידן 2016 ⁶	מוֹסָרָה) מוֹסָרָה	ਹਿੰਹ 2069 ^b
מוֹדַע see מֹדָע	2083 בֹּסְרוֹת	מְזרּוָה }126b; 128a
מְדוּרָה see מְדֻרָה		מְזָדָה ,
מְדְרָשׁ 687°; 2050°; 2184°	1 303°, 701°, 1100°,	2538 בַּיוֹבֶּיר בּ
1325 ^b בּיְרָהָאּ	2822a; 2887b; 2888b	מַזְכֵג } 1119b; 1419a
(מָה	(حرا هُذِب	ر خراد د
381 ^b ; 1438 ^b ; 1439 ^a	מוֹפַעַת (מוֹפַעַת	312ь; 313₃,ь; 2407ь מַזָּלָה
מָה (מֶה	מיפַעַת {2033⁵	1880b; 3097a
פלייי איז איז איז איז איז איז איז איז איז	מפֿבּע	2487 מוְמוֹר
2028 מְהוּמֶן	מוֹפָת מוֹפָת מוֹפָת מוֹפָת מוֹפָת	יים 1419° מַזְמֶרָה
2028 מְהֵיטַבְאֵל 2028	2063°; 2789°; 3104° מֹפֶת	באָרָה 2820° בְּוֹבְּמְרָה
<u> </u>		•

1097₺; 297 מוָרָה	ימֶדֶרָת 76º	2083ª	מַכְאָב	1
מְזֶרֶה 313b; 2155	ئىڭدىن ت)2000	מַכָּאוֹב	1306a; 2207a; 2836b
310°; 311 מֲדָרָה 313°; 31	יַּ; 312b; הַשָּׁבָה מַדְשָּׁבָת מַדְשָּׁבָת	$\left\{\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	ַמַכְאָבָה מַכְבִּיר	
888 מוֹרָת 888 מוֹרָת	28	1966 ^b	בַּרָבְּיּ מַלְבַּנָא	
בּוֹרָק בּיוֹרָק 5115		587b; 1113a; 2237a;	בֵּירָבָנֵי בַּירָבָנֵי	
页 台 1999ʰ	· ''':''=	2820a	מַרְבָּרֵּ בִּירָבָּרֵּ	
665b جرترہ	ಸದಸ್ಥೆದನ	2976ª	1	
לַתְבַּת 515b; 2237 מַּחֲבָּת	7° ಗಠ್ತು	513b; 1185b; 2596b;	ַ מַבָּה מַבָּה	2402a; 2836b
הָּהָה 15°; 490°;	1999 ^b 市政党	2702a 2847b	מְכוֹנָה	
-694 מְתוּנֶה		422a,b; 472b; 530a;	ַ מְלנָה מְלנָה	410b; 2016b; 2028b
1344 מָחוֹז	ــ, پ	1905 ^b		1959ь
בְּיִחרּיָאֵל ₂₀₂₈ °	מְשָׁיל	402a	מָכִיר בָּכִיר	
בַבַר בִּידוֹנּינָאֵל	בַיִּטְבוּוֹלָ)	מִכְלָאָה מַכְלָאָה	
•1967 בַּתְרִים	בַ אַ מֹן	3007b	מכלה	2757ь
ַ 1967 בְּדוּלֹל	בַּטְּמֶך	}	מַכְּלוֹל	1279 ^b
וחולה see בְּיחוֹלָה	מַטְעַם אָבֵל כְ		מכלל	
בּוֹלֵהַ בּ2581 בּיוֹתְה	מַטְעַמָּה	<i>(111-</i>	מכמו	
1967° בַּדְדִיאוֹת	تر مُ قَتِ لا	3047ª	מכמס	
2028° כְּיֹחִידָא	מָטֶר	2525 ^b	מכמת	>2048a
בּיהְיָה 2515a,b; 2	בַּיּטָרָ א 587 ⁶	1986°; 2465°	(מכ <u>מ</u> ש	
ביר ביתיר 1153b; 202	1	1000 , 2100	<u>ַ</u> מִכְמֶּרֶת	
1468°; 1965 (בַּנְדַלֶּה	5 ^b ; 1967°; בַּטְרֵד	2008 ^a	ַ מִּכְמֹרֶ <i>ׁ</i> ת	1115ª
-2783 בַּחֲלָה		2008 ^a	1	see מְכְמָם
185∞ ځننډن	מֵירְבָא	2017a	מכמעת	
יַחַלוֹן 1967⁴		2016ь	מַלְנַדְבֵּי	1959ь
1967◦ בַּוֹחְלִי	בני_הַנַּלְקוֹן		מְכֹנָה	see מְכוֹנָה
ַ קַנולָם 1815 בַּינְדוֹלָם	מֶר זָהָב		מַרְנָס	518a
1907ء,ь מַחְלָפָּה		2045 ^b	مُدْدُه	3010ь
2216°; 271 מַחְלְקָה	L'±"	2047a; 2048a	מִכְמֶה	733a
1965ь; 248 מַחֲלֵח	8º: 2831ª	2045b; 2046a	בַּלפּלָח	1959ь
-2028 מְחֹלָחִי	בֿילָיהוּ '	2045b; 2047a	בֿבּר	3072ª
1934° מַּחְמָּד	1	523b; 2048a	בּלַרָּר	2049ª
2402 מַחָמֵל	מַים	2037a;3072b;3074a; 3075a	בַּנכֶרָתִי	2016 ^b
מַתְּנָה 382º; 584º	בִּירָבִין 3070b ;	2051a	ו בוכשול	2179b;2180a;2625b;
1966 מַתַנה־דָּן	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	567 ^{a, b}	מכשל	
1966° מַחֲנֵים	מֵרסָה	733°	בַּלִּמֵלָה	
מַתְטֶּת מַבּאָנּיה מָבּגּ	מֵיפַעַת בייפַעַת	see מוֹפַעַת		2488b; 2491b
2545°; 255 מַקְטָה	מֵרשָׁא	2037b; 2038a		1969a; 2083a
483 מַחְסוֹם	ڎۺ۫ۼ	2031", 2035"	,	see מול
בֹּחְסוֹר {2319°; 242	בַרישָׁאֵל ביי	2066ь	מָלֵא	1106 ^b ;1148 ^a ;1149 ^b ; 2438 ^b ; 2461 ^b ;
קסר בייקסר	מישור	459b; 2017a; 2406b;	ַ מָלָאַ	2743°
1967⁰ מַקְסֵיָה	מישר	J 2407a; 2751a	י ִ קּילאַ	
2049° בַּיְחָצִית		2038a	מְלוֹ א	>533 ª
סְחַקְ 474⁴		2037ь	ָבְיל <u>ו</u>	
לֶּתְרָ 1364 מְּחָר 1364	מַרשַׁע מּיּ	2037ь		see מְלוֹא
2012 מַחֲרֵשָׁה	מֵיתָר	709b; 3098b	מְלַאָּה	7044

לגלאָה	704°; 2743b	מַלְכִּי־ צָ דֶּק	58a; 2028b	מִנְחָה	1228a; 1857a; 2177b;
מַלְאָדְּ	115 ^a ; 132 ^b ; 1253 ^b ;	בֵּלְכִּירֶם	1971		2442 ^a ; 2443 ^b ; 2539 ^{a,b} ; 2642 ^a ;
רילארה	2039 ^a 533 ^a ; 583 ^b ; 1279 ^a ;	בַלְבִּישׁוּעַ	1971a; 2028b		2644a; 2645a;
ا با با الم	2178*; 2514*;	מַלְכָּם	1971a		2652a; 2732a
	2867b; 3105b	מִלְכּוֹם	2074 ^b		see הָלָהָה
מַלְאָכִי	·	מָלֶכֶת	2513b; 2514a	, Filis 4.	2033°; see also תְּצֶּר הַמְּיָחוֹת
בַּלְבֵּן	522ª	מֹלֶכֶת	1325 ^b	מָנַחֵם	• •
ן מַלָּה	535 ^b ; 2411 ^a		2051°	מָנַחַת	1976ь
ו מלה ייילה		מַלִּמֵד	1248b; 2976a	לונטעו	2033ª; see also ◘◘◘
ן כְּילוֹי ליי	see מְלֹא		2030°; 2853°		בי בי בי בי בי בי בי בי בי בי בי בי בי ב
בְלוֹא			503b; 600b; 1572a;	•	593b; 1152a; 2062a
ן מִלּרֹא מִלֹא	2055a, b		2439ª		see 🌣
		מַלְקוֹשׁ	2525ь	מְנָנָמִין מינים	2062a
	1122b; 2664b	מִלְקָת	2820°; 2994°		2321ª
ַ מַכּרְדָּ מַלּרְכָי	491b; 1972a; 2029b	. בֿילָלָת			830a
בָלוּכָה בַלוּכָה		מַלְתִּחָה		בֿגלַענּק בֿיַבֿענּק)
	1470 ^{a, b}	בּלְתָּעָה	600b; 1572a	בֿוּנְאָל	1436 ^b
, -		מַמְּגָרָה	405ª		2779ª
בְּכוּטָי. בֵיכּוֹתִי	1470 ^{a, b} ; 1910 ^a	מִמוּכָן		מַנְעַם	
	29294	מוֹמְכָּן]	בְינִצְנִ עַ	582°; 2095°; 2097°;
	729 ^b ; 1123 ^a ; 2524 ^b ;	מַלְזֵר	413^{b}		2101s
1124	2539 ^{a, b} ; 2624 ^a ;	בלב	2662b; 3072a		see מָנוֹרָה
	2664ª	בַּמְלָכָה	2624 ^{a, b}	מנקוור לונמוני	1980 ^b
	2774 ^b ; 2775 ^a	מַמְסָּוּ	3086 ^b	בָּיבשָּי. בָּיבשַ	19902
מְלַחָּה		בַּמְרֵא	1973a	מס	2919b; 3010b
	3069b; 3072a	מָדָ	1982a	מַסָב)
	820 ^b	'מָדָ		מְסִבּים	İ
בָּלָט	667ª	1	2016a; 2411a	מְסְבַּוֹת	
מַלִטְיָ ה		ברבר)		503 ^b ; 669 ^b
	789 ^b ; 1110 ^a ; 2471 ^a	בין	2097ь	מִסְרָּרוֹן	
152	704 ^b ; 1799 ^b ; 1968 ^a ; 2553 ^a	خر ژه	} ₂₄₂₂ ь	בַּנְפָּה	2007 ^a
בֿגלוּ	777 ^b ; 1254 ^b ; 1288 ^a ;	מָנָה		בַּסְרֶה	3047ª
	1325 ^b ; 1569 ^b ; 1587 ^b ; 1799 ^b ;	1	2032a	מְסוּכָה	2974 ^b
	1808a,b; 1971a,b; 2029b; 2624a;		see הקה	מִסְחָר	
	2029 ^b ; 2624 ^a ; 2758 ^b ; 3152 ^b	1	see ېژه	1	3086ь
מלה	612°; 2074°		723b		1336°; 2889°
' 7	2051	• •	1981a; 2426b; 3078b	1	1450°; 3047°
	2513b; 2624a	מְנְהָרָה		1	2520°; 2863°; 3007°
ַבֵּלְכוּת בַּיִּלְכוּת			1983 ^b	מָסְכָּה	301°; 585°; 2949°; 3075 ^b
	}2553°; 2624°		1977a;2033a;2453b; 2561b; 2732a;	מַסְלוּל	3075 ^b
ֿמַלְלָנָ ּ נ		לגלער	2854 ^b	מַסְמֵר	
בֵּילְכִּיאָל כֵּילְכִּיאָל	•	מָנוֹס	2545 ^b	מִסְמֵר	
מַלְכִּראֵלִר		בְינוֹר	417ª	מַסְמָרָה	21114
פֿלְכֹּנָה	1	מְנוֹרָה	552 ^b ; 553 ^a	מִסְמָרָה	
בֿעַלְבַּנָּדוּנ	19/1", 4040"	מְלֹרָה		מַשְׂבְרָה)
• • • •					

: מַסָס	1086ь	בַּצְבָתִי	1945a	حَرْفُولات	1793 ^b
- 1	585°; 2398°		746b; 1141a	ביפתו	776 ^b ; 777 ^a ; 1436 ^b
מספוא			1273a	מין)
מָסְפָּחָה			89a; 266b; 606b;	ברוץ .	588 ^b
	1467°; 2067°; 2904°	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	1273°; 1310°;	,	1221a
			1376 ^b ; 1392 ^b ; 1935 ^b ; 2185 ^b ;		see XŸÌƊ
. מַסְפֶּרָת : מַסְפֶּרָת			2703b; 3153a		•
: מָסַר מִכּרוֹם		בַּעַלָה	519a; 819a,b; 841b;		1392b; 3071a
-	see מוֹסֵרָה		2863ª	کیڅر	1136 ^b ; 1392 ^b ; 2398 ^b ; 2407 ^b
: בָּסָרֵבּ		מַצְכָה	38a; 89a; 2703b	מצבה	138b; 331a; 444a;
	667a; 2000a	ַצַקרַבִּים ביינים)		927b; 1386a;
(מַגַּבָר	1127a; 2255b	בּגַבָּר		,	1390b; 1450a; 1452a; 1454a.b;
ו כֿגאֿבּֿרַע		· .	943°; 1484°		1533a; 1808b;
	580 ^b ; 1334 ^a ; 3070 ^b ; 3075 ^b		1150 ^b		2177 ^b ; 2227 ^a ; 2234 ^a ; 2398 ^b ;
ן בַּיִענָּלָה	0010	מְענָה	see בְּלֹנְנְה		3154 ^b
בַּנְצַדֵּי	1945 ^b	פַעַץ	1946a	מִצֹבָיָה	2045a
מַעַרָיָה	1945 ^b	בֿגַע	2994ь; 2998ь	מַבֶּבֶת	
ן מַצַרָן	312a; 314b; 777a;	בֿגאָר	341 ^b	(לִגַּבַּר בַבְּיבָי	1
إ مَيْدَوْد	820a; 1468a	מַעַר	2467 ^b	בֹגב <u>ָּ</u>	830a
י בַּעְדָּר	2012 ^b	מַצֶּרָב	888b; 1945b; 1995b;	֓֞֞֞֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓	650
ڟڰ۪۫٦	432b; 492a; 511a;	מַעֻרָבָה	2035a; 3002a;		
	2838°		3063b; 3082a 1945b; 2013a		see קערד
מֶלֶה	511ª	1		מַנֶּה	
ן מֶערֹז מערֹז		1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1	585 ^a ; 593 ^a ; 829 ^b ; 1444 ^a ; 2016 ^c	مَثِدَ	515 ^b ; 517 ^a ; 1122 ^a ; 1862 ^b ; 2256 ^{a, b}
בֶּלְעִרָּזְ מיני-	1127a; 1136b; 2012b	מַצֶּרָכָה	254b; 2530a	(בָּעוֹד)
ַבְּעלוּ בידו		בַּעֲרָת	$1945^{\rm b}$	מְצוֹדָה	}528 ^a
מַעוֹדְ מָעִידְ	19842	בּוֹעֲשָׂה	533 ^a ; 817 ^a ; 2196 ^b ; 3072 ^a ; 3105 ^b	מָצֹדָה.	
ן כָּעוֹן אַ בּיןי.	1001	ריעוזור	114a; 1945b	(מָצוּד	
בָינין בָיִנִין	829b; 1313a; 1984a	מַעשׂיָה)	מְצוּדָה	1136b; 1140a
	ı	בַּצָשׁיָרה בַּצָשׁיָרהר	348a; 1945b	לאבע	
מָעֹנָה מָעֹנָה	829 ^b .	בַּצָשֵׁיִי	`	מִצְנָה	679b; 1852a,b; 2201a;
			2905b; 2987b		2434 ^b
ן בְישׁרְנָי בִישָּׁרנָי	2028ª		1	'מְצוֹלָה	
•	annol-	מַעַשְׂרָה	2030 ^b	ל אַ לָּת	} 510 ^b
מְעוֹנתֵי				מָצוּלָה	-
ן מָעֹז	see בְּעוֹד		see מְפִרבֹשֶׁת	בָּישָׁלָה	J
י בָּיעָד			1986 ⁿ	מָצוּק	2398 ^b
(מַעַזְיָה	1946a	מְפִּיבשָׁת 		فهٔ	2390
ן בַּעַעַזְיָהוּ		מְפָבשֶׁת			[528a; 1106b; 1136b;
מַּצְטָפָה		1	2094ª	בָּיצוּר	2595a; 2786a, b; 2787a
خرقر		l '.	2012 ^b	1	2181"
•	669a; 670a; 876b		1117 ^b	מְצוּרָה מִצוּרָה	1106 ^b ; 1136 ^b
	see מֵעֶה	מַפָּלָה		מְצָרָה	
ן בַּעְרָן	•	מַפַלָּה	J		. 526b; 1127b
לַ מַלְיְנוֹ	658°; 3081°	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	342^{a}	מִצְּחָה	
ן מַעְיָנָה		מִפְּקָר	1325b; 2062b	1	432°; 510°
בְילִינִי	see קוערני	מְפְרָץ	$514^{\rm b}$	לגדגים	2095a; 2097a; 2101a
ו מעכה		מַפְרֶקֶת	2129^{a}	تفترثون	841°; 1080°
ן מַצֶּלֶת	1945ª	מפת	see מוֹפַת	ترنمد	422ª
• 1 -				•	

לאָעֶר	2068a	מִקְרָה	593a; 1041a; 1336b	מְרָיָם	2001a; 2066a
מֹּגְפֶּה	2068b; 2069a; 3074a		see מוֹקשׁ		595a; 2658b
ڬڴؙڟ۫ڮ	1350b; 2068b; 2127a	מַקשָׁה	•		595 ^a ; 596 ^b
מֹלְפּוֹן	1389a		483b; 588b; 1354a;	1 11 11	2035 ^a ; 3002 ^a
ڤيڲڟ	see מָצוֹק	ַ מֶּרָה	2000°		815b; 1105a; 1309a;
فكظك	see כְּצוּקָה	מר	1	ं ∵च । च	2066a; 2868a
ڟؠۧڐ	2207a; 2864a	מור י	2102 ^b	מְרֵמוֹת	2036a
לאָרָה	see מְצוּרָה	מרא	1919a	מרלתי	2037a
מֹבְרַיִם	424a; 906a; 1324a;		see מוֹרָה	מַרְסְנָא	1999ь
	1826 ^a ; 2069 ^a ; 2145 ^b ; 3003 ^a	מראַדַה)	מַרְעִית	
מק	2624 ^a	בַּלְאָדָן	2036 ^b	מַרְצַלָּה	1984ь
-	1946 ^b ; 2998 ^b	מַרְאֶה	207b; 208b; 724a;	מַרְפַּא	766 ^b ; 767 ^a ; 1349 ^b ; 1350 ^a
*-	1325 ^b ; 1948 ^a		1136°; 1278°; 1981°; 2264°;	מִרָּפָּשׁ	
ב <u>ֿע</u> ֿבָּה			2581 ^{a, b}		1306b
מִלְּנָ ִ תִּ)	מַרָאָה	1234a; 2581a; 3057b	קר <u>א</u> ע מַרָאַעַ	
מ לב ת	326°; 594°; 2686°	מָרְאָה	760 ^b	מָרַק	
בַּקְהֵלת בַּקְהֵלת		קיראוֹן קיראוֹ ן	see שָׁמְרוֹן מְראוֹן	, ,	525a
ָמִקְנֶה בַּאָנֵה		מַרְאֵשָׁה	19854	בֶּרָק ּ חָה בֶּרְקּחָה	
	2419 ^b ; 2420 ^a	מַרַשָּׂה	1900-		483b; 612b; 1306a
מקוא	1	מְרַאֲשָׁה	1348°; 2454b		100,012,1000
	2419 ^b ; 2561 ^a	מַרָבָד	2909a	מָרר מָרר מָרר מָרר מָרר מְירר מ	483b; 484a
מָקוֹם) ·	מַרבּץ	723 ^b		,
בָּלִם	444a; 724a; 1417b;	, ,	542b; 2847b	מלכה 'מְרַרָּה	102b 1167a
מְקוֹ מָה) 1942b: 2210a:	מרב	see מורג	1	}483 ^b ; 1167 ^a
מְקמָה הַיִּן הָּי	1	בַּרְגֵּעָה	2545^{b}	מָרוֹרָה	2034 ^b ; 2035 ^a
	658a; 1542b; 3081b;	בָּרַד בְּ	313a, b	1	_
בֿעלר ביליי		מֶרֶד	2036 ^a	1	see מַרְאֵשְׁה
, .	3072 ^a	לירב#	2036 ^b	בְירָתַיִם בְירָתַיִם	2035ª
מְלַ טְּרָה	1	څرليود	2081ь	1 .	2006ь
מקטֶרֶת	1001 1000	מָרָה	854b; 1125a; 1306a;	قش×	see בישָׁא
מַפַּל)		1984 ^b ; 2486 ^b	ट्राक्रेश्र	528b; 1488b; 1559b;
בקקה	(1330°, 2090°, 2041°	1	see מורֶה	1	2007°; 2198°; 2473°; 2581°;
•	2051ª	1	2037 ^b		2919 ^b ; 2942 ^b
_	2545^{b}		523a		1049 ^b ; 3041 ^a
	581 ^b ; 1109 ^b		849a; 1369a; 1390a		2066 ^b
מַקם			2037a	מִשְׁאָלָה	2358a
מִלְמָה	rsee will	,	2523b	בַּשְׂאַת	528b; 674a; 1117b;
מִקְנֶּה	1		קרר see		1228b; 2039a
מָקְלָנֶ ה	1000.100.2		ייי see מְרֹרָה	1	see במוֹשָׁב
מקקניהו		1	1996a		see מְשׁוּבָה
בָּק <i>ו</i> ן			2408º בית הַמֶּרְחָק see בּית הַמֶּרְחָק	מַשְׁבַּצָּה	2204 ^b
בַּקצוע		,		מֹשְׁנָב	1136b; 1139b; 1140a
בַּלְצִעַ בַּלְצִעַ	T .		2295 ^a	מִשְׂנָב	2066^{b}
בֿלאַג <i>ו</i> ניי בֿיייי	.		583b	حْشِت	2790 ^b
	704 ^b ; 2399 ^b	אָרִיב־בַּעַל אַרִּיב־בַּעַל		משֶׁה	1977a; 2083b
	see בָּקוֹר	1	1153b; 2007a; 2486b	· .	741ª
מִקְרָא		מָרִיּ־בַעַל יִּרִּיִּ		1	2038b
TJ1 '	2911a	1 1,27%	מוֹריָה see	¥ I	

		1		
מְשׁוּבָה	grah	בְשִׁמֶע	2066 ^b	בּיתְּוַנֵּר 2009 ^b
בְשָׁבָה	}376 ^b	מִשְׁמַעַת		ו ממונים
מָשׁוֹגֶה	970b; 1941b	מִשְּׁמֶר	1307b; 2180b;	בּימֵניָהוּ (2008b; 3141a
בְשוֹרּכָּה	1000		2465 ^{a, b} ; 3074 ^a	מֹתֶן see מְתְנַיִם
בְשַׂכָה	}1366ь	ב מולבר ב	97 ^b ; 594 ^a ; 2201 ^a ; 3074 ^a	בייָּיָּ בּטּס אָלָיָבּיַ 2067 מָתְקָה
בְּעשׁוּרֶרָה	2016a	ריוֹמינה	519 ^a ; 674 ^a ; 2066 ^b ;	
בָּישוֹישׁי		<i>-,</i> ٻ پ. ،	2200b	בּתְרְדָת 2067 ^b
	138°; 2208°	להמפר	503ь	កក្កាក្នុ 2009*
	2181 ^b ; 2183 ^b	מְשָׁעֶם	2066 ^b	מַתְּלָיָה 2012 ^{s,b}
בְּשְׁחָה)	מִשְׁפָּחָה	1094b; 1101a;	ַ בַּוֹתְנְיָרָה בַּיּרָ בַּוֹיִינְיִינְיִהְיִּרְּ
מָשְׁרָה	2183a; 2186a		1799 ^a ; 2554 ^a ; 2556 ^b ; 2701 ^a	in,
	722b; 2186a	משפט	518a; 730a; 745b;	10400
מִשְּׁחָר	2082 ^b		834a; 883b; 1098b;	**2 1248° **3 2153 ^b
ظرِبْنُر	}		1136 ^a ; 1256 ^b ; 1852 ^{a, b} ; 1858 ^a ;	
خشتر	}722 ^b		1982 ^b ; 1983 ^a ;	לאָד (אָלּדָּדְּ בּאָרָדְ (אָרָדְּ 509b; 526b; 1249b; 2052a; 2814a;
	2790b; 2791a		2016 ^a ; 2201 ^a ; 2591 ^a	. 2923b: 3088a
בְישׁי	see ברשר	מִשְׁפָּת		נאֹרֶה (נאֹרֶה לַנְאָת 421 ^b
בְּשֵׁיזַבְאֵל	2038 ^b	l '.	518 ^b ; 929 ^b ; 2853 ^b	לאָרָה 421b; 678b
מָשִּׁית	136 ^b ; 981 ^b ; 1411 ^a ;		533°; 766°	2473° (الألا
	1626a; 2039a,b; 2441b			בּיי ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי ביי
בַשַּׁדָּ	382a; 818a; 1126b;	בִישְׁקוֹל		לַאָּרָ 517b
	1335°; 2459°	בַּשְׁקוֹה		לאָל 485 ^b
	2006 ^b ; 2038 ^a	בישְׁקָל	3079ª	לְאַל 1306b; 1307°
מַשְׁכָּב	422a, b	מַשְׁבֶּלֶת	2999ª	1306b (אָקָה 1306b
לאלבי	•	מהללת	J	كَتْ 2153b
בַשְוֹכִיל	2488b; 2491b	מְשׁרָה		كانات كانات
משכים	see Þ⊅₩̈́		2095°; 2097°	1404b
בַּשְׂבִּית	592°; 1452°; 1455°;	מִשְׁרָעִר מִישִּׁרָעִר	2067ª	ברי 2126b; 2127a
רלונהו	2394 ^b ; 3096 ^b 1313 ^a ; 1817 ^a ; 2887 ^b ;	מְשְׂרְפּוֹת	2067ª	לבוּאָה 405b
ب [،] ۾ ڏا	2888b; 2889b;	מים	,	2129 נְבוּזַרְאֲּדָן
	2948ª	משורקה		ן נְבוּכַדְנֶאצֵר / יִבוּכַדְנֶאצֵר
בּשְׁכֹּרֶת		מְשְׂרֵת		ן לָבְּכַדְנָאצַר וֹלְבָּכַדְנָאַצַּר
خشد	694 ^b ; 1289 ^b ; 2469 ^b ; 2470 ^a ; 2471 ^b ;		1105a	יברניין ארל ארליין ארליין ארליין ארליין ארליין ארליין ארליין ארליין ארליין ארליין ארליין ארליין ארליין ארליין
	2625 ^b	משתה		וְבוּכַדְרָאצַר
خرشر	379a; 535b; 789b;		408a; 2337a	ן יְבוּכַדְּרֶאצּוֹר (
	1170°; 1681°; 1687°; 2006°;	מיבי קיליפו		2129- לְברּשׁׁדְבָּּרָ
	2414°; 2474°, b;	מָתֶג		בות בות 2108°
	2475 ^{a,b} ; 2476 ^a ; 2806 ^b	מֶתֶג הָאַמָּה		2141 לבְתַז
מְשׁׁל		מָתוּשֶׁאֵל מָתוּשֶׁאֵל		לְבָּטֹ 2126 לָבָטֹ
	see שָׁלוֹשׁ			ייי (ברא 125°; 555°; 783°; 125°;
दंभेद्व दंभेदा क	·		see Ti	1152°; 1408°;
			695 ^b ; 2016 ^a ; 2904 ^a	1447 ^b ; 2183 ^b ; 2459 ^b ; 2460 ^a ;
מְשׁלֵמוֹת	2038º	מחג מִתַלְעָה		2461b; 2578a;
הייילמנה. 'מְשֶׁלֶמְיָה	2038 ^b		see 기기기	2581a
ה ה ה ה ה ה ה ה ה ה ה ה ה ה ה ה ה ה ה	90204		868 ^a ; 1917 ^{a, b}	לְבִראָה 2466 ^b
משׁלֶבֶת משׁלֶבֶת			171 ^b ; 872 ^b ; 2008 ^a	נְבָיוֹת 2126 ⁶
משמן	1	• •	1228a; 2008b	וְנְבֶּרְתְּ
خشقثو	∠ ∪00°	בָּתְנָי	4007°	1086°; 2156b; 3098b

(509b; 660a; 1117b;]] 2639a,b; 2644b;	2488 לְחִילָה
ا (چوز 1942°; 2095°; الاحزا 2097°; 2101°;	לֶרֶר (בַּרֶר 2805°; 3058°	לָחָיר 2155⁵ (חָיר
לַּבְּלֶּי 2097°; 2101°; בּבָל 2401°; 2814°;	580 בַּהַגֹּג	ליםל 1308°; 1377°
3049a; 3051a;	אָרָהָל 869°; 1307°	(441a; 523b; 524a,b;
3088ª	• •	603a; 1120a;
לֶּבֶל (1124 ^{a, b} ; 2107a בָּבָל	אַרָּהָה 869⁴ נְהְיָה	בּחַל 1369°; 1394°; 1606°; 1798°;
לְבֵלֶּה 491º; 576º; 722º	בְּהֶלֶלְ [בַּהְלָלְ] 532°; 2108°	בַּהְלָה 1808 ^b ; 1813 ^b ;
1124 ^{a, b}	נהַלל יַהַלל יַהַלל	1966b; 2422b;
1880 נַבְלוּת	5146 לָהַל	2595a; 2792a; 2836b; 2866b;
לבלָם 2126 ^b	기교 2524ª, b	3045°; 3151°
5526 נַבְרַשִׁתָּא	לַהָּר (2595º; 2866 לְהַר	1377ь; 1468ь בַּחֲלֶּה
יברי פון 2141° (בְּשָׁדְּ	ንርን 523b; 524a,b; 552b;	לראָל 2109° בַּהַלִּראָל
724b; 2130a; 2210a;	897 ^b ; 1120 ^a ; 2145 ^b ; 2595 ^a ;	בְּהֶלֶמִי 2131ª
2538a,b	2866b	미구 2153a; 2558a,b
לָבֶּד 459°; 588°; 2458°;	851°	בֿתַם 2109 בֿתַם
2550 ^b	בוב 2108°	לֶחֶמְיָה 2131ª
לֶּבֶּלָ 2438°	נוֹבֵל 2126 ^b ; 2154 ^a	2109² בַּוֹבְיָנִר
一点 り 952b	1221°; 2402°; 3044°	י זקי 1343°
בור (2082 לנה 2082 לנה 2082 לנה	לרד מידי	ו בדוריר
לַבַּת 1279 ^b	2154 ^b	2109⁴ }בורר
ַלְבֶּרֶדְ (569°; 606°; 2040°;	וֹנְיָהָ וֹיִנְיָהָ וֹיִנְיָהָ וֹיִנְיָהָ וֹיִנְיָהָ וֹיִנְיִהְיִּ	が用いる62 ^b ; 942 ^a ; 1068 ^b ;
ברל (2443b; 2454a; 2626a)	1313º; 2757º (נְרָה	2109b; 2737a,b
יי (2020) קניקה (גיינה)	לרת 699°; 2117°	ガロ 9 ^b ; 127 ^a ; 427 ^a ; 428 ^b ;
(2400	ו כבו	$862^{b};873^{a};1492^{a};\ 2132^{a};\ 2703^{b};$
וְנְגִינַתּ	2153°; 2561°	2737 ^a ; 2738 ^a
727 2029b; 2813b	21546 נוֹחָה	בַּחְשׁׁוֹן 2109 ⁶
לָגָל 522b; 1336b; 2403a	2111a; 2462a	ַרוֹשֶׁת 416º; 514º; 589º;
נָלֶע (בְּלֶע 2402°; 2403°; 2836°. b	775 O155a 2170a	708a; 1110b;
2403° (رَمْتُ	2155°; 2170°	1111 ^a ; 2132 ^a ; 2737 ^a ; 3027 ^b
בּבָּם בַּבָּם 2403 בָּבָּם	1584 נוס	\$ לְּהָשְׁמָא 2132°
752 2756b	770 1148°	רָקשׁמָּךְ 1386°; 2132°; 2737°
בָּעָשׁ 1049º، b; 2917º	2153° נוֹעַדְיָה	กฏ 2743 ^b
- •		កក្នុ 2109b; 2515b
522b; 1338a جُرِيِّتُ 522b	וויבלה }1104b	היים (68°; 511°; 798°;
1350b	いた)	816b; 2459a
לָבֶּב 1145°	1112°	לַנְיפָה 589°; 674°; 2298°
1145° לְּדֶּב	ַרְּנָה 2846 ^b	לָסָעִּים 2139°
2108 ⁶	2124°; 3050°	apj 674°
77, 1145°; 2639°, b;	، ۋۇر	مَّتِيِّ 2847 ⁶
2644b; 3058a	לַוַל 1120°; 2867°	לולפָה 2140º
לֶּבְרָה 2129 ^b	(נְיָם 1675b; 2156a; 2594b	1307 ^b נְעֵר
2124	943b	ניקוָה 2147b
ا (رَبَّتُ الْمُعَامِّةِ عَلَيْهِ الْمُعَامِّةِ الْمُعَامِّةِ الْمُعَامِّةِ الْمُعَامِّةِ الْمُعَامِّةِ الْمُ	778 כַּזָּק	541♭; 2153ۥ
ر ڈیٹھ	ን፲ን 703°; 762°; 2721°	ן גרר ₁₀₉₄ °
1228 בָּדָה	77, \703°; 762°; 763°;	ילר וויים וויים וויים וויים וויים וויים וויים וויים וויים וויים וויים וויים וויים וויים וויים וויים וויים וויים
לְּלָהֹ 160b; 1110b; 2721b; 3035b	וואס אין אין אין אין אין אין אין אין אין אין	(נָרר׳
הסססי הבים 695 ^b ; 2204 ^b	ייי 2109 ⁶ בַּדְּוּבָּר	קלי בופה בכסה 1995:
-	קה 1308 ^b	לרך (517b; 552b; 1825a; 2134a
נְדִּיב 1881°; 2154°; 2454°	בחרם (בחרם 2109b; 2132a	נר
775 1228b	בוויר 2109 ^b	(נרָה
492° נְדְנֶּה	1.0.4 2100	

נכאת	2840°	כעצרץ	1366а; 2974ь	נצה	1120b; 3050a
•	288a; 665b; 1141a	1	348b; 512b; 606b;	1	see אָבָי
נֶכֶּה	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		1182a; 1212a;		170b; 1141a; 2205b;
•	706a; 1823b		1317 ^a ; 1821 ^a ; 1967 ^b ; 2316 ^a ;		2323ª
	2129b; 2360a		2816b; 3127b	בֿאַת בּאַת	}174b; 943a; 2323a
	588a; 2108a	נַבֶּרָה	1967b; 2106b; 2107a;	נַצַּח	,1,1,010,100
	2868a		2316*; 2960b; 3051b	כְּצַיב	2141a; 2180b; 2398b
•	1279 ^b	מערי	21074	נאַב	2141 , 2100 , 2000
-	2590b; 3076a	ַבְּבַּ לְעַרָנָה		נָאַיתַ	2141a
	851°; 1105°		2107a	ۮٙڲٙڔ	820b; 2538b
	97a; 2467b; 2865a,b		1118a; 3000b	1歳5	1120 ^b
	97°; 1128°; 1339°;		see נְצֶרָה	נָצַר	1175a; 2123a; 2868a;
· T Ŧ	2205°; 2467°;		2031°; 2155°		3046b; 3074a
	2865 ^{a, b}		2133 ^b	· *	513b; 1633b; 2221a
	943ª	ָּבֶּר נִפּוּשָׁסִים		נַקַב	210 ^a ; 485 ^b ; 1106 ^b ; 2112 ^a
נְמַרּאֱל		, ,	2495a	נקב	2133ª
קבר י אַלִי		- 1	2155a		1106b; 1971b
زڅرې		ַ נְפַרל נְפִרל	2100"		1375b; 2758a
•	1866ь	יָבְּיֻ . לָפָּל	143b; 1224b; 2133b	נקד	734 ^a
-	1866 ^b	י קבי נפַרסִים		נָאָ <i>נ</i> ָה יאי	
•	see בְּמְרוֹד		2118 ^a		668a; 2515b
	1866 ^b ; 2147 ^a			נְקּוֹרָא יָקּוֹרָא	
ַ נַבְּרוֹד		i 취임	2856 ^b ; 2857 ^a ; 2860 ^a ; 2861 ^a		
ָנמְרֹד		נֿפּֿל,	576 ^b ; 1092 ^a ; 1148 ^a ;	ָנָקִי י נָקִיא	
	1866 ^b ; 2147 ^a		3005ª		1
נבְּוֹשָׁר		•	see נְמָּרל	וְנִקּיוֹן נִקּקיוֹן	1470b; 1471a
נָס	1584 ^a ; 2415 ^b ; 2776 ^a ; 3070 ^b	'. '	507ь		340a,b; 2587a
נְסָבָּה	· ·	•	2545 ^b	,	2512 ^b
	328ª	ژ <i>ڤ</i> ھ	50°; 145°; 208°; 418°; 491°; 739°;	***	see כָּרֶר
	see גְּשָׂא		801 ^a ; 1224 ^a ;		2134 ^b
	882a; 1441b; 2454b		1236 ^b ; 1351 ^a ; 1881 ^a ; 1888 ^{a,b} ;	֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֖֓	
	2454 ^b ; 2743 ^a		1889a; 1906b;		
ָּנֶסֶּוּ נֶנֶסֶוּ			1941 ^b ; 1942 ^a ; 2056 ^a ; 2263 ^b ;		2840 ^b
ַ בֶּסֶדְּ	·2639 ^{a, b} ; 2645 ^a		2337 ^{a, b} ; 2408 ^b ;		see ניר
נָסַע	1141a		2495°; 2496°; 2562°; 2563°;	ן בַּרִינָּה ברייהוּ	2134 ^b
נסרה			2837 ^{a, b} ; 2838 ^a ;	ر ترنی ند	,
נעָה	2126a		3028a; 3085a		27 ^b ; 254 ^a ; 288 ^b ; 418 ^a ; 528 ^b ; 580 ^b ;
לעָה לי	2153b	י נפֿע			728b; 1049b;
נְעִראֵל	2132 ^b		1123b	دْشِع	1107 ^b ; 1132 ^b ; 1133 ^a ; 1149 ^b ;
	494 ^b ; 2779 ^a	ב בב רה נפתות		ָנָסָת נְסָת	1150b; 1221a;
	2779a, b	ַ בַּפַּעֻתִים		7.41	1248°; 1418°; 1890°; 2399°;
נעם	2106a		2118 ^b ; 2119 ^b		2454°; 2469°;
נע <u>ם</u>	*		1120b; 1345a		2561 ^b ; 2903 ^b ; 2942 ^b ; 3046 ^a
נבֿמָּנ בזי		•	1392b; 1443b; 2743b	רוזוֹא	1484a
בַּבְּבְייי בַּבְּבְייי		-	see נְצִיב	1.7	1049 ^b
		نفر زغر			
	2106a, b	1.1	2625b		see נְשׁרָא
נּבְּבָּתָתִי	Z106°	٠ 1 ڳ 1	see װְצָה	ذشغب	see כשוראה

		-		
741a; 816a; 1049b;		D	סוּמְפּוֹנְיָה)
1865 ^b ; 3041 ^b קשׂראָה (ביטׂראָה	סָאָה	931b; 1123b; 2708a;		2095a; 2097a
رْبَابْخِت \$580 خ	סאולד	3080* 503 ^b	סִרפֹּנְרָא	J
לְעָר 814 אַלֶּער	קאפאָה קאפאָה		קננה	0140. 97440
בְּשִׂרָא (569°; 755°; 1289°; 1441°; 2454°;	' ' '	2629a; 3088a		914a; 2744a
ا برساه (برساه عام) (برساه عا		2710ь	סהק סהס)
$(3046^{a}$	1	3086 ^b	φα	1422 ^b ; 2874 ^{a, b}
בְּעָׁיִרָּה 2080 בְּעָׁיִרָּה 2080 בּייִ	סְבָּאָר	2629a		1423b; 1985a
אַשָּה see נְשִׁים	סָבַב	656b; 694b; 706a;		2874ª
לְּשִׁרְקָה 1813b בייד 1865b 2041b	סָבִּיב	1107 ^b	סות	242a; 704b; 1052b;
נְשֶׁרְּ (1865º; 3041º 3041º (שֶׁרָּ	סָבִיבָה סְבִיבָה			1117 ^b ; 2538 ^b ; 2871 ^a ; 3078 ^b
לְשָׁכָּה 591 ^b		1121ª	סוֹת	696b; 943a
ַטָּטָם 592°; 1826°		2972a		2871 ^b ; 3083 ^a
יַּטְּמָה (145b; 486b; 518a;	סְבָּנִּ	1132a; 1437a; 2972a	סור	816 ^b ; 819 ^a ; 993 ^a ;
592°; 973°; 1474°;	סַבְּכָא	20050 20070	שוֹר	
2495° 1ਾਂ) 490°	מַּבְּכָא	2095°; 2097°	סְ תָּבָה	671a; 2524b
797b; 798b; 2143b		2783a	סָׁחָר	2180 ^b
ַם 1813 ^b ; 1814 ^a		528 ^b	סָתַר	687b; 1995b
P 📆 \ 251°; 254°; 1340°;	1 22 1	1060ª	סַתַר	2035ь
ُ 14 ⁸⁸ کی این اوس		2783ª	סָתַר	3002b; 3004b
\$85 בָּשָׁר \$	סְבְרֵים	2783ª	סְחֹרָה	
נִתִרב see נְתִבָּה	מבמב מבמא	2636a	סֹתֶרֶת	1984 ^b
נְתִרן see נְתרּן	סַבִּמִּכָא סַבְמָּה	26262	ָסָרג ַ	880°
הַבָּה 5*; 769		3110 ^a	סדג) ===
ָלְתִּיב (קִּרָב 535b; 2263a; 3007b;	1	3110 ²		541 ^b ; 2813 ^b
1 ₹ 3.1₹ (3075b		584a; 709a	סיחון	2790°
ימ כָה		2294 ^b	סיחן	
ן נְתִּילְ נְתִּרְּןְ נְתִּרְּןְ	סְגַּדְ	263ª	'	2802ª
לְתָּרְלָ 2139b; 2825b	סָבָּן	830b; 1289b; 1965a;		2805ь
ָּבָּהָ 2052°	770	2626 ^a 584 ^a ; 669 ^b ; 2558 ^a ;	סָרנַר	2802ь
ים (173 ^b ; 210 ^a ; 728 ^b ;	ָסָגַר 	2864ª	•	2805 ^b
820;b 1144b;	סָּדִין	876°; 1111°; 1894°	סִיסְרָא	
1395°; 1859°;		2821ь	סִרעָא	
1865 ^b ; 1968 ^a ; 2178 ^a ; 2825 ^b		1083°; 2200°; 2905°	סִיצְהָא	
ַּלָּהָנָ 2120°; 2450°		2178		see סוֹמְפּוֹנְיָה
לְתַנְאֵל 2121a; 2139a	_	2456° 2820°		541a; 1116a; 1119b; 1419a; 2237a;
לְתַּלְנָת	1	376 ^b	סִירָה מרה	2423°; 2974°; 3073°
לְתַּנְיָהוּ {2139ª		see סיג	'.	829 ^b ; 2292 ^b
י 2121 לַתַּוְ־מֶלֶּהְ		1441 ^a		503b; 829b; 2292b;
ימע 3081 (מע	-	132 ^b ; 1681 ^b ; 2105 ^a	,	2948 ^դ
517 ^b בַּתַּץ		2821a	סכות	
פְתָּק 517 ⁶ קתָק 2701 ⁶ ; 3081 ⁶	סרת	2868 ^a	ספת	J
אָנֶיָּנֶ 2701°; 3061° מַנֵּר 316 ⁶	סוֹטֵי	2837ª	סְכּוֹת בְּנוֹת	
ַנְתָּר 2153º	סרק	138ª	סָכָּר	2870a
ν ν				

₹ ₽ ₽	קרַנת־סַנָּה see סַנָּה	קָרָ 2732 ^b
קבָּיֶּי \2743° קבּיִי אָבְיּי	סְנוּאָה 1342a,b; 2721a	סָרִים 591b; 1037a; 2180b
2711ء סְכָכָה	אָלָסָ וֹנֹאַבּאר, בּוֹצוֹי	סָרָם (סָרָם
קֿכֶל 896 ^b ; 1125 ^a .	2720° סַנְחֵרִיב	קרָדָּ 24386
ېرو 1124 ^{a, b} ; 1125 ^a ;	מַלְמַנָּה 2690°	پَرَرَ 1929 ^b ; 2377 ^a ; 2408 ^a
2837ª	ნნ 2091 ^b ; 2092 ^a ; 3109 ^a	σ כָּרְעַפָּה $513^{ m b}$
ְ סְבְלוּת (סְבְלוּת \$896 (מַלְרָת	סר see סקס	לְרְפַּד 2974 ^b
	סְמֵר 2813ª	376₽ סָרַר
120 64 ^b ; 603 ^a ; 2450 ^a ; 2753 ^b ; 2754 ^a ;	סָעַד 2545 ^b	סְתֶּוֹל (סְתֶּוֹל 2710b; 3089a
2853b; 3008a;	סָּעִיה 513٠	סְתָּרֵר מִי בְּיִינִי בְּיִינִי בְּיִינִי בְּיִינִי בְּיִינִינִי בְּיִינִינִי בְּיִינִינִי בְּיִינִינִי בְּיִינִינִי
31292	קַעָּס 2198°	יר 2743 ^b
קבות _{see} קבות 412b; 413a	סְלָה } 2198°	□no }
יַבָּע 412°; 415° 2791°	שׁיִּעִם שִׁיּעִם	ع الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الل
1338 ⁶ סַלַד	קֿעַפָּה 5136	סָתַר 669 ₆
יבָּטְ 1355° 2714°	בער }2929b; 3083a	مَثر } ³⁷⁶
* *	ְסְעָּרָה / פֿייַרָה	ياغنان
קלֶם 2096º; 2488º; 2963º קלר	ከው 1175 ^b ;1435 ^b ;1436 ^b ; 2690 ^b	2813° סתְרִי
סלרא	קּהָה 704b; 1350b	ヹ
סְלִרָּא ≥ 2663°; 2664b	קפַם 2701°	ጋን 670°; 1132°
ל סַבּּר	תַּשָׁעָ דְּיִייִי עָיֹבָּת	לְבַּד 695b; 2409b; 2742b;
סְלּוֹדְ	กกุฐบุ 1867ª; 2701ª	3110 ⁿ
7150 29746	סְפִּינָה 2774°; 2775⁴	1968 ^a
יסְלַח (1132°; 1133° סָלַח	סְפֵּיר 709º; 2856º; 2857º;	לֶּבֶּר 495º; 890º; 1182º; 1983º; 2738º;
סַלּר see סַלַּר	2861 ^b	2815°; 2825°
מַלְכָּה 2662 ^b	511b; 854b בּפֶּל	8777 4°
1392ף סָלַל	790 587°	עבר אֱדוֹם 2175 בי אֱדוֹם
סללה (282a. 1202b. 2787a	790 587°	40 עַבְּדָאֵל
383°; 1392°; 2787° סוֹלְלָּה	كَةَثُو مَقَوْكُ }	אַבֿרָה (176°; 494°; 495°; 2742°
737a; 1119b; 2032b; 2216a; 2593b;	סָפֵר (256º; 336º; 723º;	176° עַבְּרָּה
2596°; 2713b;	813 ^b ;902 ^b ;903 ^{a, b} ;	ליי (4a, b
2856a	1815 ^b ; 1886 ^a ; 2000 ^a ; 2689 ^b ;	י - 495° מַבְדוּת 495°
ֶּסֶלֵע בְּיִלְיּת בְּיִלְקוֹת בְּיִלְקוֹת בְּיִלְקוֹת בְּיִלְקוֹת בִּילִקוֹת בִּילִקוֹת בּיִלְקוֹת בּילִקוֹת בּילִת בּילְתוֹת בּילְתוֹת בּילִת בּילִת בּילִת בּילִת בּילִת בּילִת בּילִת בּילִת בּילִת בּילִת בּילית בּילִת בּילית בילית	2704b; 2754a;	עבדי 4°
קלְעָם 1473°; 1907°; 1908°	3123a	לַבְּדִּראֵל ⁴⁴
לת 1111a; 1122a	ן אפר (182b; 495b; 496a; 503a,b; 729b;	לבַדְיָה 2173° אירריבר
DD 2840°	1041b; 1570a;	לבַדְיָהרּ (עֹבַדְיָהרּ
יבוֹ 2674 סַמְגַּר נְבוֹ	1812b; 2487a; 2597a; 3123a	אָבֶד מֶלֶדְ 890°
. 2947°; 3050°	קפָרָד 2721 סְפָּרָד	ָּבֶבֶר כְּגוֹ 46
司20 1337b	סֶפֶּר see סְפְרָה	י צַבד נְגראַ
2717° סְמַּכְרָהוּ	יספרור מפרור מ	עבוֹם {1049b; 2408b
	ספרים {2255°; 2721°	7
טְמֶל (סְמֶל 1109º; 1455º) סְמֶל (סְמֶל מִי מִּלְ	סְבָּרִים בּיבּבּבּבּ כְּבָבִים	קברר (עברר) _{585°} 1484°
קנאָה 2719 בּינאָה	2836° בּרֶת	לְבָרִּר ְ קְבָרְ }585°; 1484°
סָנראָה see סְנְאָה	סר 1354 ^b	עבט 667a; 1865b
יַבְבָּט 2681 סְיָבְבָּט	ېږב 2974 ⁶	עַּבְטִיט 667a; 2408b
532 ^{a, b}	ַסַרְבַּל 518 סַרְבַּל	עֲבֵר }667°; 2000°
2720 من الم	ַ מַרְגוּדְ 2693 מַרְגוּדְ	עבר , 2000

צַבירָה	2742 ^b	ַּבָּרָלֵר 56♭	מקם 1086b; 1121a; 1142b
	97a; 459a; 728b;	62ь אַדֻלָּם	עוֹם 425°; 744°; 1142°
	1127°; 1183°;	ייי 152°; 820°; 897° בליי 152°	
	1248a; 1355a;		1861ء ﴿ فَوْدُلا
	2081 ^a ; 2205 ^a ; 2255 ^b ; 3076 ^a	ַ 306⁴ אָרָּדָ	ا ا ا
יירי יי	459°	ַ עַרְנָאּ	יעוֹפֶּר 955 עוֹפֶּר
		ַרָּכָה 57⁴	アラブ 1343°; 3042°, b
لإلها	226 ^a ; 459 ^a ; 890 ^b ; 1354 ^b ; 1758 ^a	עָרָלָה 48°; 259°	ערר 340b; 2527°
עררה	1127 ^{a,b}	קֿבַר 2205 מָלַב	להר 593°; 2111°; 2834b
		לָּדַר 259 ^b ; 1086 ^a ; 2200 ^a	עלר 377°; 1862°; 2422°;
بدني!	1355°; 1446°; 1513°; 1514°	לבר 584°, b; 899°	2709b; 2813b;
צַבַרים	3 ^b	899 בָּדֶר	28144
ֶּבֶּרֹן עֶבְּרֹן		ליי פֿנט פֿני פֿני פֿני פֿני פֿני פֿני פֿני פֿני	לַבַּר 487⁴
≱ ך . ו עַבְרֹנֶה		1	עֹרֵב see עֹרֵב
•		עָרָשׁ 1122º; 1866º	באַ 2868 ⁶
•	2624ª	עָרָה see עַרָּא	ערתֵר 3042⁴
ַעָבת	2972ª	עוֹבֶד 2175⁴	77 343ª
עָבוֹת.)	עוֹבֶל 889♭	עד 1123°; 1248b; 1249b;
, אֲבֹת		ערג ערג 21806	1797ь
צַבוֹת	382a; 709b; 2623b	עוּגָב נייין נייייין ניייין ניייין ניייין נייייין ניייין ניייין נייייין ניייייין נייייין ניייין ניייייין נייייין ניייייייי	%ţ₹}3043°
בַּבֹתָה.	1	עָּגָב 2095°; 2097°	كأبي المتور المناس
	1934a		עואול 342b; 2144ª
•	1934 ^a	עודד 2178b בודר אבר	עַנַבוֹן 1087b; 3072a
		עָרָה 87b; 760b; 2348a	סובר 344⁴
	1472b	אָרָה 340b עַרָּה	קֿוָבָּד 344 ^b
	737a; 2874a,b	1	קֿיָב 345°; 1178°
	2594ь	עָּרָה 1374b; 1469²; 1544b	•
	542a,b	עָרָא עָרָא וויסין עָרָא	אַדוּבָה 345 אַדוּבָּה 345 אַ
עָּנְלָה	734 ^a ; 905 ^b ; 1367 ^b ;	יָרוֹן see עָרוֹן	עזור (עזור 345°
	1905 ^b ; 2999 ^b	ן 340 עַּהִים	רַ דְּעַ)
ב. ליי בנלה		עויה 340b; 2132b	آرِتِّ 342b; 1337b; 1338b
	905b; 906a	עַיּרָת [עַיּרָת	ТŢŸ ,342ь
עַר	120a; 1041a; 1338a;	ערל 103b; 734a; 1049a	אַזַןיָהוּ 344°
	1395b; 2323b; 2411a	לבל (1819 לבל	ካንጂ 3043°
ער	748b; 897a; 1110b;	עוֹל see עוֹל	እን፣ጆ 3043 ^b
-	1852 ^{a, b} ; 3099 ^a	ן עֶּרֶל	עַזִיאָל 344º
الخدا	see עוֹדֶד	پ رْر	עוראַל 3044 אָדיאָל
ַ עָּדָה	48 ^b	ערָלָה 1469º; 3083b	יבייאלר 3044 מָדִראַלר
עַרָה	132b; 653b; 700b;	עוֹלָה	
	701a; 3099a		지각[첫] 3043a, b
ֹעִדּוֹ		עלֶּה	י אַדְּיָהרּ
עדרא	\1447 ^b	עלְה see עלְה	אָזִרוָאָ 344b
עָדָראַ		עוֹבֵל עוֹבֵל 348b	אַזְמֶּנֶת 344b; 345°
עַדוּת	244b; 905a; 1063a,b;	עלל עלל	345b کِټ
	1578^{b}	130b; 705a; 1010b;	לְזְנִיָּהְ 2202 עַּזְנִיָּה
צָדר	2201 ^b	עוֹלֶם 1011º; 1041º; 2323º; 2504º;	<u>ን፤</u> ጶ 1106 ^b
אַרָיָה	} _{48^b}	□?♥ 2925°; 3106°;	2708 לוקא
בָּרָיָהוּר	J	3108 ^b	
עָדרן	55 ^b	לַרָּדָ 1070°	מוקה מאלים מאלים
אָדר נָא	55 ^b	ן אָלוֹן [1101b; 1468b; 1469a;	1374 לְזַר 1374
צַרינו	56ª	קרוֹן ²⁵⁰⁴ ⁶ ; 2798 ⁶	"לֶּדֶר 1374•
צָדיתַיִם	56ª	לוֹנְהּ 883⁵ עוֹנְהּ	עָּדֶר 1040b; 1081b; 3100a
		*	

\$1082 עָּוְרָא	ן ערן־דאר	ַ לֶּכְרָן 2178° עָכְרָ ן
לַזַרְאֵל 342°	943 בין הור	עַּכְשׁרַב 55°; 2737°; 2738°
ן עורה (עורה)	לאַרן־הָּר	ל 585 ^b ; 678 ^b ; 728 ^b ;
ן אָיְרָת ¹³⁷⁴ עוָרָת	952 ערן הַקּוֹרֵא	1136b; 1559a;
יען דר 1082°	952 ערן חַדָּה	2411 ^b ; 2779 ^b ; 2961 ^b
אָרָה 1864 ^b ; 2743 ^b	יַברן קעור 952b	לל במונה מופנה
ייי (1085 ^b בֿיַּדְרָר	יבין בורד 13406	2976ª; 3126 ^b
345 עוריאל	ו פרררה	3033° كۈھ
	9416 בינם	157 2848°
342°; 3043° בְּיֵוּיְהוּ אַן אָרִיָּהוּ אַן אַזְרִיָּהוּ	ערנן 942°; 1346°	עָלָה 522b; 605b; 797b;
345° עַוְרִיקִם	יין, אין אָלְכַּיִם 944 ^b	1107b; 1221a;
יוב פֿבּט בּייָב 1179 בַּיָּתָר 1179	953⁰ ערן רוגל	1248 ^a ; 1267 ^a ; 1392 ^b ; 2639 ^a ;
ענד 2297ъ	953₀ עֵין רִמּוֹן	3046a
בֿב 259 ^b	אַרְן שֶׁבֶּשׁ 954ַם פּפּפּ	לָה 1861 עָלֶה 1861 מָלֶה
בירן 2052° ביירן 2052°	ערן הַנִּים 1548b	رَجْتَ (266 ^b ; 2639 ^{a,b} ; 2641 ^a ;
עָּטִישָׁה 2130°; 2819°	פּבּרהַ 954 עֵין הַפּרהַ 954	2642b; 2643a;
קטַלָּב 414º בְּטַלֵּב 414º	לְנֵים 1086 עָיֵה	
್ದಿ ವಿದ್ದು 1086 _P	955 ערפה	לְנָה 112º
י עטר 762° עטר י עטר	(87 ^b ; 132 ^b ; 171 ^b ;	עַלְנָה _{97°}
•	211a; 288b; 662a;	ּי עַּלְיָה
לְּטְרָה 317ª; 762ª; 763ª; 1801ª	קרד (665 ^{a,b} ; 1136 ^b ;	עַלְיָן ^{97a} ; 112 ^b עַלְיָן
אַטְרוֹת 317º	1337ª; 1376♭; 1491ª; 1492ª;	
אַדָּר עַיִירוֹת אַדָּר 317°	ערר (1596 ^b ; 1810 ^b ;	לוקה 1424°; 2144°; 3045°
•	2191°; 2545°; 2552°; 3001°;	בּלִר 2348 עֲלִר 2348 בּ
עַקרוֹת בֵּית (עַקרוֹת בֵּית (מַקרוֹת בַּית	3074°; 3134°	928♭; 1370♭
328°; 2779° עַטְרוֹת שׁוֹפָּדָ	בור 287ª; 678ª,ъ	לַּלָּר 591⁵
ן עַר	1491° עירא	עַלְנָה see עַלְיָה
ጀትን; 88º; 1319 ^b	ליֶרֶד 1491°; 1570°	בּלְּיָה 266b; 591b; 1437b;
וַ שַּלֶּת	עיר הַּמֶּלַת 2664 לִיר הַמֶּלַת	3039° (קליון 1250°; 1250°; 1250°; אַלְיוֹן
889 ביבֶּל	ליר הַקּמָרִים 666₽ ליר הַקּמָרִים	1251°; 1254°;
ער see עַיָּה	1493ª עירוּ	1264 ^b ; 1267 ^a ; 1390 ^a
עַרּוֹן 1449²	עירָר 1492 ^a	יינוסטייינים 1149 ^b
ייים 1121°; 2525°	עירֶם 1491⁴	אַלִילָה ן בּיַרְילָה ן בּיַרְילָה ן בּיַרְילָה ן בּיַרְילָה
	עור נָחָשׁ 1492°	817º בַּלְלָה
בים 475°; 1142°; 1444°; 2533°	ערר שָׁבֶשׁ 1493°	בּלְנָן see בַּלְנָן
1010° עַנטָם	עֵּרִשׁׁ 311º; 313º, b; 314b	יוֹלָל אָפָל אָפָל 26b; 818a; 1234b;
יַּיִרים 1545 עַיֵּר חָעֲבָרִים	كْنِي ﴿ \$311 } \$311 ; \$13 * ، 5 ; \$14 ه	3036°
עררם 1449°	עָר see עַיָּת	עוֹלֵל see עֹלֶל
ייי ביי דער ביי 1449° אילר 1449° דער ביי	יאָכְבּוֹר 36º; 2092b	עַלִילָה see עֲלִילָה
	עַבְּרִשׁ 2737º; 2840º	עַלִם 1560⁴
ערלם { בילם }	לַכְּבָּר 1106 ^b ; 1906 ^a ; 1907 ^a ;	עוֹלָם see עֹלֶם
עוֹלָם עוֹלָם	2092 ^ь 28 <u>°</u> עכו	פּלְמָה 891b; 1458a,b; 1967b;
אַרָל 88 ^b ; 210°; 267°; 342°; 658°; 674 ^b ;	אבי בפי קבור אַכור 37º	3051b
724°; 941°; 1042°;	•	ייי על מון 100°
1069b; 1085b;	/ * *	2096°; 2488°, פֿלמות
1150 ^b ; 2196 ^b ; 2438 ^a ; 3081 ^a	קֿרָסְדּ 37º אַרְסָדּ 37º אַרְסָדּ 37º אַרְסָדּ	מות לַבֶּן see עַל־מות
יבון בֶּרִי 945º	\$55 ⁶ ; 579 ⁶ ; 2178 ^a ; 2854 ^b	ן של רלד
945 ערך בַּנִּרם	קרָר 35°; 579°	ן דְּבְלָתְיְמָה \ 100° - דְּבְלֶתְיְמָה

	89b; 90a; 98b	تَدُشِه		עַפְעַה	797ь
•	2590a	تَدُثِ لِهَا د	114ª	בּֿפֿר	817 ^b
בּֿלַם	1086 ^b	צַמַשָּׁסֵי	114ս	لاقر	955 ^b
يتو	117 ^a ; 584 ^a ; 1121 ^b ;	لگذح	128ª	לפֶּר	817 ^{a, b} ; 887 ^a
	1215°; 1570°; 1586°; 1593°;	ענָב	1122b; 2527"; 3050°	لأؤر	883°; 887°
	2319ª	עָכֹב	820ª	עַפְרָה	see בֵּית לְעַפְּרָה
לְבֵיד	210°; 1559°; 1968°;	ק נָה	3b; 818a; 1051b;	بْرْدِرۃ	964a; 2198a
	2558 ^a ; 2743 ^b ; 2745 ^b		1099a; 1215b; 2420a; 2488b;	עֶבְרוֹזְ	964ª
עפוד	see עַמַרּד		2831 ^a ; 3036 ^a ;	לֹפֶּרֶת	see עוֹפֶרָת
-	1338a; 2415a; 3033a		3099ª	צץ	1335b; 1374a; 2183a;
ן עַ פורד			128a; 2420a		2778 ^b ; 2847 ^b ; 2854 ^b ; 2972 ^a ;
ַ עַפָּד עַפָּד	1984 ^b ; 2398 ^b	ָ בֶּנָר	2027a; 2420a		3009 ^a ; 3155 ^b
	117 ^b ; 794 ^a ; 797 ^a ;	עָנָרוֹ .	,	ゴボネ	1305b; 1306a; 1547a;
) -==	1931ª	עָנוּב עָנוּב	1		1968 ^a ; 3110 ^a ; 3114 ^a
עַפווֹנִי	117ь	1	1215 ^b ; 2027 ^a	עצב	2426ª
עַמּוֹנִית	118 ^a	1	1439b; 2027a	בַגָּר <u>ה</u>	
עָמוֹס	120ª	צַּלָר	66ª	בֶּבֶּר עֶצְיוֹן נְּבֶר)
עָמוֹק		עָנִר	2420a,b; 2427a	בָּלְילָּי בָּלְילִי	1082ª
עַפִּראָל		ע פָּר	3038ª		1447 ^b ; 2818 ^a
עַמִּיהוּד	117ª	צָנָיָה	128 ^b	يُقرَّ مُقَادِّ	669 ^b
עַפִּיוּלָבִד	117 ^b	ע ֶּכֶּרֶר	see עָנָר	בַּגָעָם בַּצָּב	491b; 493a; 495b;
עַפִּירוּר		עָנִים	136a		1081 ^b
עַפִּינְדִיב	117ь	אַ לְרָדָ	533°; 896°; 3007°	עָגֿם	495 ^b ; 1144 ^b
=	1334ь; 2752а	עַנִם	132ª	גּגִּמָה	17 ^b
עַמִּישׁדֵי		צָנָמים	129 ^a	עַבְּמוֹן	2450
עָׁמִירת		בֿבּמָלָדְּ	61 ^b ; 129 ^a	עַּבְּמֹן	345°
	3007ª	עָכַּד	331a; 522b; 862a;	لآثدُل	1082ª
	1306ь	7 7 77	942 ^b ; 2033 ^b 129 ^a ; 670 ^a	בּאַר	669 ^b ; 2569 ^b
. • •	112 ^b	יין עַכָּנָר		בָּצָרָה	701a; 2822a
ַבָּמָב <u>ֶ</u> ק		בָּלְנָיָה בָּלָנָיָה		لَمُحُدُرة	101, 2022
צַמָּלִקי		בַנה הַנה	129-	נָקב	1549a
ע מָנראֵל		קנה קנה	} 513 ^b	עַקָב	1549a
ַ עָּמַס	1	עָנָם קָנָם	513 ^b	עָקב.	} ₁₃₆₇ a
. לְבֵשׁ	} 1354ª		589°; 2999°	ע ַקְבָּה) 100.
ַבַ ב מְסְיָה		1	128 ^b	עָקְבָּה	2868a
ַב ֶ		1	132 ^b	גלב	see בית עֶקֶד
	439a; 777b; 1583a, b;	1	698a; 1132b; 2093b		2594 ^b
I ₹**	1808 ^{a, b} ; 2092 ^a ;	1	2504b; 3010b	עַקוב עַ	89°; 1549°
	2560°; 2751°; 2784°; 3045°, b	1	130a; 442a; 2748b	<u>גַקל</u> ל	760^{b}
עמה	3045ª	בָּיָי. בֻּנָתוֹת		צַקּלָּחוֹן	309a; 760b
, .	2035 ^a			צַקּד	88 ^b
	1067a; 2188b; 2257a;	עַנְתֹתָי שור היותר	130°; 144°	1	1402 ^b
`` ~	2752°; 3080°	עַנְּתוֹתִי עמות	1780 ^b ; 2140 ^b ; 3086 ^b	1	916a
בְמֹרָה	1277ª		2438 ^b		406°
עָּמְרִי	2191 ^b	1			2703°
בַּמְרָם	125 ^b	*	940 ^b ; 1392 ^a ; 3027 ^b	1	
עַמְרָמִי	126a.	1	2196 ^b	1 ,	27 ^b ; 916 ^a
בָּבִשׁ.	see עָמָס	יָּלְפְּבָּר	21984	ئۆكاس 1	760b; 2348a

 		i -			
י אַקש	1449ª	קָרְמָה		י עַתּוּד	1249°; 2527 ^b
קר	87 ^b ; 211 ^a ; 944 ^b ; see also ערר	ַעַרְמוֹן עַרְמוֹן	3089ª 2407 ^b	ַ עַּאָד	•
77	968ª		968 ^b		1117ª
	945°; 2178°; 2408°	ערָעוֹר 'עַרְעוֹר')		328ª
•	1489a; 2056b; 2083a;		ן ≽see צרוֹעֵר	בְּתָנָה	
	2872a; 3002a;	ַבְּרִיבֵּר צֵרִיבֵר		עַתִּיק	
	30374	ַב <u>ֶּר</u> יבֵּרִי		<u> 1</u> 17	
בֻרֶב			517ª	ַ עַּהְלֵי בּהְלֵי	
בַּרַב		1	2129 ^a ; 2202 ^a ; 2854 ^a	וְצַׁתַלְיָה	(514"
	798 ^b	עָרְפָּה		ַ עַתַלְיָהוּ בריי	
ערב ביר	1041a; 2056b; 3072b; 3077a; 3104b		1307ª	עָתְנִיאֵל בְּוֹיֻנִי	2204b
	1120b; 1473a; 2404b	ַצַרְק ּי			1306 ^b ; 1337 ^b
		I	852a		1036 ^b ; 1543 ^b
שלר. ב סורר	2201°; 2533°, b; 2697°	ָּרֶש ^י	422a; 2181a		17 ^b ; 1145 ^b
	211b; 592b; 593a;		2091b; 2092a		1013a
' '7,'%	801b; 831b; 899b;	עַעָּב	1293°; 1375°	אַתֶּרֶת בֶּיֶרֶּי	
	1041a; 2407a	עָשָׂיה עָ	522b; 704b; 1051b;	a . "'a"' z,	
	2408b		1098b; 1121a; 1149b; 1221a;		Ð
•	886 ^b ; 2408 ^b		1968a, b; 2027b;	7789	721b; 2513a
בַּרָבִי	7.0000°		2178°; 2248°; 3105°	•	1239ª
<u>עַרְבִּר</u>		בֿמָראַל		· ·	1278 ^b
בֿרַבָּתִּי			971ь	ן פֿארָה וֹ פֿארָה	
	221b; 287a	עשור	000 50 . 0045	פֿרָאה	513 ^b
	2013a; 2111a	עשר	2095°; 2947°	פָּארָה	
אַרוּגָּה אַרוּגָה	1150 ^b	עַשָּׁינֶת	272ª	פָּארָז	2247a
	287a; 2544a	لَا شِرْب	262 ^b	1	1108ь
•	864a; 2111a; 3035b	چښر	267 ^a	ן פָּגרל	15
ֶּלֶרוֹם עָרוֹם		בְּשַׁל	2116°; 2198b	פָּגָל	15
בֶּר <u>י</u> ם		1 .	997a; 2116a		1484a; 1490b
	2486b; 2868a	1	997ª	פֿכּב	593ь
ָ צַרוֹעֵר)		1069a	פַּנְעִראֵל	
ַ עַרְעָּר		עֶשֶׂר	2944b		1086 ^b
צֵרֹעֵר	259a; 2908a	בְּשָׂרָה 		פנר	576 ^b ; 722 ^b
עַרְעוֹר		. *	2590ъ	1	2022a; 2530a,b;
	969ь		see עָשׁוֹר	**	2531b; 2541a
עָרִיץ	2949ь	עָּשָּׂרוֹן 	811a; 2948a	פַּדַהְאֵל	2294 ^b
עָרַדָּ	259b; 694b; 1006a;	لاچا ا	70.4h	פֿבּריצוּר	2294 ^b
	1010 ^a ; 1149 ^b ; 2200 ^{a, b}		704 ^ь 2773 ^ь	פָּדוֹן	2207ª
ערה	1010 ^a ; 1144 ^b ; 2467 ^b	. •	270°; 584°	שַּׁבָירָה. פַּבָירָה:	$_{2294^{ m b}}$
	3035ь	עומבות	2105; 5545	פַּבֶּירָהוּ	S 22945
_	1131 ^b ; 3035 ^b	בַּשְׁיָּגוּ ווּזּ בַשְּׁיָגוּ ווּזּ	}270 ^{a,b} ; 2753 ^a	פִּדִינֹם)
	2407 ^b	עומוסרת	270b 2380b	פָּדִים	OFFICE PORCE
	see בירוֹם	עוֹמִימוֹרָת בּיִינִיינִיי)	פַּדְיוֹן	2530a,b; 2531a,b
	see עָרוֹם	ַלַּרְנֵים בַּשְׁיתִּרִת בַּשְׁיתִּרִת	}270°	פּדיון	J
ڕۨڗڡ	1350 ^b		see עַתוּר	פֿנו	logoch
צֵרֶכֶּיה	1990~	עָתוּד	3007b; 3008a	פַּדַּן אֵרָם	}2206 ^b

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2422 [†] ; 2814 [†] ; 30096	1 150		· .		1	
18 2002 1231; 2425; 3049 1230; 2207; 2379,		2422b; 2814b;	· .		نظر بها زءا	2026°; 2297°; 2376°, b: 2963°
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2062*; 2408*; 3104* 706*; 797* 706*;	פּרּתַ	490 ^b	* * * * * *	•		
The content of the	פרט	2392b; 2511a	11.50		1	
대한 18 2423	פּוּטָיאֵל	2511a	_	2805a; 3104b	1	
1435; 1607* 1441* 1435; 1607* 1441*	פּוֹטִיפַר	2423a				•
1793*; 2208* 1298* 2296*; 2866* 1298*; 2358* 1298*; 2358* 1298*; 2358* 1298*; 2358* 1298*; 2358* 1298*; 2366* 1298*; 2366* 1298*; 2366*; 2366* 1298*; 2366*; 2366* 1298*; 2368*; 2358* 1298*; 2368*; 1181*; 1114*; 1125*; 1125*; 1181*; 1144* 1298*; 237*; 2438*; 2561*; 237*; 2438*; 2561*; 237*; 2438*; 2561*; 237*; 2438*; 2561*; 237*; 2438*; 2561*; 237*; 2388* 1298*; 2366*; 2358* 1298*; 2368*; 2358* 1298*; 2368*; 2358* 1298*; 2368*; 2358* 1298*; 2368*; 2358* 1298*; 2368*; 2358* 1298*; 2368*; 2368*; 2368*; 2368*; 2368*; 2368*; 2368* 1298*; 2368*; 2368*; 2368* 1298*; 2368*; 2368* 1298*; 2368*; 2368* 1298*; 2368*; 2368* 1298*; 2368*; 2368* 1298*; 2368*; 2368* 1298*; 2368*; 2368* 1298*; 2368*; 2368* 1298*; 2368*; 2358* 1298*; 2368*; 2368* 1298*; 2368* 1298*; 2368* 1298*; 2368* 1298*; 2368* 1298*; 2368* 1298*; 2368* 1298*	פרה		פְּלָאיָה	eee פֿלָיָה	1 155	1435a: 1607b
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1			פַֿלַג	2296ь; 2866ь		
1			פַֿלַג	2296 ^b		
지역 25014	•		פֶּלֶג	2296b; 2595a; 2866b;	1	, •
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13/8 13066	פוק	1150^{b}	1			
10 25066	פולה	1306ª	1 .7.7			
25066 対方数 2235°; 2358 フラッド 2860°; 2861°. b フラッド 2392°; 2506°; 3086 円数 316°; 2409 フラッド 2400° フラッド 240° フラッ	פור	2156^{b}	T. 1	·		
ברים 2392°; 2506°; 3086° רוֹם 2297° רוֹם 2392°; 2506°; 3086° רוֹם 316°; 2409° רוֹם 2421° אוֹם 2398° 2398° בעווי 2400° בעווי 2501°; 2511° רוֹם 2742° רוֹם 2400° בעווי 2501°; 2511° רוֹם 2742° רוֹם 2400° רוֹם 2400° רוֹם 2400° רוֹם 2400° רוֹם 241° רוֹם 241° רוֹם 241° רוֹם 241° רוֹם 241° רוֹם 1118° רוֹם 1118° 1274° רוֹם 1148° רוֹם 1334° רוֹם 102°; 2856° רוֹם 2297° רוֹם 102°; 2856° רוֹם 2297° רוֹם 102°; 2856° רוֹם 2298° רוֹם 2255°, 2365° רוֹם 2512° רוֹם 112°; 2856° רוֹם 2386°; 2358° רוֹם 2255° 2365° רוֹם 1146°, 2987° רוֹם 2296° רוֹם 1146°, 2401°; 2681° רוֹם 1146° רוֹם 1146° רוֹם 1146° רוֹם 1146° רוֹם 1146° רוֹם 1146° רוֹם 1148° רוֹם 114	פור	1	1		פָּנִיבִיּי	2932 ^b
ב פַּרִינוּ בַּצַינוּ בַּצַיוּ בַּצַינוּ בַבַּצוּ בַּצַינוּ בַּצַיוּ בַּצַינוּ בַבַּינוּ בַּצַינוּ בַּבַּינוּ בַּבַּייוּ בַּבַּינוּ בַּבַּינוּ בַּבַּינוּ בַּבַּינוּ בַּבַינוּ בַּבַיבוּ בַּבַינוּ בַּבַיבוּ בַּבַּיבוּ בַּבַיבוּ בַּבַיבוּ בַּבַיבוּ בַּבַיבוּ בַּבַיבוּ בַּבַיבוּ בַּבוּ בַּבוּ בַּבוּ בַּבוּ בַּבוּ בַּבוּ בַּבוּ בַּבוּ בַּבוּ בַבַּבוּ בַּבוּ בַּבוּ בַבוּ בַּבוּ בַּבוּ בַּבוּ בַּיבוּ בַּבוּ בַּבוּ בַּבוּ בַבוּבַיבּ בַּבַיבוּ בַבּיבוּ בַּבּיבּיי בַבַּבּיבּי בַבַּבּיבּי בַבּיבּיבוּ בַבְיבוּ בַּבְיבוּ בַּבַיבוּ בַּבְיבוּ בַּבְיבוּ בַּבְיבוּ בַּבְיבוּ בַּבְיבוּ בַּבְיבוּ	פורים	2506 ^b			פָּכָרדָ	709a: 2860a: 2861a,b
ステープ 2421a 大力学 2398b スロープ 2400b マープ 1111a 2501b 2511a ブラウ 2742b ブラウ 2400c マープ 1111a 1274a ブラウ 2742b ブラウ 2400c マープ 1441a カラウ 2501b 2511a ブラウ 2400c マープ 1441a カラウ 2501b 2408c ブラウ 256c 100p 1334b マープ 1441a カラウ 2408c ブラウ 255c 2365b ブラウ 255c 2365b マープ 1445a ブラウ 255c 2365b ブラウ 255c 2365b マープ 2681a 2986b ブラウ 236b 236b ブラウ 2512b マープ 2681a 2986b ブラウ 2512b ブラウ 2512b マープ 1146c 2401b 2681b ブラウ 2512b エーブ 1146c 2401b 2207c ブラウ 2512b エーブ 1146c 2401b 2007c ブラウ 2512b エーブ 1146c 2401b ブラウ 2207c ブラウ 2401b エーブ 2861a 2862a ブラウ 2401b エーブ 2861a 2862a ブラウ 2207c ブラウ 2207c エーブ 1825c ブラウ 2208c ブラウ 2366c ブラウ 2366c エーブ 2396c ブラウ 2366c ブラウ 2358b エーブ 2366c ブラウ 2247c ブラウ 2366c ブラウ 2358b エーブ 236c ブラウ 2366c ブラウ 23	פָרים	}	קַּלוֹנִ י	2297 ^b	פָּנִר	,,
1111a 2501b 2501b 2511a 1111a 274a 1111a 1274a 1111a 1274a 1111a 1274a 1111a 1274a 111a 111a 1274a 111a	פֿוּרָה	2392b; 2506a; 3086b	פַֿלַת	316 ^b ; 2409 ^b	פַנפָּה:	2298ª
1111a 1274a 111a 1274b 111a 1274a 112a 112	פוֹרָתָא	2421a	פֿלָטָא	2398ь	פֿֿסַג	2400 ^b
T 및 1111a; 1274a TTE			פֿלָטַנ	2742 ^b	פַּסְנָּה	2400 ^a
1441b ロラ東 2297a 元 東 962b; 1323b 元 東			פַֿלַט	1148ª	قَوْت	1334 ^b
1441a,b; 2408a; 2819a קליט 580 מליט 589a; 2256a 100	•		פָּלֶני	2297a	#Op	962ь; 1323ь
2819a	•		פַּלִנד	see פָּלִים	פַּסַת	889a; 2256a
####################################	-		פָּלֵטָה	see פְּלֵיטָה	قَوْتِ	2255a; 2365b
בַּלְּמָי בְּלֵהְי בְּלַהְי בְּלֵהְי בְּלַהְי בְלַהְי בְּלַהְי בְּלְהְי בְבְיהְי בְּלְהְי בְּלְהְים בְּלְהְים בְּלְהְים בְּלְהְים בְּלְהְים בְּלְהְיִיבְיהְ בְּלְהְיִבְיהְ בְּבְיּרְהְיִבְיהְיְבְיהְיבְיהְים בְּבְיהְיבְהְיהְיבְּבְיהְיבְהְיהְיבְּבְיהְיבְהְיבְ	قتد	1102a; 2856a	פַּלְטָר	2236b; 2358b	פֿסַת	1823 ^b
בַּינִינִינִינִינִינִינִינִינִינִינִינִינִי	ಗಗಿಕೆ		פּלִטֵיר	23994	פָסָרל	581b; 2512b
בַּלְינִיה (71b; 672a מְלָהָה (71b; 672a מְלָהָה (71b; 672a מִלְהָה (71b; 672a מִלְהָה (71b; 2681b מַלְהָה (71b)			פַּלִטִיאָל	2236b; 2358b	वृद्ध	2255ª
אַב (אַרָהָר (אַרָה (אַר (אַרָה (אַרָה (אַרָה (אַרָה (אַרָה (אַרָה (אַרָה (אַרָה (אַרָה (א	פתם			1	שָּׁסֵל <u></u>	2512 ^b
בפונים ביינים			1	14490	פַּסֶל	581b; 1450a; 2512b
אַרָּהַריוּ 1146° אַרָּהַר 109° 1146° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְּלָרִי 1148° מְלָרִי 1148° מִלְרִי 1148° מִלְרָי 1148° מִלְרָי 1148° מִלְרָי 1148° מִלְרָי 1148° מִלְרִי 1148° מִלְרְי 1148° מִלְרִי 1148° מִלְרִי 1148° מִלְרְי 1148° מִלְרְי 1148° מִלְרְי 1148° מִלְרְי 1148° מִלְרְי 1148° מִי 1148° מִלְרְי 1148° מִלְרְי 1148° מִלְרְי 1148° מִלְרְי 1148° מִלְרְי 1148° מִלְרְר 1148° מִלְרְר 1148° מִלְרְר 1148° מִלְרְר 1148° מִיי 11				1	פָסַנְמֶרֵין	10007-
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ففأثي	2864ª	פָּרֶדּ	763 ^b	ਹੁਨ੍∌	381
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פַקד	see פֿקּרד	פַּרַם	2032a; 3038b		2196 ^b
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,	3058ª	פַּרַס	2032a; 2329a; 2335a	בר. בֿנוֹג	1105. 0700
	2296ь	פַּרָסָה	667ª		1125a; 2798a
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₽ ₽			340a; 1055b; 2111a	פְתִיגִיל פִתַיּוּת	
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פֿרבֿר	22474	פָּרָצִים	2320ª		1931ь
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	2246°; 2248°; 2831°	פרלוו	2846 ^b 2032 ^a ; 2854 ^b .		1906°; 1907°; 2999 ^b
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	2247ª		1423 ^{a, b} ; 2032 ^b	**	1267b; 1433b;
	see \$ţ\$	פַּרְשַׁינְדָּתָא פַּרְשַׁינְדָּתָא		いな立立	1919 ^a ; 2188 ^b ; 2742 ^a ; 3148 ^b
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-	2255°	:	1069ь	וַ אָבֹיִ ם	
מרגב פּנונים		<u>פַ</u> ּשִׁדוּר	2255a	غُذِد	132b; 2875a
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	3049 ^b 2323 ^a	1.	1118а; 3000ь	עָבִי	144 ^a ; 817 ^{a, b} ; 1179 ^a ;
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アンネ 1444*	מוֹפָר 3156 ^b	בּלְחָה 2237⊾ צֵלֶחָה
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	(אידיע	차가 2973a
عانغت عنائلات علي المناطقة المناطقة المناطقة المناطقة المناطقة المناطقة المناطقة المناطقة المناطقة المناطقة الم	3047b	ליי, ביילי 38°; 287°; 724°;
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$\left. ight. ight. \left. ight. ight. ight. \left. ight. ight. \left. ight. $	יַּרְעָּתְר 3157•	קדמוני see קדמוני
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Yair see Yar	פראם פרטיים	1789 ^a ; 1971 ^b ; 2007 ^b ; 2821 ^b
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	144a; 165b; 584a;	2257 ^b
ובות קליתום 1811° (הרות הערות	2218°; 2511b;	2597 הֹלְלִים
ן קרית יערים קרית ערים 1811-	בים (2589°; 3037°; 3084°; 3156°	בים 2910 ^b
• •	ן בים	בּ546 לֶנֶם 2546 בּנֶם
קרְיַת־סַנָּה 813 ^b ; 1812 ^b	709a,b;2529a;2860a;	לַנַלָ 2094 בָּנַל
מְרְיַת־סֵפֶּר פְיִינִי פְּרְיַת־סֵפֶּר פִייני פּיי	לָרָאמֹת ^{2861b}	960º
777 2773b	382a; 569a; 606a; 691b; 897b; 1113a;	בע 2076 בנע 2076 ב
ر باز (باز تا 131 ^b ; 1322 ^b ; 1392 ^b ; 1422 ^a ; 1756 ^a ;	1127b; 1318a;	ټټل (ټټل ا
2095a; 2097a	1390°, b; 2400°; 2415°; 2441b;	بخشاء أجور
יורן הפרד 1793°	2454b; 2623b;	קֿדָּר 2626°
665₽ څړ ت	2982 ^b ; 3024 ^b ; 3025 ^a	777 2524⁴
קירם see קרם		3047° בְּדִיד
1125⁴ קרְסֹל	רוש } 11666 הרוש .	ברם 282 ^b ; 2817 ^b
קב ע 670º	see באש	1121 לָדַתּ
2524 ^b	ראשורן (ראשורן 1113°, 1127°; 1136°;	- בְּהַב 2871 בְּהַב
קרַקע 510b; 1435a; 1790a	וווואל, ווואל, ユ ラ フ 2525b	
יוקר 1790°	וויבי 130b	רהט 1167 ⁶ ; 1320 ⁶ ; 1437°
434°; 491°	ליית (באשׁרת 426°; 606°; 1113°, b;	רָהִים (הַיִּנִים בּיִּנִים בּיִנִים בּיִנִים בּינִים בּינִים
1790⁴ קַרְמָּה	1200°; 2453°	1136° בר
1790⁴ בּרְפָּדָ	בר 17b; 569a; 1294a;	ריב see דוּב
변 2866 ^b ; 2867 ^b	1307b; 1569b; 1981b; 2522a;	2545 רָנָה 2545
جنب 765 ^b ; 1122 ^a	2775ª	רֶנֶה 880₀
328 אָשֶׁב 328 אָשֶׁב	1981 רָבַב	רוֹדֶנֶה { 2597°
קשׂוָה בּעוֹיָה; 2425 ^b	2159- רְבָבָה	رباني (خارب المربية المربية المربية المربية المربية المربية المربية المربية المربية المربية المربية المربية ال
קּשָׁה 1337ь; 1338°	רַבָּד 2909⁰	952b; 1306b
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708s; 724s; 072s; 1074s; 1255s; 1350s; 1351s; 1351s; 1351s; 1360s; 1351s; 1360s; 1351s; 1360s; 1361s; 1388s; 1918s; 2056s; 2496s; 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2515s, 2497s; 2615s, 2497s; 2615s, 2497s; 2615s, 2497s; 2615s, 2497s; 2615s, 2497s; 2617s, 2		······································	
13.50°; 13.51°; 1406°; 1474°; 1888°; 1918°; 2305°; 2490°; 2490°; 2515°°, 2560°;	708a; 724b; 973a;	2402°; 2525°;	
1406b; 1474e; 1888e; 1918e; 2056e; 2496b; 2496b; 2456e; 2496b; 2566a; 2496b; 2566a; 2687b; 2667b; 2			רָכוּשׁ see בְּכִישׁ
1888s; 1918s; 2056s; 2490s; 2497s; 2515-b; 2562s; 2562s; 2562s; 2562s; 2562s; 2562s; 2562s; 2562s; 2562s; 2562s; 2562s; 2562s; 2818s; 2837s; 2841s; 3037s print of p		םקֶּהֶ 492°; 511°; 2453°	רָאָם see
고 2402*	1888 ^a ; 1918 ^a ; 2056 ^a ; 2496 ^b ;	1228"	258 ^b ; 1569 ^b ; 2438 ^b ; 2527 ^b
2818+; 2887+; 2838+; 2838+; 2838+; 2838+; 2838+; 2841+; 3072+; 2538+; 2838+; 2841+; 3073+; 2538+; 2538+; 2538+; 2539+;		' '.'	D, see Din
2838*; 2841*; 3089*			コカコ 454b; 1390a; 2527b
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1332°; 1369°; 1369°; 2527° 1369°; 2527° 1369°; 2527° 1369°; 2527° 1369°; 2527° 1369°; 2528° 1369°; 1468° 1369°; 1369°; 2428° 1366°; 1569°; 2428° 1366°; 1569°; 2428° 1366°; 1569°; 2468°; 2536° 1369°; 2428° 1369°; 2428° 1369°; 2536° 1369°; 2428° 1369°; 2428° 1369°; 2428° 1369°; 2428° 1369°; 2428° 1369°; 2428° 1369°; 2528° 1369°; 2528° 1369°; 2428° 1369°; 2528° 1369°; 2428° 1369°; 2528°		'	
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שלים בלצלים ב	<u>-</u>	ריב 1569 ^b ; 1593 ^a ; 2408 ^b ;	י י י י י י י י י י י
### See ### ### ### ### ### ### ### ###	1	2535⁴ רב	252 בֹמֶח
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האם אור בעוד בעוד בעוד בעוד בעוד בעוד בעוד בעוד	ראש see רוש		1309° רְמְיֵּה
1985a 19	2627°	- " , ,	הבים 547b: 548a: 1424a:
ביין 10976 רְיִין	77 14045 81050	•	
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בּהֹה בּהֹה בּהֹה בּהֹה בּהֹה בּהֹה בּהֹה בּהֹה בּהֹה בּהֹה בַּהַה בּהֹה בּהִה בּהַה בּהֹה בּהֹה בּהַה בּהֹה בּהַה בּהּה בּהּה בּהַה בּהַה בּהַה בּהַה בּהַה בּהַה בּהַה בּהַה בּהַה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהַה בּהַה בּהַה בּהַה בּהַה בּהּה בּהּה בּהַה בּהַה בּהּה בּהּה בּהַה בּהַה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהבּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהּה בּהבּה	ַלְתַב 517⁴	941 ביקם 941 ביקם	, '\9590a
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בית 1881b; 2144a; 2525a היבור היב	517°: 523° רֹחב	.	* * * -)
קרובות הוברין בינות לחיר בינות		"	
לַרָּבָּרָה לַבְּלָרֵה בָּלָרָה בָּלָרָה בָּלָרָה בָּלָרָה בָּלָרָה בָּלָרָה בָּלָרָה בָּלָרָה בָּלָרָה בַּלָרָה בַּלָרָה בָּלָרָה בַּלָרָה בַּלְרָה בַבְּלָר בַּלְרָה בַּבְּיּית בַּלְרָה בַּבְּיּית בַּלְרָה בַּבְּיּית בַּבְּיה בַּבְיּה בַּבְּיּיה בַּבְיּית בַּבְּיּית בַּבְּיְרָה בַּבְּיְרָה בַּיְבָּית בַּבְּיְרָה בַּבְּיְרָה בַּבְּיְרָה בַּבְּיְרָה בַּבְּיְתְיּבְיּה בַּבְּיְתְיְבָּיְתְבְּיִבְיְתְבְּיִית בְּיִבְיְתְבְּיִית בְּבָּית בְבָּית בְבָית בְבָּית בְבָּית בְבָּית בְבָּית בְבָּית בְבְית בְבָּית בְבָּית בְבָּית בְבָּית בְבָּית בְבְּית בְבְיתְבְית בְבָּית בְבָּית בְ			1.2528
ברת הָרָן פּבּר בָּרָת בָּרָה בַּר בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּר בַּרָה בַרָה בַּרָה בַבָּיה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַבָּיה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַבְּיה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּרָה בַּבָּיה בַּבָּיה בַּיה בַּיּיה בַּיִיה בַּיה בַּיּיה בַּיִיה בַּיִיה בַּיבּיה בַּיּיה בַּיּיה בַּיּיה בַּיּיה בַּיּיה בַּיּיה בַּיּיה בַיּיה בַּיּיה בַּיּיה בַּיּיה בַּיּיה בַּיּיה בַּיּיה בַּיּיה בַּיה בַּיּיה בַּיה בַּיּיה	2552a,b	'."	/
בליקייה בליק	•	'	
בל הבלים בל המלים ב	רַתַּבָיָה) _{2550b}		
בקב באר באר באר באר באר באר באר באר באר בא	יְתַבְיָהוּ יִבְיּהוּ בְּיָהוּ יִבְיָהוּ	595° (ر⊄د	1
רבור אובר ביל מור מור מור מור מור מור מור מור מור מור	2551° בתבעם	בָּבב 2535 ^b	-
ברה בין 2052 מון בין 604 מון בין 604 מון בין 604 מון בין 604 מון בין 604 מון בין 604 מון בין 604 מון בין 604 מון בין 604 מון בין 604 מון בין 2594 מון בין 2594 מון בין 2562 מון בין 2688 מון בין 2688 מון בין 2688 מון בין 264 מון בין 2929 מון בין 1097 מון 1097 מון 1167 מון 1167 מון 1049 מון בין 1049 מון		בלה (2535°; 2536°	לַבַּן 764 לָבַן
אובן באובן באובן פון פון פון פון פון פון פון פון פון פו		· ·	לֶּכֶּדָ בַּעָּדָ 1278 בּבָּדָ
בל רחורם (בלוגי בלוגי ב		<u>-</u>	רָסָּה 2594 ^b
בַּלָּהָ בָּלַבּלָּבְּיִּ בְּלַבְּּלָּהְ בָּלַבְּּלְּבְּּלָבְּיִּ בְּלַבְּּלְּבְּּלְּבְּּלְּבְּּלְּבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּלִבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּּלְבְּלִבְּבְּלְבְּבְּלִבְּבְּלְבְּבְּבְּלְבְבְּבְּבְּלְבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּ	יְחב see רְחוב		رَّوْرَ 482b; 483a; 2561a
רְּחִלֹק (קְּחַלֹּק (קְּחַלֹּק (קְּחַלֹּק (קְּחַלֹּק (קָּרָל (קָרַל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרָל (קָרַל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרָל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרָל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרָל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרָל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרָל (קָרַל (קָרָל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרַל (קָרַל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קּירָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קּירָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קָרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּירָל (קָרָל (קּרָל (קָרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּירָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּיִיל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּיּיל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּרָל (קּיּיּיְייייייייייייייייייייייייייייייי	ב 2552⁴; 2553⁴	, , , ,	
רְּחִקׁ (1047 הַבְּלָה הַבְּל הַבְּלָה הַבְּל הַבְּלַה הַבְּל הַבְּבְּל הַבְּל ב הְבָּל הַבְּל הַבְּלְב הְבַּלְב הְבַל הַבְּל הַבְּלְב הְבָּל הַבְּבְּל הַבְּלְב הְבְּלְב הְבְּלְב הְבַב הְבַּבְּל הַבְּבְּל הַבְּבְּל הַבְּבְּל הַבְּבְּל הַבְּבְּבְיב הְבּבּל הַבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּב	ן בְּחוֹק	1	•
1167 ^b לַּהָרְיָּט (בְּלֵבְּלָּהְ בָּלַבְּלָבְּלָּהְ בָּלַבְּלָבְּלָּהְ בָּלַבְּלָבְּלָּהְ בָּלַבְּלָבְּלָבְּלָבְּלְבְּלָבְּלְבְּלָבְּלְבְּלְ	', '}1097"	הַבַל 687b; 2427b; 3002a	1041 ^b ; 1042 ^b
רָהֶל (2122 בּבְּלָה 1049a; 2523b; 2524a בּבְּלָה 1049a; 2523b; 2524a בּבְּלָה 2035a; 3002a; 3004b; 2155a; 2798 3005a 3083b; see als	, ,	ַ בָּכֶל בָּכֶל 2523⁵	1043a, b; 1354a
אר רְּחַם 3005a 3083b; see als רָּחַם 18a; 695a; 2035b;			
בתה 18°; 695°; 2035°; מה 1221° הה 18°; 695°; בתה 1221°	•		3083b; see also
		ָּרֶבֶשׁ 548°; 1221°	

77 \ 1022a; 1106a; 1934a;	יפידים 2560°	לֶּהֶם \$525°; 672°; 1781°
ברע 2132b; 2553°	2559 ^b	רֶּהֶם י
רע 2122b; 3084a	בְּסְכָּה 2774⁵	רְמְמָה 2595⁴
לעב 10976	1141b رَفِلًا	ij and ij
ָלֶבְב ; 1097°; 1440°	לפֶּת 2847 בּפֶּת	w and w
רּעָבון 1097•	7ጋ 2076 ^b ; 2395°	عَمِّبُ 873b
1102° רְעָּדָה	メネゴ 866 _P	ליארל (27a; 974b; 992b;
コ グラ 523a; 584a; 631b; 1375b; 2258a;	つ学り 27 ^b ; 321 ^a ; 820 ^a ; 2094 ^a ; 2536 ^b ;	ליאל (1370 ^b ; 1905 ^b ; 2401 ^b ; 2761 ^a
2763°; 2825°; 2921°; see also	29878	ָּעָאוּל 2677º; 2697b; 2751º; 2790º
רבים, בסט מונים	רָצֵּלֹךְ (27b; 820b; 1102a; 1292a; 2408b;	ברלי בפסיי שארלי 2697 ⁶
1146° בֶּעֶה	7型プ 2716b; 3085a	י אַרּוֹדְ 1423°; 2154°
רֶּלֶה 1106°; 2825°	ПРЭ 288b; 746b; 1418a;	で 対対 833b
רְעַר 2572 יִרְעַר .	1983b	(282b) 704b) 1205a)
רעראַל 2525°; 2573b	እን¥ግ 2595°	עַאַל (282b; 704b; 1305a; 1472b; 1865b;
רעית 2627∗	. ביין 2588 ביין 2588	טָּיאֵל 2358°; 2761°;
בּעָּל 2553 יוֹעָל 2553 יוֹעָל	하보기 2076b	3096 ^b 2752 ^a
2763° ביקר	「東京 671b; 2588a 671b 1004b 0000b	אלי see אול bad
1106° בענה	ក្នុង 671 ^b ; 1984 ^b ; 2292 ^b ; 2595 ^a	•
בּערוֹן 673°; 896	ア 楽フ 523ª; 526 ^b	ליימלא 1865 ליימלא
רעלה 2093 בעלה	1438 ^b ; 1439 ^a	ליאליד \ 2358°
רעליה 2445°	2846	المارية المارية المارية المارية المارية المارية المارية المارية المارية المارية المارية المارية المارية المارية
לעם 709a; 1145b	2624 רָקַב 2624	ַ שְׁאַלְתִּיאֵל (מְיאֵל 2752°) מינלפרטל
בַּעַם בעם 2977°	2624⁴ ,	פפס יייער מיל קריאל
בְּעְמָה ²⁹⁷⁷ ²	רָקבוֹדָ 2624°	ラベ 型 888b ・
ורסמה	2942 בַּקָה	1862°; 2237°
2520°	2527 בקון	つ 2557b 1116b 1910a
בַּעְרָה 2520°; 2545°	קק הקק הקקם 695°; 2321°	לאָמֶל 492º; 1118º; 1810º; 2122º; 2837º
ו רעמסס	רַק 2840°; 3086°	יַשְׁאָרָה 1118b; 1810a
בַּעַמְמֶס 2520º בַּעַמְמֶס	הַ הַּפָּס רֹקַתּ 695⁵; 699⁴	ביי עאָרָה 2758°; 3043°
קנָן 675 ^b ; 1145 ^b	699 בַּקְּתָה	בישר בישר בישרב 27526
ָּלָעָל 517b; 1042b; 1442a	לקרע (מול 315a,b; 3106b	עָאָרִית 2557а,ъ
לעש 700°; 888°, b	יאָ זְּלֵיק 516° לָקִיק	אָרָע 849°; 1050°; 1867°;
$(815^a; 974^b; 1224^b;$	רָקַם 767° רָקַם	2594 ^b
1349 ^a ; 2393 ^b ; 2532 ^b ; 2533 ^b ;		メラヴ 2629ª; 2752b
בָּהָה 2558°; 2562°;	בָּקֶם לֶּקֶם 2527b; 2553a	עָבָאָר 2629•
3083b; see also רָּפָּה, infra	רקטָה 523°; 674°; 709°; 940°; 2534°	つうヴ 569b; 1693a; 2752b
רָפָאָה (1349°; 2026° בְּפָאָה	בּשַׁב 2156 בּשָׁב	עבר (2856 ישׁבר 2857 ישׁבר 2856 ישׁבר 2856 ישׁבר 2856 ישׂבר 2856 ישׁבר 2856
1350°, בּפּארּת 1350°	רַשַּׁע הַ 698 הַ	שְׁבַרָּאֵל (פְיַבָּרָאֵל (פְיַבְרָאֵל (פְיַבְרָאֵל (פְיַבְרָאֵל (פּיַבְיּאָל
בין אָבּאָל בין בין בין בין בין בין בין בין בין בין	עשׁב 3084 מָשׁב	ביאל }2754b; 2781a
קבָּלְ 2002 , 2003 הַבָּלְ 766b; 1086a; 1447b;	ى 3037 ئۈ⊄	שָׁבוּעַ (
2533a; 2559b;	רְשְׁלֶה 1101b; 3083b;	アスヴ 2982°; 3078b
2560°; see also	3084a,b	שָׁבְעָה
יָבָּאָ 2560º רָפֶּה	ַרָּשֶׁהָ 494b; 671b; 2561b	עבועה 288º; 2172º
ריפָה see רָפָה	1 2 93 رُڜٰ٦	וּשְׁבַרָּת (בּרָת בַּרָּת בַּרָת בַּרָת בַּרָת בַּרָת בַּרָת בַּרָת בַּרָת בַּרָת בַּרָת בַּרָת בַּרָת בַּרָת
הבין 2559 ^b	589° בתוֹק	לים (הבית להפיה להפיה להפיה להפיה להפיה להפיה להפיה להפיה להפיה להפיה להפיה להפיה להפיה להפיה להפיה להפיה להפי
יבּי, 2005 רְפִירָה 510 הַּ	תחַז 494°, b	ロユヴ 2429ª
··* + : 0+0	- T	•

שָׁבָּט	3010a	שַּׁבְּתַּי	2745ь	שור	see TÜ
מֶׁבֶני	722b; 1185b; 1801a;	ۺؙڎؚۿ	2746 ^b	בָּעָרָה:	340°; 694°; 724°
	2596b; 2701b; 2702a; 2847b;	מָנַב	1049 ^b	טָּיָרָה	2751ь
	3010°	שָׁנְבָּ ה	970b; 1448a; 2645a	שַׁנֵה קַרְנָתַנִם	2751ь
שָׁבָט	541b; 2753b	ישָׁבָּרוּ	970ь	שֿרהַ	2781ª
שָׁבִר	569b; 1052b	שָוֹגרב	2713a	ಗಧಾಯೆ	2781ª
שֹבִר	2779a	שָׁבָּרוֹדָ	2488 ^{a, b} ; 2767 ^b ;	ל ו ר דור	
שֹבֵר	2779ª	ישׁגְּינֶר <i>ה</i>		שרהָם	
שְׂבִיב	1117ь	שָׁבַל	2513 ^b		2774 ^b
שָׁבִּיב	1117 ^b	<i>שׁ</i> בֶּל	2513ь		2704ª
שָׁבְרָה	569 ^b	שָׁבַע 📗	1941 ^b ; 1960 ^b		1106 ^b
, מָּלְבָיָה	2745 ^b	שַׁר	517 ^b ; 2237 ^b ; 2923 ^b	שורה	513 ^b
ָשָׁלְרָיָה.		שׁר	J	שוֹנְכָה שוֹנִכָּה	
	see שְׁבוּת	שָׁר	530 ^b ; 690 ^b	I.	2779°; 2821°
• •	see OFCM	עוֹבֵיד	1341*	שכו	
	599a; 2140a	שָׁבַד	1266 ^b ; 2846 ^a	שוּכָתִי	
שׁבֶּל שַׁבִּל	1865ª	هَارُك	724 ^a ; 1286 ^b ; 1307 ^a ; 1826 ^b ; 3084 ^a ;	שרל	
שבל שבלת	594a; 1120a; 2767b	שָׂדֵר	3157ª		(577b; 688a; 728b;
שַׁבְּלרּל שַׁבְּלרּל		ښنوب	2101 ^b	מוֹרם	1232b; 1350b; 1462b; 1859a;
	513b	שַׁהַר	100°; 145°; 1129°;	'שורם	1968a; 2200b;
מָבָם	١		1250°; 1251°; 1254°; 1264°;		2550b; 2756b; 2911a
מָּבְמָּה יִייִּ	}2711a; 2767b		1267a; 2188b;	שורם	1122a; 1175b
שָׁבְנָא	1		2393°; 3034° 2756 ^b	שוֹמֵר	١
שָׁבְנָה	}2753 ⁶	שָּׁבֵראוּר ייניהרת	2784a	שומר	}2779 ^b
מָבַנְיָה	}2753 ^b	מָיַבָם קייב	486°	<i>שׁ</i> הּכָר	2782ª
שָׁבַנְיָה <i>וּ</i>	2135	שָׁדַפָּ ה)	שׁהַכֶּם	2681ь
שָׁבַע	56°; 424°; 2864°	שׁרָפּוֹן	}486 ^a ; 2051 ^b	ישרבברת ישרבברת	2681ь
	2743b; 2753b; 2767b;		491a; 2530a	שָׁרַע	764 ^b
<u>שָׁבְעָה</u>		שָׂה	583b; 1049a; 1249b;	· .	764 ^b
٠.	see שָׁברּעַ	שר	1822b; 1823a; 3155b	-	2590ь
מָּבְעָה	see שָׁבוּע		1574a	שרעַב	511 ^a ; 1810 ^b ; 2778 ^b ; 2781 ^a
שָׁבְעִים יייביי	2744*	שָׂהַר שֹׁהַם	709 ^a ; 2442 ^a ; 2779 ^b ;	שרעא	2781a
	940°; 3078°	المارية المارية	2856b; 2857a;	'שׁרּעָל	
	136ª		2861 ^a ; 2862 ^a	. سُمُدُد	1110 , 1111 , 2101
שָּׂבֵר שָׁבַר	517 ^a ; 523 ^b		303b; 744b	שוֹעֵר	869 ^a ; 2422 ^a
		1	3045 ^b	שׁצֵר)
שָבַר	533°; 1442°; 1780°; 2512°	1 .	2751 ^b ; 2766 ^b 340 ^b ; 522 ^b ; 706 ^a ;	,	526 ^b
יָשֶׁבֶר	514b; 523b; 737b;		1232b; 1248a;		2779 ^a
ۺٚڿۛڗ	1442 ^a ; 2512 ^b ; 2753 ^b		1417 ^b ; 1693 ^a ; 2538 ^b ; 2558 ^{a, b}	1	אַטְרוֹת שׁוֹפָן see עַקירוֹת שׁוֹפָן
	2753b; 2912b	שוֹבֶב		שו פָּוּ שׁוֹפָּר	305 ^a ; 605 ^a ; 2095 ^a ; 2097 ^a
	586a; 587a; 1780a;		2779ª	1 :	1394b; 1865°;
• 1→ ψ	2629b	שׁוֹבֵב			2780a, b; 2972b
ಬತ್ತು	1780a; 2318b; 2629b;		2779°		2782ª
	2634 ^b ; 2822 ^a ; 2982 ^a		2779ª		583b; 3155b
שַׁבְּתוֹן	2629 ^b ; 2634 ^b ; 2822 ^a	שובק	2779 ^a	שונבק	see שֹׁבֶק

אַיְשְׁי 2751 ^b	2813° שִּׂמְנָה	בּלְּכָּהָ 2394b; 3074°
ן שׁישׁיַל	គម្គាំ 3072b	ישׂברן 1815 מַלֹברן
ישׁוֹשֶׁר (1893°, בּייִּלְיּהָר (1893°, בּייִּלְיִּהָר (1893°, בּייִּלְיִּהָר (1985°;	ັກບູນີ່ ໄມ່ຄວາມ ຄວວກາ	1395 עָּוֹכֶרר 1395 בּרר
]ឃុំឃ <u>់</u> 2872 ⁶	ង្ហាញ់ } 1120°; 2205°	₁⊃₩ 2765 ^b
לשׁוֹשַׁפָּה	ער (ביי בייטר בייטר 256 ^b ; 2180 ^b ; 2438 ^b ; 3123 ^a	フラヴ 2813b; 2868b; 2921b; 3089a; 3097a
2782° שׁרּשׁׁרָ	2778 שׁמָרֵי	לים לים לים לים לים לים לים לים לים לים
2783°; 2872° שׁרּשַׁכְּכִּר	1050 שרא	בָּלֶל (אֶבֶּלֶל) אָבָל (אַבָּל) אָבָל (אַבָּל) אַבָּל (אַבָּל) אַבָּל (אַבָּל) אַבָּל אָרָל (אָבָל אַרָ
שׁרְשׁׁרְ עֵדְרָּתּ	2751 ^b ئارھ	ייל ארי אין אין אין אין אין אין אין אין אין אי
שׁוּשׁנִּים {2488b; 2831e עדות	ו מוראד	סָכְלוּת see שָׂכְלוּת
שׁׁרשֵׁק see שׁׁרשֵׁק	2768°; 2774°; 2806° מיראר	1929 שׁנְבָּלִים
מוּתֶלַת 2783°	מּוֹרבָה 675 מֵוֹּרבָה	□⊇♥ 454°; 2082b
יייי בייט בייט 1894°; 3028°	1893،; 2407 שיר 1893	ם 1556b; 2755a;
בּיִי לְּטִבּי לָּטִבּי לָּטָבּי 520°	עורדָא 2778 שׁרדָא	2780 ^{a,b} ; 2783 ^a ;
לים ליים 520°; 1228°	יים 348b; 532a; 695b;	3001° שׁכְמָה מֹכְמָה 2780°
ייָה 2177º	840°;2026°;2781°	יייקער 2756 ^b
ការ៉ាឃុំ 2587b; 3110a	בּירתָה 2026 מירתָה 2026 מירתָה	לַבְּעָ 2758 ^b 883 ^b ; 2758 ^b
ו מוחות	שׁרְתוֹר וֹיִי	70世 883b; 1468a; 2132b;
1843b; 2072b; 2703a	1228b; 2145b	2758b
לידרן 494°; 2405°	ן שׁׁחֹר · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	שְׁכַלְּיָה ְ 2754b
יַּיִרָּה 587⁴ בּ	2768° שִׁיחוֹר לִבְנָת	שַׁכַנְיָהוּ נְשִׁכַנְיָהוּ
1895°, פֿעַקל	ערט 2774²; 2775ь	پندِر) 2636°
בים בוויים בוויים בים בים בים בים בים בים בים בים בים	ן שִׁילה	סְבַר ן סְבַר
ធារារ្យ 2707°	שׁלה 2768°; 2769°; 2887° שׁלה	าวุพั่ 879ь; 1896°; 3063°
ភាទូកូឃ្លាំ 705ª; 1108b	ן שיכו שלו	קלֶר 2818°
יָּיָם 1895°; 3083°	ן שילוני לשילוני	קֹלֶ 1098a; 1395a; 1541b;
ו שׁחצוֹם	[3063a
2746 שׁבָּעִים	ַ 2769° ∰רלינר שׁלינר	ליך 879°; 1896°; 3086° שׁכּר see שׁכּר see
ア ヴ 831 ^b ; 2072 ^b	(שְׁכְנְיִּ שִׁיבוֹוֹן 2770°	פּרוֹן אַפּרוֹן 2767º; 2768º
PDヴ 1843b; 2814b	(819 ^b ; 1570 ^b ; 2097 ^a ;	ַ אַבְּרוֹן 2707°, 2708° אָבָרוֹן 880°, י
P可逆 2814 ^b	שיר (13 ¹⁵ , 13 ¹⁶ , 2037) מיר (2413 ¹⁵ ; 2414 ¹⁶ ;	970 שׁל פּי פּי פּי פּי פּי פּי פּי פּי פּי פּי
שׁרוֹם see שׁחֹם	(שֵׁירָה 2487°; 2830°;	888 שַׁלְאַנְן
ገ፲፱ 454°	2831° שרש 1984 ⁶	2200 שׁלֶב ב
ិក្ឃ 797b; 799b; 800°;	2777b	كَانِ 1864 ^b
1393°; 2082°		בּילָל בּ 2819 שׁלֶל
्रेन्स 671b	ਸੁਘਾਂਘੰ }2777 ⁶ ਸੁਘਾਂਘਾਂ 2100 250h 1068°	שִׁילה see שִׁלה
י שָׁתוֹר	יית (בית ביים ביים ביים ביים ביים ביים ביים ב	שָׁאֵלָה see שׁלָה
2758° שׁחַרְיָה	1985 ^b	ייי אָרָהָ װּ אָרָהָ װּ װּעָלְהָּבֶּה 1117b; 3046b
ביום ביים 2746 מַּחְרַיִּם	ביית 2974 ^b	ו שולר
រាក្ឃ 2837 ^b	7W 2439a; 2974b	ליילרר \2512°
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722b; 1440b; 2401b	הַבְּלֶהָ 580°	ו לנולף
ΠρΨ 1248°	7711a,b	ַ 970⁵ (שַׁלוּת
つゆば 27°; 2778b	1929 שׁכוֹל	שלום (1094b; 1098a; 1272b;
, שַּׁשִּׁים ,	שׁכּוֹר (880ء; 2876 שׁכּוֹר	1305°; 1350°;
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700 64b; 1343b; 2693b	الپن⊆ت }1132ه	שׁלַּרָּם (2747° בּיִבּיּה (2747°
70 ¹ Ψ 64 ^ь ; 2693 ^ь	تَتِي مُنْ اللَّهُ مِنْ اللَّهُ	בּיֹשׁי בְּיֹם בּיֹים בּייִם בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים בּיים

למית see שׁלוֹמִית	י שֶׁלֶבְיָה שִׁי	0==0	מִלִלָּה	2674ь
בילרן 2747 שׁלרן	שָׁלֶמְיָהוּ	2758 ^b		2663ь
(שַׁלוֹשׁ	י שֶׁלֹמִית		שָׁמֵם	833°; 1050b
שׁלשׁ	שׁלוֹמִית	}2759ª		1906°, b; 1907°;
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מַלשָׁה	שַׁלְמַנְאֶסֶר	2747ь		1985ь
שָׁלרּ see שָׁלרּת	שׁלֹנֶר	see שִׁילוֹנְי	ۺڿڔڗ	1101 ^b ; 2181 ^b ; 2183 ^a ; 2399 ^a ; 2639 ^a , b
	2 ^b ; 2721 ^a שֶּׁלֶבּ	2759a	שָׁמִּנִים	· 1
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	7586; 28996 שַׁלשׁ	see שָׁלוֹשׁ		526 ^b ; 851 ^a ; 1088 ^a ;
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ביילחר בייל מיל מיל מיל מיל	שָׁלשָׁה	see שָׁלוֹשׁ		2877b; 2923b;
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-2008 שָׁלֶם	עום עום	, , ,	הָּבָע הַבַּע	
בּלֶשׁ בַּבּבּט בַּעַ בָּעָ בַּעַ בַּעַ בַּעַ)	2112°; 2759°	הָבָע קבָר	
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לרם see שׁלָם	ימרדע שׁ	ў 2760 ^ь	מָראַרֹן	}2771a
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שַּׁצִּטְבֵּז	1894 ^b ; 2867 ^b		3082ª		2743b
	690 ^b ; 1248 ^b ; 1424 ^a ; 1533 ^b ; 1548 ^b ;	ಗ್ರಹಗ	340a; 698a; 725b;	הָשַׁלַל	2535b; 3079a
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	,		2408°; 2534°; 3010°	שומם	
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ָּטִעָּע	782a; 820a, b	1	55a; 2737b	18,00	1887 ^a ; 2876 ^b
עוֹעת		1 ' '	2690b; 2750a	שַׂר	569a; 606a; 1289b;
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	2745a	1 .	1087 ^b		1307b; 1929b;
שָּׁיבֵּי שָּׂיצֵר			2756b		2438 ^b ; 2453 ^b ; 2454 ^b ; 2626 ^a ;
· .			2030°		2690b; 2732a;
שָׁעַר		1.			2917°; 3134°
المُل اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ	1320a	i >5前	3b; 1439b; 3045a	שר ו	2122b; see also שור

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ָשֵׂרְאֶצֶר (שֵׂרֶ	2100	ښتر	944 ^b	עַּאָרַעַ	2910^{a}
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ALPHABETICAL LIST OF BIBLICAL PLACE-NAMES PROPERLY LOCATED BY MAP NUMBER FOLLOWED BY KEY NUMERALS AND LETTERS

Note.—Numerals following place-name preceding dash (—) denote the map number. The numeral and letter following the dash indicate the location of the name on the map: thus, Abana River...4, 10, 11—6A; 9—4F, appears on maps 4, 10, and 11 at space 6A and also on map 9 at space 4F.

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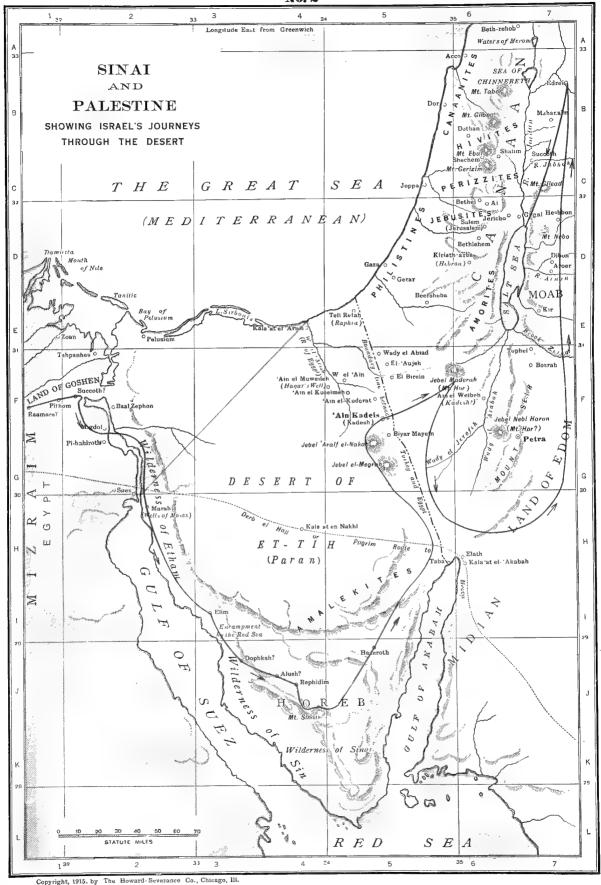
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Mosque	Obal
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Mosque .16—5C Mount Zion Street .16—3D Mozah (Kh. Beit Mizza) .13—2E Muallak, Wady el .13—5K Mughar, el .14—3B Mujedda, el .14—4N Mukelik, Wady .13—6F Mukes, see Gadara .14—7H Mukhmas, see Michmash .13—4C	Obal
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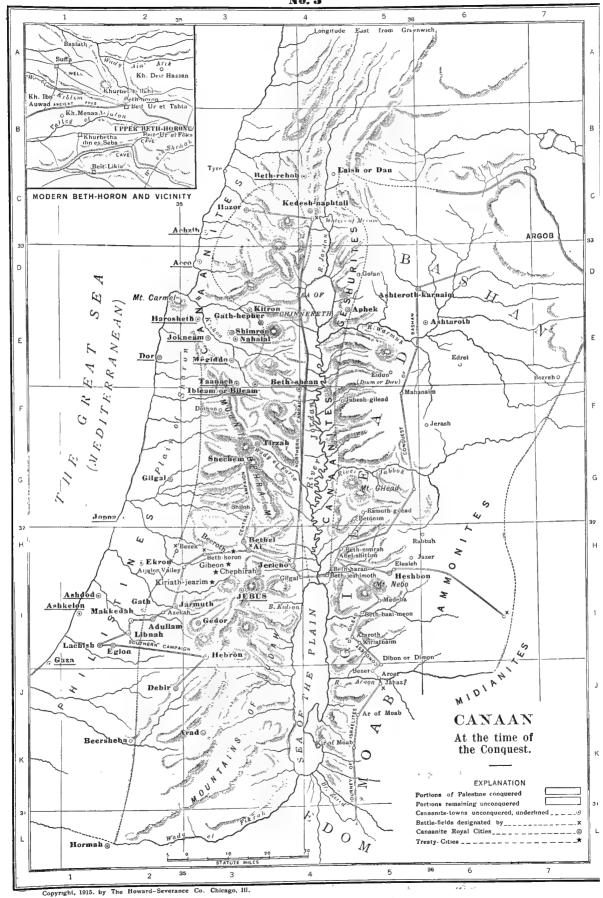
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Patmos12—6D	Ramah (er Ram)13—3D
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Pilgrim Road to Mecca or	maneh)14—1E
Pilgrim Road to Mecca or Derb el Hajj	maneh)14—1E Riphath1—4C
Pilgrim Road to Mecca or Derb el Hajj	maneh)
Pilgrim Road to Mecca or Derb el Hajj	maneh)
Pilgrim Road to Mecca or 2—4H; 11—6K Derb el Hajj. 2—4H; 11—6K Pillars of Hercules 8—1C Pirathon 4—3F Pisgah, Mount 4—4J	maneh)
Pilgrim Road to Mecca or Derb el Hajj. 2—4H; 11—6K Pillars of Hercules 8—1C Pirathon 4—3F Pisgah, Mount 4—4J Pisidia 12—8D	maneh)
Pilgrim Road to Mecca or Derb el Hajj. 2—4H; 11—6K Pillars of Hercules 8—1C Pirathon 4—3F Pisgah, Mount 4—4J Pisidia 12—8D Pithom 2—1F	maneh)
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Pilgrim Road to Mecca or Derb el Hajj. 2—4H; 11—6K Pillars of Hercules 8—1C Pirathon 4—3F Pisgah, Mount 4—4J Pisidia 12—8D Pithom 2—1F Plain, Sea of the 3—4I Pontus 6, 7—3B; 8—5C; 12 —9A Pontus Euxinus 6, 7—3A; 8—5C Pontus Galaticus 12—9B Protestant School 16—3E Propontis 12—7B Pteria 5—3B Ptolemais 12—10F Ptolemais (Acco) 11—3D Puteoli 12—1B R Raamah 1—7E Raamses? 2—1F Rabbah 3—5H; 4—2J Rabbath-ammon 4, 10, 11—5H; 9—4H Rabbath-moab, see Ar 11—5K Rabbith 4—3F Rachael's Tomb 13—3G	maneh) 14—1E Riphath 1—4C Rock Oreb? (Osh el Ghurab) 13—7C Rock Rimmon (Rummon) 13—5B Roma (Kh. Rumah) 14—1E Roman Empire 8 Roman Road 11—5K Rome 8—3C; 12—1A Ruad I 9—4D Rumah, Kh., see Roma 14—1E Rummaneh, see Rimmon 14—1E Dimnah 14—1E Rummonh, Wady 14—2E Rummon, see Rock Rimmon 13—5B Russian Hospice 16—1A Russian Mission 16—1B S Sabeans Sabtar 1—6F Sabteca 1—6G Safa 13—1H Sahel el Ahma, see Betsanim 14—4F Sahel el Buttauf, see Plain 14—2D

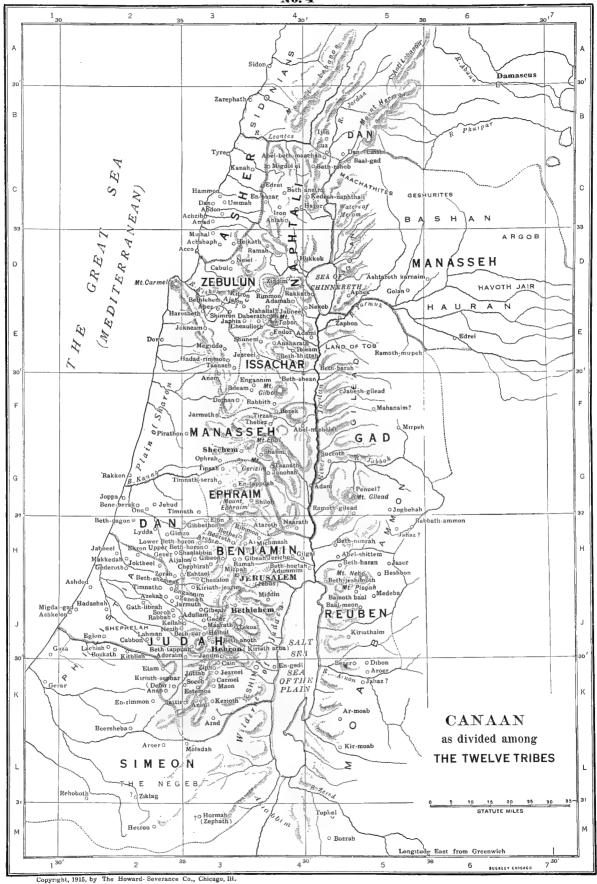
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Salmona, Cape12—6E	Shimron3, 4—3E
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Shihon (Ain Sha'in?)14—2F	Suweinit, Wady13—5D
Million (vin pha m.)	

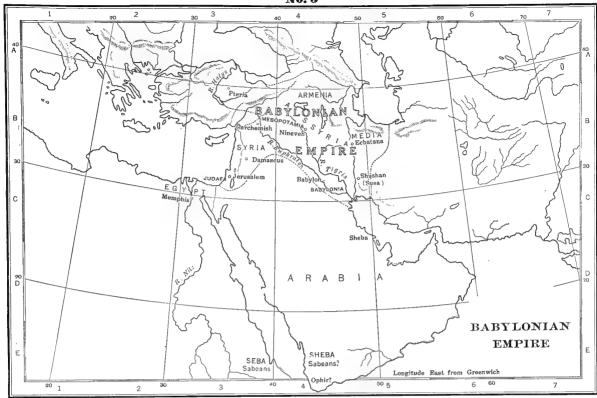
Sychar11—3F	Tiberias Rakkath (Tuba-
Syracuse	riya)14—5E
Syria	Tigris River
5D; 12—10E	
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Syria or Aram9—6D	Timnath-serah4—3G
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